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A DICTIONARY,

PRACTICAL, THEORETICAL, AND HISTORICAL,

OF

COMMERCE AND COMMERCIAL NAVIGATION.

BY J. R. M'CULLOCH, Esq.

EDITED BY HENRY VETHAKE, LL. D.

ONE OF THE PROFESSORS IN THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA; MEMBER OF THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY; AUTHOR OF A TREATISE ON POLITICAL ECONOMY, ETC

WITH AN APPENDIX, CONTAINING

THE NEW TARIFF OF 1846,

TOGETHER WITH

THE TARIFF OF 1842,

REDUCED TO AD VALOREM RATES AS FAR AS PRACTICABLE.

ALSO,

THE SUB-TREASURY, WAREHOUSING, AND THE CANADIAN TRANSIT BILLS, OF 1846.

LIKEWISE,

THE NEW BRITISH TARIFF,

AS AMENDED BY THE PASSAGE OF THE NEW CORN LAW AND SUGAR DUTIES.

WITH

A TABLE OF ALL FOREIGN GOLD AND SILVER COIN, REDUCED TO FEDERAL CURRENCY, &c. &c. &c.

IN TWO VOLUMES.—VOL. II.

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1852.

"Though immediately and primarily written for the merchants, this Commercial Dictionary will be of use to every man of business or of curiosity. There is no man who is not in some degree a merchant; who has not something to buy and something to sell, and who does not therefore want such instructions as may teach him the true value of possessions or commodities. The descriptions of the productions of the earth and water which this volume contains, may be equally pleasing and useful to the speculatist with any other Natural History. The descriptions of ports and cities may instruct the geographer as well as if they were found in books appropriated only to his own science; and the doctrines of funds, insurances, currency, monopolies, exchanges, and duties, is so necessary to the politician, that without it he can be of no use either in the council or the senate, nor can speak or think justly either on war or trade.

"We, therefore, hope that we shall not repent the labour of compiling this work, nor flatter ourselves unreasonably, in predicting a favourable reception to a book which no condition of life can render useless, which may contribute to the advantage of all that make or receive laws, of all that buy or sell, of all that wish to keep or improve their possessions, of all that desire to be rich, and all that desire to be wise."

JOHNSON, *Preface to Rolt's Dict.*

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A

DICTIONARY

OF

COMMERCE

AND

COMMERCIAL NAVIGATION.

I. AND J.

JALAP, OR JALOP (Ger. *Jalapp*; Fr. *Jalap*; It. *Sciarappa*; Sp. *Jalapa*), the root of a sort of convolvulus, so named from Xalapa, in Mexico, whence we chiefly import it. The root, when brought to this country, is in thin transverse slices, solid, hard, weighty, of a blackish colour on the outside, and internally of a dark grey, with black circular striæ. The hardest and darkest coloured is the best; that which is light, spongy, and pale coloured, should be rejected. The odour of jalap, especially when in powder, is very characteristic. Its taste is exceedingly nauseous, accompanied by a sweetish bitterness.—(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Brande's Pharmacy.*) The entries of jalap for home consumption amounted, at an average of 1831 and 1832, to 47,816 lbs. a year.

JAMAICA PEPPER. See PIMENTO.

JAPANNED WARES (Ger. *Japanische ware*; Du. *Japansch lakwerk*; Fr. *Marchandises de Japon*), articles of every description, such as tea-trays, clock-dials, candlesticks, snuff-boxes, &c. covered with coats of japan, whether plain, or embellished with painting or gilding. Birmingham is the grand staple of this manufacture, which is there carried on to a great extent. Pontypool, in Monmouthshire, was formerly famous for japanning; but it is at present continued there on a very small scale only. It is prosecuted with spirit and success at Bilston and Wolverhampton.

JASPER (Ger. *Jaspis*; Du. *Jaspis*; Fr. *Jaspe*; It. *Diaspro*; Sp. *Jaspe*; Rus. *Jaschma*). This stone is an ingredient in the composition of many mountains. It occurs usually in large amorphous masses, sometimes in round or angular pieces; its fracture is conchoidal; specific gravity from 2 to 2·7. Its colours are various; when heated it does not decrepitate: it is usually divided into four species, denominated Egyptian jasper, striped jasper, porcelain jasper, and common jasper. It is sometimes employed by jewellers in the formation of seals.

JERSEY. See GUERNSEY.

JET, OR PITCH COAL (Du. *Git*, *Zwarte barnsteen*; Fr. *Jais*, *Jayet*; Ger. *Gagat*; It. *Gagata*, *Lustrino*; Lat. *Gagus*, *Gagates*), of a black velvet colour, occurs massive, in plates; sometimes in the shape of branches of trees, but without a regular woody texture. Internal lustre shining, resinous, soft; rather brittle; easily frangible; specific gravity 1·3. It is used for fuel, and for making vessels and snuff-boxes. In Prussia it is called black amber, and is cut into rosaries and necklaces. It is distinguished by its brilliancy, and conchoidal fracture.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

JETSAM. See FLOTSAM.

IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION, the bringing of commodities from and sending them to other countries. A very large portion of the revenue of Great Britain being derived from customs duties, or from duties on commodities imported from abroad; and drawbacks being given on many, and bounties on a few articles exported; the business of importation and exportation is subjected to various regulations, which must be carefully observed by those who would avoid incurring penalties, and subjecting their property to confiscation. The regulations referred to, have been embodied in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52., which is subjoined

General Regulations.

No Goods to be landed nor Bulk broken before Report and Entry.—No goods shall be unladen from any ship arriving from parts beyond the seas at any port or place in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, nor shall bulk be broken after the arrival of such ship within 4 leagues of the coast thereof, before due report of such ship and due entry of such goods shall have been made, and warrant granted, in manner herein-after directed; and no goods shall be so unladen except at such times and places, and in such manner, and by such persons, and under the care of such officers, as is and are herein-after directed; and all goods not duly reported, or which shall be unladen contrary hereto, shall be forfeited; and if bulk be broken contrary hereto, the master of such ship shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; and if, after the arrival of any ship within 4 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom or of the Isle of Man, any alteration be made in the stowage of the cargo of such ship, so as to facilitate the unlading of any part of such cargo, or if any part be staved, destroyed, or thrown overboard, or any package be opened, such ship shall be deemed to have broken bulk: provided always, that the several articles herein-after enumerated may be landed in the United Kingdom without report, entry, or warrant; (that is to say,) diamonds and bullion, fresh fish of British taking, and imported in British ships, turbots and lobsters fresh, however taken or imported.—§ 2.

Manifest.

All British Ships, and all Ships with Tobacco, to have Manifests.—No goods shall be imported into the United Kingdom, or into the Isle of Man, from parts beyond the seas, in any British ship, nor any tobacco in any ship, unless the master shall have on board a manifest of such goods or of such tobacco, made out; dated, and signed by him at the place or respective places where the same or the different parts of the same was or were taken on board, and authenticated in the manner herein-after provided; and every such manifest shall set forth the name and the tonnage of the ship, the name of the master and of the place to which the ship belongs, and of the place or places where the goods were taken on board respectively, and of the place or places for which they are destined respectively, and shall contain a particular account and description of all the packages on board, with the marks and numbers thereon, and the sorts of goods and different kinds of each sort contained therein, to the best of the master's knowledge, and of the particulars of such goods as are stowed loose, and the names of the respective shippers and consignees, as far as the same can be known to the master; and to such particular account shall be subjoined a general account or recapitulation of the total number of the packages of each sort, describing the same by their usual names, or by such descriptions as the same can best be known by, and the different goods therein, and also the total quantities of the different goods stowed loose: provided always, that every manifest for tobacco shall be a separate manifest distinct from any manifest for any other goods, and shall, without fail, contain the particular weight of tobacco in each hogshead, cask, chest, or case, with the tare of the same; and if such tobacco be the produce of the dominions of the Grand Seignior, then the number of parcels or bundles within any such hogshead, cask, chest, or case, shall be stated in such manifest.—§ 3.

To be produced to Officers in Colonies, &c.—Before any ship shall be cleared out or depart from any place in any of the British possessions abroad, or from any place in China, with any goods for the United Kingdom or for the Isle of Man, the master of such ship shall produce the manifest to the collector or comptroller of the customs, or other proper officer, who shall certify upon the same the date of the production thereof to him: provided always, that in all places within the territorial possessions of the East India Company the servant of the said Company by whom the last despatches of such ship shall be delivered shall be the proper officer to authenticate the manifest as aforesaid; and in all places in China the chief supercargo of the said Company shall be the proper officer for such purpose.—§ 4.

To be produced to Consuls.—Before the departure of any ship from any place beyond the seas not under the British dominions, where any tobacco has been taken on board such ship for the United Kingdom or for the Isle of Man, the master of such ship shall produce the manifest of such tobacco to the British consul or other chief British officer, if there be any such resident at or near such place; and such consul or other officer shall certify upon the same the date of the production thereof to him.—§ 5.

If wanting, Master to forfeit 100*l.*—If any goods be imported into the United Kingdom or into the Isle of Man, in any British ship, or any tobacco in any ship, without such a manifest, or if any goods contained in such manifest be not on board, the master of such ship shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*—§ 6.

Manifest to be produced within 4 *Leagues.*—The master of every ship required to have a manifest on board shall produce such manifest to any officer of the customs who shall come on board his ship after her arrival within 4 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom or of the coast of the Isle of Man, and who shall demand the same, for his inspection; and such master shall also deliver to any such officer who shall be the first to demand it, a true copy of such manifest signed by the master; and shall also deliver another copy to any other officer of the customs who shall be the first to demand the same within the limits of the port to which such ship is bound; and thereupon such officers respectively shall notify on such manifest and on such copies the date of the production of such manifest and of the receipt of such copies, and shall transmit such copies to the collector and comptroller of the port to which such vessel is first bound, and shall return such manifest to the master; and if such master shall not in any case produce such manifest, or deliver such copy, he shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*—§ 7.

Report.

Master, within 24 *Hours, and before breaking Bulk, shall report.*—The master of every ship arriving from parts beyond the seas at any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, whether laden or in ballast, shall, within 24 hours after such arrival, and before bulk be broken, make due report of such ship, and shall make and subscribe a declaration to the truth of the same, before the collector or comptroller of such port; and such report shall contain an account of the particular marks, numbers, and contents of all the different packages or parcels of the goods on board such ship, and the particulars of such goods as are stowed loose, to the best of his knowledge, and of the place or places where such goods were respectively taken on board, and of the burden of such ship, and of the country where such ship was built, or, if British, of the port of registry, and of the country of the people to whom such ship belongs, and of the name and country of the person who was master during the voyage, and of the number of the people by whom such ship was navigated, stating how many are subjects of the country to which such ship belongs, and how many are of some other country; and in such report it shall be further declared, whether and in what cases such ship has broken bulk in the course of her voyage, and what part of the cargo, if any, is intended for importation at such port, and what part, if any, is intended for importation at another port in the United Kingdom, or at another port in the Isle of Man respectively, and what part, if any, is prohibited to be imported, except to be warehoused for exportation only, and what part, if any, is intended for exportation in such ship to parts beyond the seas, and what surplus stores or stock remain on board such ship, and, if a British ship, what foreign-made sails or cordage, not being standing or running rigging, are in use on board such ship; and the master of any ship, who shall fail to make such report, or who shall make a false report, shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*—§ 8.

Masters of Vessels coming from Africa to report how many Natives they have on board.—The master of every vessel coming from the coast of Africa, and having taken on board at any place in Africa any person or persons being or appearing to be natives of Africa, shall, in addition to all other matters, state, in the report of his vessel, how many such persons have been taken on board by him in Africa; and any such master failing herein shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*: provided also, that the master or owner or owners of such vessel, or some one of them, at the time of making such report, be required to enter into bond to his Majesty in the sum of 100*l.*, conditioned to keep harmless any parish, or any extra-parochial or other place maintaining its own poor, against any expense which such parish or other place may be put to in supporting any such person during their stay in the United Kingdom; and any such master, owner or owners refusing or neglecting to enter into such bond shall forfeit the sum of 200*l.*—§ 9.

Packages reported "Contents unknown," may be opened and examined.—If the contents of any packages so intended as aforesaid for exportation in the same ship to parts beyond the seas shall be reported by the master as being unknown to him, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to open and examine such package on board, or to bring the same to the king's warehouse for that purpose; and if there be found in such package any goods which may not be entered for home use, such goods shall be forfeited; or if the goods be such as may be entered for home use, the same shall be chargeable with the duties of importation; unless in either case the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, in consideration of the sort or quality of such goods, or the small rate of duty payable thereon, shall see fit to deliver the same for exportation.—§ 10.

Master to deliver Manifest, &c.—The master of every ship shall, at the time of making such report, deliver to the collector or comptroller the manifest of the cargo of such ship, where a manifest is required, and, if required by the collector or comptroller, shall produce to him any bill or bills of lading, or a true copy thereof, for any and every part of the cargo laden on board; and shall answer all such questions relating to the ship and cargo, and crew and voyage, as shall be put to him by such collector or comptroller; and in case of failure or refusal to produce such manifest, or to answer such questions, or to answer them truly, or to produce such bill of lading or copy, or if such manifest, or bill of lading, or copy, shall be false, or if any bill of lading be uttered by any master, and the goods expressed therein shall not have been *bonâ fide* shipped on board such ship, or if any bill of lading uttered or produced by any master shall not have been signed by him, or any such copy shall not have been received or made by him previously to his leaving the place where the goods expressed in such bill of lading or copy were shipped, then and in every such case such master shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*—§ 11.

Part of Cargo reported for another Port.—If any part of the cargo of any ship for which a manifest is required be reported for importation at some other port in the United Kingdom, or at some other port in the Isle of Man, the collector and comptroller of the port at which some part of the cargo has been delivered shall notify such delivery on the manifest, and return the same to the master of such ship.—§ 12.

Ship to come quickly to Place of unlading, &c.—Every ship shall come as quickly up to the proper place of mooring or unlading as the nature of the port will admit, and without touching at any other place; and in proceeding to such place shall bring to at stations appointed by the commissioners of customs for the boarding of ships by the officers of the customs; and after arrival at such place of mooring or unlading such ship shall not remove from such place except directly to same other proper place, and with the knowledge of the proper officer of the customs, on penalty of 100*l.*, to be paid by the master of such ship: provided always, that it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to appoint places to be the proper places for the mooring or unlading of ships importing tobacco, and where such ships only shall be moored or unladen; and in case the place so appointed for the unlading of such ships shall not be within some dock surrounded with walls, if any such ship after having been discharged shall remain at such place, or if any ship not importing tobacco shall be moored at such place, the master shall in either case forfeit and pay the sum of 20*l.*—§ 13.

Officers to board Ships.—It shall be lawful for the proper officers of the customs to board any ship arriving at any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, and freely to stay on board until all the goods laden therein shall have been duly delivered from the same; and such officers shall have free access to every part of the ship, with power to fasten down hatchways, and to mark any goods before landing, and to lock up, seal, mark, or otherwise secure any goods on board such ship; and if any place, or any box or chest, be locked, and the keys be withheld, such officers, if they be of a degree superior to tidesmen or watermen, may open any such place, box, or chest in the best manner in their power; and if they be tidesmen or watermen, or only of that degree, they shall send for their superior officer, who may open or cause to be opened any such place, box, or chest in the best manner in his power; and if any goods be found concealed on board any such ship, they shall be forfeited; and if the officers shall place any lock, mark, or seal upon any goods on board, and such lock, mark, or seal be wilfully opened, altered, or broken before due delivery of such goods, or if any of such goods be secretly conveyed away, or if the hatchways, after having been fastened down by the officer, be opened, the master of such ship shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*—§ 14.

National Ships, British or Foreign, having Goods on board, Person in charge to deliver an Account, or forfeit 100*l.*—If any ship (having commission from his Majesty, or from any foreign prince or state) arriving as aforesaid at any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man shall have on board any goods laden in parts beyond the seas, the captain, master, purser, or other person having the charge of such ship or of such goods for that voyage, shall, before any part of such goods be taken out of such ship, or when called upon so to do by any officer of the customs, deliver an account in writing under his hand, to the best of his knowledge, of the quality and quantity of every package or parcel of such goods, and of the marks and numbers thereon, and of the names of the respective shippers and consignees of the same, and shall make and subscribe a declaration at the foot of such account, declaring to the truth thereof, and shall also truly answer to the collector or comptroller such questions concerning such goods as shall be required of him; and on failure thereof, such captain, master, purser, or other person shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; and all such ships shall be liable to such searches as merchant ships are liable to; and the officers of the customs may freely enter and go on board all such ships, and bring from thence on shore into the king's warehouse any goods found on board any such ship as aforesaid; subject nevertheless to such regulations in respect of ships of war belonging to his Majesty as shall from time to time be directed in that respect by the commissioners of his Majesty's treasury of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.—§ 15.

Master to deliver List of Crew of Ships from West Indies.—The master of every British ship arriving at any port in the United Kingdom, on her return from any British possessions in the West Indies, shall, within 10 days of such arrival, deliver to the collector or comptroller a list, containing the names and descriptions of the crew which was on board at the time of clearing from the United Kingdom, and of the crew on board at the time of arrival in any of the said possessions, and of every seaman who has deserted or died during the voyage, and also the amount of wages due at the time of his death to each seaman so dying, and shall make and subscribe a declaration at the foot of such list, declaring to the truth thereof; and every master omitting so to do, shall forfeit the sum of 50*l.*; and such list shall be kept by the collector for the inspection of all persons interested therein.—§ 16.

Entry.

After 14 *Days, Officer may land Goods not entered, &c.*—Every importer of any goods shall, within 14 days after the arrival of the ship importing the same, make perfect entry inwards of such goods, or entry by bill of sight, in manner herein-after provided, and shall within such time land the same; and in default of such entry and landing it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to convey such goods to the king's warehouse; and whenever the cargo of any ship shall have been discharged, with the exception only of a small quantity of goods, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to convey such remaining goods, and at any time to convey any small packages or parcels of goods, to the king's warehouse, although such 14 days shall not have expired, there to be kept waiting the due entry thereof during the remainder of such 14 days; and if the duties due upon any goods so conveyed to the king's warehouse shall not be paid within 3 months after such 14 days shall have expired, together with all charges of removal and warehouse rent, the same shall be sold, and the produce thereof shall be applied, first to the payment of freight and charges, next of duties, and the overplus, if any, shall be paid to the proprietor of the goods.—§ 17.

Bill of Entry to be delivered.—The person entering any goods inwards (whether for payment of duty, or to be warehoused upon the first perfect entry thereof, or for payment of duty upon the taking out of the warehouse, or whether such goods be free of duty,) shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a bill of the entry of such goods, fairly written in words at length, expressing the name of the ship, and of the master of the ship in which the goods were imported, and of the place from whence they were brought, and the description and situation of the warehouse, if they are to be warehoused, and the name of the person in whose name the goods are to be entered, and the quantity and description of the goods, and the number and denomination or description of the respective packages containing the goods, and in the margin of such bill shall delineate the respective marks and numbers of such packages, and shall pay down any duties which may be payable upon the goods mentioned in such entry; and such person shall also deliver at the same time 2 or more duplicates, as the case may require, of such bill, in which all sums and numbers may be expressed in figures, and the particulars to be contained in such bill shall be written and arranged in such form and manner, and the number of such duplicates shall be such as the collector and comptroller shall require; and such bill being duly signed by the collector and comptroller, and transmitted to the landing waiter, shall be the warrant to him for the landing or delivering of such goods.—§ 18.

Unauthorised Persons not permitted to make Entries.—Every person who shall make or cause to be made any such entry inwards of any goods, not being duly authorised thereto by the proprietor or consignee of such goods, shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 100*l.*: provided always, that no such penalty shall extend or be deemed to extend to any person acting under the direction of the several dock companies or other corporate bodies authorised by law to pass entries.—§ 19.

Not valid unless agreeing with Manifest, Report, and other Documents.—No entry nor any warrant for the landing of any goods, or for the taking of any goods out of any warehouse, shall be deemed valid, unless the particulars of the goods and packages in such entry shall correspond with the particulars of the goods and packages, purporting to be the same, in the report of the ship, and in the manifest, where a manifest is required, and in the certificate or other document, where any is required, by which the importation or entry of such goods is authorised, nor unless the goods shall have been properly described in such entry by the denominations and with the characters and circumstances according to which such goods are charged with duty or may be imported, either to be used in the United Kingdom, or to be warehoused for exportation only; and any goods taken or delivered out of any ship, or out of any warehouse, or for the delivery of which or for any order for the delivery of which, from any warehouse, demand shall have been made, not having been duly entered, shall be forfeited.—§ 20.

Goods by Number, Measure, or Weight, &c.—If the goods in such entry be charged to pay duty according to the number, measure, or weight thereof, such number, measure, or weight shall be stated in the entry; and if the goods in such entry be charged to pay duty according to the value thereof, such value shall be stated in the entry, and shall be affirmed by the declaration of the importer or his known agent, written upon the entry, and attested by his signature; and if the goods in such entry be chargeable at the option of the officers of customs, either according to the number, measure, or weight thereof, or according to the value thereof, then as well such number, measure, or weight, as also such value, shall be in like manner stated in the entry, and attested; and if any person make such declaration, not being the importer or proprietor of such goods, nor his agent duly authorised by him, such person shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; and such declaration shall be made in manner and form following, and shall be binding upon the person by or in behalf of whom the same shall be made; (that is to say,)

"I *A. B.* of [*place of abode*] do hereby declare, that I am [the importer or authorised by the importer] of the goods contained in this entry, and that I enter the same [*stating which, if part only*] at the sum of ——————. Witness my hand the —————— day of ——————.

"*A. B.*"—§ 21.

Goods undervalued, Officers may detain.—If upon examination it shall appear to the officers of the customs that such goods are not valued according to the true value thereof, it shall be lawful for such officers to detain and secure such goods, and (within 5 days from the landing thereof if it be in the ports of London, Leith, or Dublin, or within 7 days if in any other port in the United Kingdom, or if in any port in the Isle of Man,) to take such goods for the use of the Crown; and if a different rate of duty shall be charged upon any goods according as the value of the same shall be described in the entry to be above or to be below any particular price or sum, and such goods shall be valued in the entry so as to be liable to the lower rate of duty, and it shall appear to the officers of the customs that such goods, by reason of their real value, are properly liable to the higher rate of duty, it shall be lawful for such officers in like manner to take such goods for the use of the Crown; and the commissioners of his Majesty's customs shall thereupon in any of such cases cause the amount of such valuation, together with an addition of 10*l.* per cent. thereon, and also the duties paid upon such entry, to be paid to the importer or proprietor of such goods in full satisfaction for the same, and shall dispose of such goods for the benefit of the Crown; and if the produce of such sale shall exceed the sums so paid and all charges incurred by the Crown, one moiety of the overplus shall be given to the officer or officers who had detained and taken the goods; and the money retained for the benefit of the Crown shall be paid into the hands of the collector of the customs, with the knowledge of the comptroller, and carried to account as duties of customs.—§ 22.

East India Company to sell Goods.—The value of goods imported by the East India Company shall be ascertained at the gross price at which the same shall have been sold by auction at the public sales of the said Company; and that the said Company shall fairly and openly expose to sale and cause to be sold all such goods so charged to pay duty according to the value thereof by way of public auction in the city of London, within 3 years from the importation thereof, and shall give due notice at the Custom-house in London to the officers appointed to attend such sales of the time and place thereof.—§ 23.

Bill of Sight if Goods be not known.—If the importer of any goods, or his agent after full conference with him, shall declare before the collector or comptroller that he cannot for want of full information

make a full or perfect entry of such goods, and shall make and subscribe a declaration to the truth thereof, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller to receive an entry by bill of sight for the packages or parcels of such goods by the best description which can be given, and to grant a warrant thereupon, in order that the same may be provisionally landed, and may be seen and examined by such importer, in presence of the proper officers; and within 3 days after any goods shall have been so landed, the importer shall make a full or perfect entry thereof, and shall either pay down all duties which shall be due and payable upon such goods, or shall duly warehouse the same, according to the purport of the full or perfect entry or entries so made for such goods, or for the several parts or sorts thereof: provided always, that if, when full or perfect entry be at any time made for any goods provisionally landed as aforesaid by bill of sight, such entry shall not be made in manner herein-before required for the due landing of goods, such goods shall be deemed to be goods landed without due entry thereof, and shall be subject to the like forfeiture accordingly: provided also, that if any sum of money shall have been deposited upon any entry by bill of sight, on account of the duties which may be found to be payable on the goods intended therein, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to deliver, in virtue of the warrant for landing the same, any quantity of goods the duty on which shall not exceed the sum so deposited.—§ 24.

Goods to be taken to King's Warehouse.—In default of perfect entry within such 3 days, such goods shall be taken to the king's warehouse by the officers of the customs; and if the importer shall not, within 1 month after such landing, make perfect entry or entries of such goods, and pay the duties thereon, or on such parts as can be entered for home use, together with charges of removal and of warehouse rent, such goods shall be sold for payment of such duties (or for exportation, if they be such as cannot be entered for home use, or shall not be worth the duties and charges,) and for the payment of such charges; and the overplus, if any, shall be paid to the importer or proprietor thereof.—§ 25.

East India Company may enter by Bill of Sight.—It shall be lawful for the East India Company, without making the proof herein-before required, to enter by bill of sight, to be landed and secured in such manner as the commissioners of his Majesty's customs shall require, any goods imported by them, and also any goods imported by any other person from places within the limits of the charter of the said Company, with the consent of such person, upon condition to cause perfect entry to be made of such goods within 3 months from the date of the importation thereof, either to warehouse the same or to pay the duties thereon within the times and in the manner herein-after mentioned; (that is to say,) if such goods be charged to pay duty according to the value, then to pay such duty within 4 months from the sale of the goods; and if such goods be charged to pay duty according to the number, measure, or weight thereof, then to pay one moiety of such duties within 6 calendar months from the time of the importation of such goods, and the other moiety within 12 calendar months from such time; and such goods shall be secured in such places and in such manner as the commissioners of his Majesty's customs shall require, until the same shall have been duly entered, and the duties thereon shall have been duly paid, or until the same shall have been duly exported: provided also, that it shall be lawful for any other person who shall have imported any goods from places within the said limits into the port of London in like manner to enter such goods by bill of sight in his own name, upon giving sufficient security by bond, to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, with the like conditions as are required of the said Company for making perfect entries, and for the securing and the paying of duties, provided such goods be entered by such bill of sight to be warehoused in some warehouse under the superintendence of the said Company, and in which goods imported by the said Company may be secured in the manner before mentioned.—§ 26.

In default of Payment of Duties, Goods to be sold.—In default of perfect entry within 3 months as aforesaid, or of due entry and payment of duty within the times and in the manner herein-before respectively required, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's customs to cause any such goods in respect of which such default shall have been made to be sold for the payment of such duties, (or for exportation, if they be such as cannot be entered for home use,) and for the payment of all charges incurred by the Crown in respect of such goods; and the overplus, if any, shall be paid to the proprietor thereof.—§ 27.

Goods landed by Bill of Sight fraudulently concealed, forfeited.—When any package or parcel shall have been landed by bill of sight, and any goods or other things shall be found in such package or parcel concealed in any way, or packed with intent to deceive the officers of his Majesty's customs, as well all such goods and other things as the package or parcel in which they are found, and all other things contained in such package or parcel, shall be forfeited.—§ 28.

East India Company to pay Duties to Receiver-general.—The East India Company shall pay into the hands of the receiver-general of the customs every sum of money due from the said Company on account of the duties of customs at the respective times when the same shall become due; and the said receiver-general shall give to the said Company a recept for the monies so paid, on the account of the collector of the customs, which receipt, when delivered to such collector, shall be received by him as cash.—§ 29.

Goods damaged on Voyage.—Any goods which are rated to pay duty according to the number, measure, or weight thereof (except certain goods herein-after mentioned) shall receive damage during the voyage, an abatement of such duties shall be allowed in proportion to the damage so received; provided proof be made to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, or of any officers of customs acting therein under their directions, that such damage was received after the goods were shipped abroad in the ship importing the same, and before they were landed in the United Kingdom; and provided claim to such an abatement of duties be made at the time of the first examination of such goods.—§ 30.

Officers to examine Damage, and state Proportion, or choose two Merchants.—The officers of the customs shall thereupon examine such goods with reference to such damage, and may state the proportion of damage which, in their opinion, such goods have so received, and may make a proportionate abatement of duties; but if the officers of customs be incompetent to estimate such damage, or if the importer be not satisfied with the abatement made by them, the collector and comptroller shall choose two indifferent merchants experienced in the nature and value of such goods, who shall examine the same, and shall make and subscribe a declaration, stating in what proportion, according to their judgment, such goods are lessened in their value by reason of such damage, and thereupon the officers of the customs may make an abatement of the duties according to the proportion of damage so declared by such merchants.—§ 31.

No Abatement for certain Goods.—No abatement of duties shall be made on account of any damage received by any of the sorts of goods herein-after enumerated; (that is to say,) cocoa, coffee, oranges, pepper, currants, raisins, figs, tobacco, lemons, and wine.—§ 32.

Returned Goods.—It shall be lawful to re-import into the United Kingdom from any place, in a ship of any country, any goods (except as herein-after excepted) which shall have been legally exported from the United Kingdom, and to enter the same by bill of store, referring to the entry outwards, and exportation thereof, provided the property in such goods continue in the person by whom or on whose account the same have been exported, and that such re-importation take place within 6 years from the date of the exportation; and if the goods so returned be foreign goods, which had before been legally

imported into the United Kingdom, the same duties shall be payable thereon as would, at the time of such re-importation, be payable on the like goods under the same circumstances of importation as those under which such goods had been originally imported, or such goods may be warehoused as the like goods might be warehoused upon a first importation thereof: provided always, that the several sorts of goods enumerated or described in the Table following shall not be re-imported into the United Kingdom for home use upon the ground that the same had been legally exported from thence, but that the same shall be deemed to be foreign goods, whether originally such or not, and shall also be deemed to be imported for the first time into the United Kingdom; (that is to say,)

A Table of Goods exported which may not be re-imported for Home Use.

Corn, grain, meal, flour, and malt, hops, tobacco, tea. Goods for which any bounty or any drawback of excise had been received on exportation, unless by special permission of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, and on repayment of such bounty or such drawback.	All goods for which bill of store cannot be found in manner herein-after directed, except small remnants of British goods by special permission of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, upon proof to their satisfaction that the same are British, and had not been sold.—Sect. 33.

Bill of Store, by whom may be taken out.—The person in whose name any goods so re-imported were entered for exportation shall deliver to the searcher at the port of exportation an exact account, signed by him, of the particulars of such goods, referring to the entry and clearance outwards and to the return inwards of the same, with the marks and numbers of the packages, both inwards and outwards; and thereupon the searcher, finding that such goods had been legally exported, shall grant a bill of store for the same; and if the person in whose name such goods were entered for exportation was not the proprietor thereof, but his agent, he shall declare upon oath on such bill of store the name of the person by whom he was employed as such agent: and if the person to whom such returned goods are consigned shall not be such proprietor and exporter, he shall make and subscribe a declaration on such bill of store of the name of the person for whose use such goods have been consigned to him; and the real proprietor, ascertained to be such, shall make and subscribe a declaration upon such bill of store, to the identity of the goods so exported and so returned, and that he was at the time of exportation and of re-importation the proprietor of such goods, and that the same had not during such time been sold or disposed of to any other person; and such declaration shall be made before the collectors or comptrollers at the ports of exportation and of importation respectively; and thereupon the collector and comptroller shall admit such goods to entry by bill of store, and grant their warrant accordingly.—§ 34.

Surplus Stores subject as Goods.—The surplus stores of every ship arriving from parts beyond the seas, in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, shall be subject to the same duties, and the same prohibitions, restrictions, and regulations, as the like sorts of goods shall be subject to when imported by way of merchandise; but if it shall appear to the collector and comptroller that the quantity or description of such stores is not excessive or unsuitable, under all the circumstances of the voyage, it shall be lawful for them to permit such surplus stores to be entered for the private use of the master, purser, or owner of such ship, or of any passenger of such ship to whom any such surplus stores may belong, on payment of the proper duties, or to be warehoused for the future use of such ship, although the same could not be legally imported by way of merchandise.—§ 35.

Goods from Plantations, &c.—No goods shall be entered as being of or from any British possession in America (if any benefit attach to such distinction) unless the master of the ship importing the same shall have delivered to the collector or comptroller a certificate, under the hand of the proper officer of the place where such goods were taken on board, of the due clearance of such ship from thence, containing an account of such goods.—§ 36.

Certificate of Growth of Sugar, Coffee, Cocoa, Spirits, from Plantations.—Before any sugar, coffee, cocoa, or spirits shall be entered as being of the produce of some British possession in America, or the Island of Mauritius, the master of the ship importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate, under the hand of the proper officer of the place where such goods were taken on board, testifying that proof had been made in manner required by law that such goods are of the produce of some British possession in America, or of the Island of Mauritius, stating the name of the place where such goods were produced, and the quantity and quality of the goods, and the number and denomination of the packages containing the same, and the name of the ship in which they are laden, and of the master thereof; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that such certificate was received by him at the place where such goods were taken on board, and that the goods so imported are the same as are mentioned therein.—§ 37.

Certificate of Sugar from Limits of Charter.—Before any sugar shall be entered as being the produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, the master of the ship importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate under the hand and seal of the proper officer at the place where such sugar was taken on board, testifying that oath had been made before him, by the shipper of such sugar, that the same was really and *bonâ fide* the produce of such British possession; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that such certificate was received by him at the place where such sugar was taken on board, and that the sugar so imported is the same as is mentioned therein.—§ 38.

Certificate of Wine, Produce of Cape of Good Hope.—Before any wine shall be entered as being the produce of the Cape of Good Hope, the master of the ship importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate under the hand of the proper officer of the Cape of Good Hope, testifying that proof had been made, in manner required by law, that such wine is of the produce of the Cape of Good Hope or the dependencies thereof, stating the quantity and sort of such wine, and the number and denomination of the packages containing the same; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that such certificate was received by him at the Cape of Good Hope, and that the wine so imported is the same as is mentioned therein.—§ 39.

Goods of Guernsey, Jersey, &c.—It shall be lawful to import into the United Kingdom any goods of the produce or manufacture of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, from the said islands respectively, without payment of any duty (except in the cases herein-after mentioned); and such goods shall not be deemed to be included in any charge of duties imposed by any act hereafter to be made on the importation of goods generally from parts beyond the seas: provided always, that such goods may nevertheless be charged with any proportion of such duties as shall fairly countervail any duties of excise, or any coast duty, payable on the like goods the produce of the part of the United Kingdom into which they shall be imported: provided also, that such exemption from duty shall not extend to any manufactures of the said islands made from materials the produce of any foreign country, except manufactures of linen and cotton made in and imported from the Isle of Man.—§ 40.

Master to deliver Certificate of Produce, and declare to Certificate.—Before any goods shall be entered as being the produce of the said islands (if any benefit attach to such distinction), the master of the ship or vessel importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate from the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of the island from whence such goods were imported, that proof had been made, in manner required by law, that such goods were of the produce of such island, stating the quantity and quality of the goods, and the number and denomination of the packages containing the same; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before

the collector or comptroller, that such certificate was received by him at the place where such goods were taken on board, and that the goods so imported are the same as are mentioned therein.—§ 41.

Treasury may permit Produce of Colonial Fisheries to be imported from Guernsey, &c.—It shall be lawful for the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury, when and so long as they shall see fit, to permit any goods the produce of the British possessions or fisheries in North America, which shall have been legally imported into the islands of Guernsey or Jersey, direct from such possessions, to be imported into the United Kingdom for home use direct from those islands, under such regulations as the said commissioners shall direct, any thing in the law of navigation to the contrary notwithstanding.—§ 42.

Vessels with Stone from Guernsey, &c. not to be piloted.—No vessel arriving on the coast of England from Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, wholly laden with stone the production thereof, shall be liable to be conducted or piloted by pilots appointed and licensed by the corporation of the Trinity House of Deptford Strond, any law, custom, or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.—§ 43.

Fish, British taking and curing, and Lobsters and Turbots, free of Duty on Importation.—Fresh fish of every kind of British taking, and imported in British ships, and fresh lobsters and turbots, however taken or in whatever ship imported, and cured fish of every kind, of British taking and curing, imported in British ships, shall be imported free of all duties, and shall not be deemed to be included in any charge of duty imposed by any act hereafter to be made on the importation of goods generally: provided always, that before any cured fish shall be entered free of duty, as being of such taking and curing, the master of the ship importing the same shall make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that such fish was actually caught and taken in British ships, and cured by the crews of such ships, or by his Majesty's subjects.—§ 44.

Certificate of Blubber, Train Oil, &c. British colonial taking.—Before any blubber, train oil, spermaceti oil, head matter, or whale fins, shall be entered as being the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea taken and caught wholly by his Majesty's subjects usually residing in some part of his Majesty's dominions, and imported from some British possession, the master of the ship importing the same shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate under the hand of the proper officer of such British possession where such goods were taken on board, (or if no such officer be residing there, then a certificate under the hands of two principal inhabitants at the place of shipment,) notifying that oath had been made before him or them, by the shipper of such goods, that the same were the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea taken wholly by British vessels owned and navigated according to law; and such master shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that such certificate was received by him at the place where such goods were taken on board, and that the goods so imported are the same as mentioned therein; and the importer of such goods shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, at the time of entry, that to the best of his knowledge and belief the same were the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea taken wholly by British vessels in manner aforesaid.—§ 45.

Before entry of Blubber, &c. of British fishing, Master and Importer to make Declaration of the same.—Before any blubber, train oil, spermaceti oil, head matter, or whale fins, imported direct from the fishery, shall be entered as being the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea taken and caught wholly by the crews of ships cleared out from the United Kingdom, or from one of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, the master of the ship importing such goods shall make and subscribe a declaration, and the importer of such goods (to the best of his knowledge and belief) shall make and subscribe a declaration, that the same are the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea taken and caught wholly by the crew of such ship, or by the crew of some other ship (naming the ship) cleared out from the United Kingdom, or from one of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man (stating which).—§ 46.

Blubber from Greenland may be boiled, and entered as Oil imported, and be exported as such.—It shall be lawful upon the return of any ship from the Greenland seas or Davis's Straits to the United Kingdom with any blubber, being the produce of whales or other creatures living in the sea, for the importers thereof to cause the same to be boiled into oil at the port of importation, under the care and inspection of the proper officers of the customs; and the oil so produced shall be admitted to entry, and the duties be paid thereon, as if imported in that state, and such oil shall not afterwards, if the same come to be exported, be subject to duty of exportation as a manufacture of the United Kingdom.—§ 47.

Importation direct.—No goods shall be deemed to be imported from any particular place unless they be imported direct from such place, and shall have been there laden on board the importing ship, either as the first shipment of such goods, or after the same shall have been actually landed at such place.—§ 48.

Salvor may sell Goods sufficient to defray Salvage.—It shall be lawful for the owner or salvor of any property liable to the payment of duty saved from sea, and in respect of which any sum shall have been awarded under any law at the time in force, or in respect of which any sum shall have been paid or agreed to be paid by the owner thereof or his agent, to the salvors, to defray the salvage of the same, to sell so much of the property so saved as will be sufficient to defray the salvage so awarded, or such other sum so paid or agreed to be paid; and upon the production of an award made in execution of any such law to the commissioners of customs, or upon proof to the satisfaction of the said commissioners that such sum of money has been paid, or has been agreed to be paid, the said commissioners are hereby empowered and required to allow the sale of such property aforesaid, free from the payment of all duties, to the amount of such sum so awarded, paid, or agreed to be paid, or to the amount of such other sum as to the said commissioners shall seem just and reasonable: provided always, that if such owner or salvor shall be dissatisfied with any determination of the said commissioners as to the amount of such property to be sold duty free, it shall be lawful for such owner or salvor to refer any such determination of the said commissioners to the judgment and revision of the High Court of Admiralty; and in that case such sale shall be suspended until the decision of such court shall have been had thereon.—§ 49.

Foreign Goods derelict, &c. to be subject to same Duties as on Importation.—All foreign goods, derelict, jetsam, flotsam, and wreck, brought or coming into the United Kingdom or into the Isle of Man, shall at all times be subject to the same duties as goods of the like kind imported into the United Kingdom respectively are subject to: provided always, that if, for ascertaining the proper amount of duty so payable, any question shall arise as to the origin of any such goods, the same shall be deemed to be of the growth, produce, or manufacture of such country or place as the commissioners of customs shall upon investigation by them determine: provided also, that if any such goods be of such sorts as are entitled to allowance for damage, such allowance shall be made under such regulations and conditions as the said commissioners shall from time to time direct: provided also, that all such goods as cannot be sold for the amount of duty due thereon shall be delivered over to the lord of the manor or other person entitled to receive the same, and shall be deemed to be unenumerated goods, and shall be liable to and be charged with duty accordingly.—§ 50.

Persons having such Goods in Possession, without Notice, liable to a Penalty of 100*l.*—If any person shall have possession of any such goods, either on land or within any port in the United Kingdom, and shall not give notice thereof to the proper officer of the customs within 24 hours after such possession,

or shall not on demand pay the duties due thereon, or deliver the same into the custody of the proper officer of the customs, such person shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; and if any person shall remove or alter in quantity or quality any such goods, or shall open or alter any package containing any such goods, or shall cause any such act to be done, or assist therein, before such goods shall be deposited in a warehouse in the custody of the officers of the customs, every such person shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; and in default of the payment of the duties on such goods within 18 months from the time when the same were so deposited, the same may be sold in like manner and for the like purposes as goods imported may in such default be sold: provided always, that any lord of the manor having by law just claim to such goods, or if there be no such lord of the manor, then the person having possession of the same, shall be at liberty to retain the same in his own custody, giving bond, with 2 sufficient sureties, to be approved by the proper officer of the customs, in treble the value of such goods, for the payment of the duties thereon at the end of 1 year and 1 day, or to deliver such goods to the proper officer of the customs in the same state and condition as the same were in at the time of taking possession thereof.—§ 51.

Goods under Excise Permit Regulations.—No goods which are subject to any regulations of excise shall be taken or delivered out of the charge of the officers of customs, (although the same may have been duly entered with them, and the full duties due thereon may have been paid,) until such goods shall also have been duly entered with the officers of excise, and permit granted by them for delivery of the same, nor unless such permit shall correspond in all particulars with the warrant of the officers of the customs: provided always, that such entry shall not be received by the officers of the excise, nor such permit granted by them, until a certificate shall have been produced to them of the particulars of the goods, and of the warrant for the same, under the hand of the officers of the customs who shall have the charge of the goods: provided also, that if upon any occasion it shall appear necessary, it shall be lawful for the proper officers of excise to attend the delivery of such goods by the officers of the customs, and to require that such goods shall be delivered only in their presence; and it shall be lawful for such officers of excise to count, measure, gauge, or weigh any such goods, and fully to examine the same, and to proceed in all respects relating to such goods in such manner as they shall be authorised or required by any act for the time being in force relating to the excise.—§ 52.

Commissioners of Customs may direct certain Goods to be stamped.—The commissioners of customs are hereby authorised, after any goods have been entered at the Custom-house, and before the same shall be discharged by the officers, and delivered into the custody of the importer or his agent, to mark or stamp such goods in such manner and form as they may deem fit and proper for the security of the revenue, and by such officer as they shall direct and appoint for that purpose.—§ 53.

Orders for stamping Goods to be published.—Every order made by the said commissioners of his Majesty's customs in respect of marking or stamping any goods shall be published in the *London Gazette* and *Dublin Gazette*.—§ 54.

Penalty 200*l.* *on forging such Stamps.*—If any person or persons shall at any time forge or counterfeit any mark or stamp to resemble any mark or stamp which shall be provided and used for the purposes of this act, or shall forge or counterfeit the impression of any such mark or stamp, or shall sell or expose to sale, or have in his, her, or their custody or possession, any goods with a counterfeit mark or stamp, knowing the same to be counterfeit, or shall use or affix any such mark or stamp to any other goods required to be stamped as aforesaid other than that to which the same was originally affixed, all and every such offender or offenders, and his, her, or their aiders, abettors, and assistants, shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 200*l.*—§ 55.

Times and Places for landing Goods.—No goods whatever (except diamonds, bullion, fresh fish of British taking and imported in British ships, and turbots and lobsters,) shall be unshipped from any ship arriving from parts beyond the seas, or landed or put on shore, but only on days not being Sundays or holidays, and in the day-time, (that is to say,) from the first day of September until the last day of March between sun-rising and sun-setting, and from the last day of March to the first day of September between the hours of 7 o'clock in the morning and 4 o'clock in the afternoon; nor shall any goods, except as aforesaid, be so unshipped or landed unless in the presence or with the authority of the proper officer of the customs; and such goods, except as aforesaid, shall be landed at one of the legal quays appointed by his Majesty for the landing of goods, or at some wharf, quay, or place appointed by the commissioners of the customs for the landing of goods by sufferance; and no goods, except as aforesaid, after having been unshipped shall be transhipped, or after having been put into any boat or craft to be landed shall be removed into any other boat or craft previously to their being duly landed, without the permission or authority of the proper officer of the customs.—§ 56.

Goods to be unshipped, &c. at the Expense of Importer.—The unshipping, carrying, and landing of all goods, and the bringing of the same to the proper place after landing, for examination or for weighing, and the putting of the same into the scales, and the taking of the same out of and from the scales after weighing, shall be performed by or at the expense of the importer.—§ 57.

Prohibitions and Restrictions absolute or modified.—The several sorts of goods enumerated or described in the Table following, denominated "A table of Prohibitions and Restrictions inwards," shall either be absolutely prohibited to be imported into the United Kingdom, or shall be imported only under the restrictions mentioned in such Table, according as the several sorts of such goods are respectively set forth therein; (that is to say,)

A Table of Prohibitions and Restrictions Inwards.

A List of Goods absolutely prohibited to be imported.

Arms, ammunition, and utensils of war, by way of merchandize, except by licence from his Majesty, for furnishing his Majesty's public stores only.

Beef, fresh or corned or slightly salted.

Books; viz. first composed or written or printed in the United Kingdom, and printed or reprinted in any other country, imported for sale, except books not reprinted in the United Kingdom within 20 years; or being parts of collections, the greater parts of which had been composed or written abroad.

Cattle, great.

Clocks and watches of any metal, impressed with any mark or stamp appearing to be or to represent any legal British assay mark or stamp, or purporting by any mark or appearance to be of the manufacture of the United Kingdom, or not having the name and place of abode of some foreign maker abroad visible on the frame and also on the face, or not being in a complete state, with all the parts properly fixed in the case.

Coin; viz. false money, or counterfeit sterling.
silver, of the realm, or any money purporting to be such, not being of the established standard in weight or fineness.

Fish of foreign taking or curing, or in foreign vessels; except turbots and lobsters, stock-fish, live eels, anchovies, sturgeon, bolargo, and caviare.

Gunpowder; except by licence from his Majesty, such licence to be granted for the furnishing his Majesty's stores only.

Lamb, malt, mutton, pork (fresh or corned or slightly salted), sheep.

Snuff work.

Spirits from the Isle of Man.

Swine.

Tobacco stalks stripped from the leaf, whether manufactured or not.

Tobacco stalk flour.

List of Goods subject to certain Restrictions on Importation.

Chaus, goods from, unless by the East India Company, and into the port of London, during the continuance of their exclusive privileges of trade.

East India; goods of places within the limits of the East India Company's charter, unless into such ports as shall be approved of by the Lords of the Treasury, and declared by order in council to be fit and proper for such importation.

Gloves of leather, unless in ships of 70 tons or upwards, and in packages containing 100 dozen pairs of such gloves.

Hides, skins, horns, or hoofs, or any other part of cattle or beast, his Majesty may by order in council prohibit, in order to prevent any contagious distemper.

Parts of articles; viz. any distinct or separate part of any article not accompanied by the other part or all the other parts of such

article, so as to be complete and perfect, if such article be subject to duty according to the value thereof.

Silk, manufactures of silk, being the manufactures of Europe, unless into the port of London, or into the port of Dublin direct from Bordeaux, or into the port of Dover direct from Calais, and unless in a ship or vessel of 70 tons or upwards, or into the port of Dover in a vessel of the burden of 60 tons at least, with licence of the commissioners of the customs.

Spirits, not being perfumed or medicinal spirits; viz. all spirits, unless in ships of 70 tons or upwards.

rum of and from the British plantations, if in casks, unless in casks containing not less than 90 gallons.

all other spirits, if in casks, unless in casks containing not less than 40 gallons.

Tea; unless from the place of its growth, and by the East India Company, and into the port of London, during the continuance of their exclusive privileges of trade.

Tobacco and snuff; viz. unless in a ship of the burden of 120 tons or upwards.

tobacco of and imported from the state of Colombia, and made up in rolls, unless in packages containing at least 380 lbs. weight of such rolls.

segars, unless in packages containing 100 lbs. weight of segars.

all other tobacco and snuff, unless in hogsheads, casks, chests, or cases, each of which shall contain of nett tobacco or snuff at least 100 lbs. weight if from the East Indies, or 450 lbs. weight if from any other place, and not packed in bags or packages

Tobacco and snuff—*continued.*

within any such hogshead, cask, chest, or case, nor separated nor divided in any manner whatever, except tobacco of the dominions of the Turkish empire, which may be packed in inward bags or packages, or separated or divided in any manner within the outward package, provided such outward package be a hogshead, cask, chest, or case, and contain 450 lbs. nett at least.

and unless the particular weight of tobacco or snuff in each hogshead, cask, chest, or case, with the tare of the same, be marked thereon.

and unless into the ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, Lancaster, Cowes, Falmouth, Whitehaven, Hull, Port Glasgow, Greenock, Leith, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Plymouth, Belfast, Cork, Drogheda, Dublin, Galway, Limerick, Londonderry, Newry, Sligo, Waterford, and Wexford.

or into some other port or ports which may hereafter be appointed for such purposes by the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury; such appointments in Great Britain being published in the *London Gazette*, and such appointments in Ireland being published in the *Dublin Gazette*.

but any ship wholly laden with tobacco may come into the ports of Cowes or Falmouth to wait for orders, and there remain 14 days, provided due report of such ship be made by the master with the collector or comptroller of such port.

And all goods from the Isle of Man, except such as be of the growth, produce, or manufacture thereof.

Forfeiture.—And if any goods shall be imported into the United Kingdom contrary to any of the prohibitions or restrictions mentioned in such Table in respect of such goods, the same shall be forfeited.—§ 58.

But Goods may be warehoused for Exportation only, although prohibited.—Any goods, of whatsoever sort, may be imported into the United Kingdom to be warehoused under the regulations of any act in force for the time being for the warehousing of goods, without payment of duty at the time of the first entry thereof, or notwithstanding that such goods may be prohibited to be imported into the United Kingdom to be used therein, except the several sorts of goods enumerated or described in manner following; (that is to say,) goods prohibited on account of the package in which they are contained, or the tonnage of the ship in which they are laden; tea and goods from China in other than British ships, or by other persons than the East India Company during the continuance of their exclusive privileges of trade; gunpowder, arms, ammunition, or utensils of war; dried or salted fish, not being stock-fish; infected hides, skins, horns, hoofs, or any other part of any cattle or beast; counterfeit coin or tokens; books first composed or written or printed and published in the United Kingdom, and reprinted in any other country or place; copies of prints first engraved, etched, drawn, or designed in the United Kingdom; copies of casts of sculptures or models first made in the United Kingdom; clocks or watches, being such as are prohibited to be imported for home use.—§ 59.

Goods to be entered to be warehoused for Exportation only.—If by reason of the sort of any goods, or of the place from whence, or the country, or navigation of the ship in which any goods have been imported, they be such or be so imported as that they may not be used in the United Kingdom, they shall not be entered except to be warehoused, and it shall be declared upon the entry of such goods that they are entered to be warehoused for exportation only.—§ 60.

Entry Outwards.

Goods not to be shipped till Entry of Ship and Entry of Goods, and Cocket granted; nor till cleared.—No goods shall be shipped, or waterborne to be shipped, on board any ship in any port or place in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, to be carried to parts beyond the seas, before the entry outwards of such ship and due entry of such goods shall have been made, and cocket granted, nor before such goods shall have been duly cleared for shipment in manner herein-after directed; and no stores shall be shipped for the use of any such ship bound to parts beyond the seas, nor shall any goods be deemed or admitted to be such stores, except such as shall be borne upon the victualling bill duly granted for such ship; and no goods shall be so shipped, or waterborne to be so shipped, except at such times and places, and in such manner, and by such persons, and under the care of such officers, as is and are herein-after directed; and all goods and stores which shall be shipped, or be waterborne to be shipped contrary hereto shall be forfeited.—§ 61.

Ships to be cleared, or Master to forfeit 100*l.*—No ship on board of which any goods or stores shall have been shipped in any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, for parts beyond the seas, shall depart from such port until such ship shall have been duly cleared outwards for her intended voyage, in manner herein-after directed, under forfeiture of the sum of 100*l.* by the master of such ship.—§ 62.

Victualling Bill for Stores.—The master of every ship which is to depart from any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, for parts beyond the seas, shall, upon due application made by him, receive from the searcher a victualling bill for the shipment of such stores as he shall require, and as shall be allowed by the collector and comptroller, for the use of such ship, according to the voyage upon which she is about to depart; and no articles taken on board any ship shall be deemed to be stores except such as shall be borne upon the victualling bill for the same.—§ 63.

Master to deliver Certificate of Clearance of last Voyage, and to make Entry Outwards.—The master of every ship in which any goods are to be exported from the United Kingdom or from the Isle of Man to parts beyond the seas shall, before any goods be taken on board, deliver to the collector or comptroller a certificate from the proper officer of the clearance inwards or coastwise of such ship of her last voyage, specifying what goods, if any, have been reported inwards for exportation, and shall also deliver to the collector or comptroller an account, signed by the master or his agent, of the entry outwards of such ship for her intended voyage, setting forth the name and tonnage of the ship, the name of the place to which she belongs if a British ship, or of the country if a foreign ship, the name of the master, and the name or names of the place or places for which she is bound, if any goods are to be shipped for the same, and the name of the place in such port at which she is to take in her lading for such voyage; and if such ship shall have commenced her lading at some other port, the master shall state the name of any port at which any goods have been laden, and shall produce a certificate from the searcher that the cockets for such goods have been delivered to him; and the particulars of such account shall be written and arranged in such form and manner as the collector and comptroller shall require; and such account shall be the entry outwards of such ship, and shall be entered in a book to be kept by the collector, for the information of all parties interested; and if any goods be taken on board any ship before she shall have been entered outwards, the master shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*: provided always, that where it shall become necessary to lade any heavy goods on board any ship before the whole of the inward cargo is discharged, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller to issue a stiffening order for that purpose, previous to the entry outwards of the ship.—§ 64.

Bill of the Entry to be delivered.—The person entering outwards any goods to be exported to parts beyond the seas, or from any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, shall deliver to the collector or comptroller a bill of the entry thereof, fairly written in words at length, expressing the

name of the ship and of the master, and of the place to which the goods are to be exported, and of the person in whose name the goods are to be entered, and the quantities and proper denominations or descriptions of the several sorts of goods, and shall pay down any duties which may be due upon the exportation of any such goods; and such person shall also deliver at the same time 1 or more duplicates of such bill, in which all sums and numbers may be expressed in figures; and the particulars to be contained in such bill shall be written and arranged in the form and manner, and the number of duplicates shall be such as the collector and comptroller shall require; and thereupon the collector and comptroller shall cause a cocket to be written for such goods, making it known that such goods have been so entered; and every cocket shall be signed by such collector and comptroller, and be delivered to the person who shall have made such entry, and such person shall keep and be responsible for the proper use of the same.—§ 65.

Goods for Drawback or Bounty.—If any drawback or bounty be allowable upon the exportation of any such goods, or any duty be payable thereon, or any exemption from duty claimed, or if any such goods be exportable only according to some particular rule or regulation, or under some restriction or condition, or for some particular purpose or destination, such goods shall be entered and cleared for shipment by such denominations or descriptions as are used, mentioned, or referred to in the granting of such drawback or bounty, or in the levying of such duty, or granting such exemption, or in the directing of such rules, regulations, restrictions, conditions, purpose, or destination; and if the goods in such entry are charged to pay duty according to the value thereof, such value shall be stated in the entry, and shall be affirmed by the declaration of the exporter or his known agent, to be made upon the entry, and attested by his signature; and if any person shall make such declaration, not being the exporter of such goods, nor his agent duly authorised by him, such person shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*; and such declaration shall be made in manner and form following, and shall be binding upon the person making the same; (that is to say,)

"I, *A. B.* of [*place of abode*] do hereby declare, that I am the exporter of the goods mentioned in this entry, [*or*, that I am duly authorised by him,] and I do enter the same at the value of ————. Witness my hand the ———— day of ————. *A. B.*"—§ 66.

Goods undervalued detained.—If upon examination it shall appear to the officers of the customs that such goods are not valued according to the true value thereof, the same may be detained, and (within 2 days) taken and disposed of for the benefit of the Crown, in like manner as is herein-before provided in respect of goods imported, except that no sum in addition to the amount of the valuation and the duties paid shall be paid to the exporter or proprietor of the goods.—§ 67.

For Drawback, or from Warehouse, or Duties to be first paid.—The person intending to enter outwards any foreign goods for drawback, at any other port than that at which the duties inwards on such goods had been paid, shall first deliver to the collector or comptroller of the port where the duties on such goods were paid, 2 or more bills, as the case may require, of the particulars of the importation of such goods, and of the entry outwards intended to be made; and thereupon such collector and comptroller, finding such bills to agree with the entry inwards, shall write off such goods from the same, and shall issue a certificate of such entry, with such particulars thereof as shall be necessary for the computation of the drawback allowable on such goods, and setting forth in such certificate the destination of the goods, and the person in whose name they are to be entered for exportation, and also the name of such other port; and such certificate, together with 2 or more bills of the same, as the case may require, in which all sums and numbers may be expressed in figures, being delivered to the collector or comptroller of the port from which the goods are to be exported, shall be the entry outwards of such goods; and such collector and comptroller shall thereupon cause a cocket to be written and delivered for such goods, in manner herein-before directed.—§ 68.

Coals Export Bond to Isle of Man and British Possessions.—No cocket shall be granted for the exportation of any coals to the Isle of Man, or to any British possession, until the exporter thereof shall have given security by bond in a penal sum of 40*s.* the chaldron, with condition that the same shall be landed at the place for which they shall be exported, or otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the commissioners of the customs; and also with condition to produce (within such time as the said commissioners shall require, to be expressed in such bond,) a certificate of the landing of such coals at such place, under the hand of the collector or comptroller or other proper officer at such place: provided always, that the bond so to be given in respect of coals shall not be liable to any duty of stamps.—§ 69.

Clearance of Goods.

Packages to be indorsed on Cocket.—Before any part of the goods for which any cocket shall have been granted shall have been shipped or waterborne to be shipped, the same shall be duly cleared for shipment with the searcher; and before any goods be cleared for shipment, the particulars of the goods for each clearance shall be indorsed on such cocket, together with the number and denomination or description of the respective packages containing the same; and in the margin of each such indorsement shall be delineated the respective marks and numbers of such packages; and to each such indorsement shall be subjoined, in words at length, an account of the total quantities of each sort of goods intended in such indorsement, and the total number of each sort of package in which such goods are contained, distinguishing such goods, if any, as are to be cleared for any bounty or drawback of excise or customs, and also such goods, if any, as are subject to any duty on exportation, or entitled to any exemption from such duty, and also such goods, if any, as can only be exported by virtue of some particular order or authority, or under some particular restriction or condition, or for some particular purpose or destination; and all goods shipped or waterborne to be shipped, not being duly cleared as aforesaid, shall be forfeited.—§ 70.

Cocket indorsed, &c.—The person clearing such goods for shipment shall upon each occasion produce the cocket so indorsed to the searcher, and shall also deliver a shipping bill or copy of such indorsement, referring by names and date to the cocket upon which such indorsement is made, and shall obtain the order of the searcher for the shipment of such goods; and the particulars to be contained in such indorsement and in such shipping bill shall be written and arranged in such form and manner as the collector and comptroller shall require.—§ 71.

Coals brought coastwise may be exported without landing.—If any coals shall have been brought coastwise from one port of the United Kingdom to another, and the master shall be minded to proceed with such coals, or any part of them, to parts beyond the seas, it shall be lawful for such master to enter such ship and such coals outwards for the intended voyage, without first landing the coals intended for exportation, provided the officers of the customs shall be satisfied that the quantity of coals left on board does not exceed the quantity so entered outwards.—§ 72.

Account of Value to be delivered to the Searcher.—Upon the clearance for shipment of any goods, the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom, not liable to any export duty, an account, containing an accurate specification of the quantity, quality, and value of such goods, together with a declaration to the truth of the same, signed by the exporter or his known agent, shall be delivered to the searcher by the person clearing such goods; and if such declaration be false, the person signing the same shall forfeit the sum of 20*l.*; and it shall be lawful for the searcher to call for the invoice, bills of parcels, and such other documents relating to the goods, as he may think necessary for ascertaining the true

value of the same: provided always, that if such exporter or agent shall make and subscribe a declaration before the collector or comptroller, that the value of the goods cannot be ascertained in time for the shipment of the same, and such declaration shall be delivered to the searcher, at the time of clearance, a further time of 3 months shall be allowed for the delivery of such separate shipping bill, on failure whereof such exporter or agent shall forfeit the sum of 20*l*.—§ 73.

Goods for Excise Drawback.—No drawback of excise shall be allowed upon any goods so cleared, unless the person intending to claim such drawback shall have given due notice to the officer of excise, in form and manner required by any law in force relating to the excise, and shall have obtained, and have produced to the searcher, at the time of clearing such goods, a proper document, under the hand of the officer of excise, containing the necessary description of the goods for which such drawback is to be claimed; and if the goods to be cleared and shipped under the care of the searchers shall, upon examination, be found to correspond in all respects with the particulars of the goods contained in such document, and such goods shall be duly shipped and exported, the searcher shall, if required, certify such shipment upon such document, and shall transmit the same to the officer of excise.—§ 74.

Officer of Excise may attend Examination.—It shall be lawful for the officer of excise, if he see fit, to attend and assist at such examination, and to mark or seal the packages, and to keep joint charge of the same, together with the searcher, until the same shall have been finally delivered by him into the sole charge of the searcher, to be shipped and exported under his care.—§ 75.

Goods for Duty, Bounty, or Drawback, &c. brought for Shipment.—If any goods which are subject to any duty or restriction, in respect of exportation, or if any goods, which are to be shipped for any drawback or bounty, shall be brought to any quay, wharf, or other place, to be shipped for exportation, and such goods shall not agree with the indorsement on the cocket, or with the shipping bill, the same shall be forfeited; and if any goods prohibited to be exported be found in any packages brought as aforesaid, such package and every thing contained therein shall be forfeited.—§ 76.

Searcher may open any Package; but if correct, must repack.—It shall be lawful for the searcher to open all packages, and fully to examine all goods shipped or brought for shipment at any place in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man; and if the goods so examined shall be found to correspond in all respects with the cocket and clearance purporting to be for the same, such goods shall be repacked at the charge of such searcher, who may be allowed such charge by the commissioners of the customs, if they shall see fit so to do.—§ 77.

Clearance of Ship.

Content to be delivered to Searcher, &c.—Before any ship shall be cleared outwards at any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, for parts beyond the seas, with any goods shipped on board the same in such port, the master shall deliver a content of such ship to the searcher, setting forth the name and tonnage of such ship, and the place or places of her destination, and the name of the master, and also an account of the goods shipped on board, and of the packages containing such goods, and of the marks and numbers upon such packages, and a like account of the goods on board, if any, which had been reported inwards for exportation in such ship, so far as any of such particulars can be known by him; and also, before the clearance of such ship, the cockets, with the indorsements and clearances thereon for the goods shipped, shall be finally delivered by the respective shippers of such goods to the searcher, who shall file the same together, and shall attach with a seal a label to the file, showing the number of cockets contained in the file, and shall compare the particulars of the goods in the cockets with the particulars of the goods in such content, and shall attest the correctness thereof by his signature on the label, and on the content; and the master of the ship shall make and sign a declaration before the collector or comptroller to the truth of such content, and shall also answer to the collector or comptroller such questions concerning the ship, the cargo, and the intended voyage, as shall be demanded of him; and thereupon the collector or comptroller shall clear such ship for her intended voyage, and shall notify such clearance, and the date thereof, upon the content, and upon the label to the file of cockets, and upon the victualling bill, and also in the book of ships' entries outwards, for the information of all parties interested, and shall transmit the content, and the cockets, and the victualling bill to the searcher; and the particulars to be contained in such content shall be written and arranged in such form and manner as the collector and comptroller shall require.—§ 78.

File of Cockets, &c. delivered to Master.—The file of cockets and the victualling bill shall thereupon be delivered by the searcher to the master of such ship, at such station within the port and in such manner as shall be appointed by the commissioners of his Majesty's customs for that purpose; and such file of cockets and victualling bill, so delivered, shall be kept by the master of such ship as the authority for departing from the port with the several parcels and packages of goods and of stores on board, so far as they shall agree with the particulars in the indorsements on such cockets or with such victualling bill.—§ 79.

In Ballast.—If any ship is to depart in ballast from the United Kingdom or from the Isle of Man for parts beyond the seas, having no goods on board except the stores of such ship borne upon the victualling bill, or any goods reported inwards for exportation in such ship, the master of such ship shall, before her departure, answer to the collector or comptroller such questions touching her departure and destination as shall be demanded of him; and thereupon the collector or comptroller shall clear such ship in ballast, and shall notify such clearance and the date thereof on the victualling bill, and also in the book of ships' entries outwards, for the information of all parties interested; and such victualling bill shall be kept by the master of such ship as the clearance of the same.—§ 80.

Part of former Cargo reported for Exportation.—If there be on board any ship any goods of the inward cargo which were reported for exportation in the same, the master shall, before clearance outwards of such ship from any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, deliver to the searcher a copy of the report inwards of such goods, certified by the collector and comptroller; and such copy, being found to correspond with the goods so remaining on board, shall be the authority to the searcher to pass such ship with such goods on board; and being signed by the searcher, and filed with the cockets, shall be the clearance of the ship for those goods.—§ 81.

If any Passengers, Master may enter Baggage in his Name.—If any passengers are to depart in any ship from the United Kingdom or from the Isle of Man for parts beyond the seas, it shall be lawful for the master of such ship to pass an entry and to receive a cocket in his name for the necessary personal baggage of all such passengers, and duly to clear such baggage for shipment in their behalf, stating in such clearances the particulars of the packages and the names of the respective passengers; and if such ship is to take no other goods than the necessary personal baggage of passengers actually going the voyage, it shall be lawful for such master to enter such ship outwards in ballast for passengers only; and if no other goods than such baggage duly entered and cleared be taken on board such ship, the same shall be deemed to be a ship in ballast, notwithstanding such baggage, and shall be described in the clearance, on the content, and on the label to the cocket or cockets, and on the victualling bill, and in the book of ships' entries, as a ship cleared in ballast, except as to the necessary personal baggage of passengers going the voyage.—§ 89.

Master may enter Goods for private Use of Self and Crew.—If the master and crew of any foreign ship which is to depart in ballast from the United Kingdom for parts beyond the seas, shall be desirous to take on board chalk rubbish by way of ballast, or to take with them for their private use any small

quantities of goods of British manufacture, it shall be lawful for such master, without entering such ship outwards, to pass an entry in his name, and receive a cocket free of any export duty for all such goods, under the general denomination of British manufactures not prohibited to be exported, being for the use and privilege of the master and crew, and not being of greater value than in the proportion of 20*l.* for the master, and 10*l.* for the mate, and 5*l.* for each of the crew, and stating that the ship is in ballast; and the master shall duly clear such goods for shipment in behalf of himself and crew, stating in such clearances the particulars of the goods and packages, and the names of the crew who shall jointly or severally take any of such goods under this privilege; and such ship shall be deemed to be a ship in ballast, and be cleared as such, and without a content, notwithstanding such goods or such cocket or cockets; and such clearance shall be notified by the collector or comptroller on the label to the cocket or cockets, and on the victualling bill, and in the book of ships' entries, as a clearance in ballast, except as to the privilege of the master and crew.—§ 83.

Officers may board any Ship after Clearance.—It shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to go on board any ship after clearance outwards, within the limits of any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, or within 4 leagues of the coast thereof, and to demand the file of cockets and the victualling bill, and if there be any goods or stores on board not contained in the indorsements on the cockets, nor in the victualling bill, such goods or stores shall be forfeited; and if any goods contained in such indorsements be not on board, the master shall forfeit the sum of 20*l.* for every package or parcel of goods contained in such indorsements and not on board; and if any cocket be at any time falsified, the person who shall have falsified the same, or who shall have wilfully used the same, shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*—§ 84.

Ships to bring to at Stations.—Every ship departing from any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man shall bring to at such stations within the port as shall be appointed by the commissioners of his Majesty's customs for the landing of officers from such ships, or for further examination previous to such departure.—§ 85.

Debenture Goods.

Entry in Name of real Owner.—No drawback or bounty shall be allowed upon the exportation from the United Kingdom of any goods, unless such goods shall have been entered in the name of the person who was the real owner thereof at the time of entry and shipping, or of the person who had actually purchased and shipped the same, in his own name and at his own liability and risk, on commission, according to the practice of merchants, and who was and shall have continued to be entitled in his own right to such drawback or bounty, except in the cases hereinafter provided for.—§ 86.

Declaration to Exportation, and to Property, and to Right to Drawback or Bounty.—Such owner or commission merchant shall make and subscribe a declaration upon the debenture that the goods mentioned therein have been actually exported, and have not been relanded, and are not intended to be relanded in any part of the United Kingdom, nor in the Isle of Man (unless entered for the Isle of Man), nor in the islands of Faro or Ferro, and that he was the real owner thereof at the time of entry and shipping, or that he had purchased and shipped the said goods in his own name and at his own liability and risk, on commission, as the case may be, and that he was and continued to be entitled to the drawback or bounty thereon in his own right: provided always, that if such owner or merchant shall not have purchased the right to such drawback or bounty, he shall declare under his hand upon the entry and upon the debenture the person who is entitled thereto, and the name of such person shall be stated in the cocket and in the debenture; and the receipt of such person on the debenture shall be the discharge for such drawback or bounty.—§ 87.

Agent may pass Entry, and receive Drawback, and make the Declaration, &c.—If such owner or merchant shall be resident in some part of the United Kingdom, being more than 20 miles from the custom-house of the port of shipment, he may appoint any person to be his agent to make and pass his entry, and to clear and ship his goods, and to receive for him the drawback or bounty payable on his debenture, if payable to him, provided the name of such agent and the residence of such owner or merchant be subjoined to the name of such owner or merchant in the entry and in the cocket for such goods; and such agent, being duly informed, shall make declaration upon the entry, if any be necessary, and also upon the debenture, in behalf of such owner or merchant, to the effect before required of such owner or merchant, and shall answer such questions touching his knowledge of the exportation of such goods and the property therein, and of the right to the drawback or bounty, as shall be demanded of him by the collector or comptroller; and if any such goods be exported by any corporation or company trading by a joint stock, it shall be lawful for them to appoint any person to be their agent for the like purposes and with the like powers to act in their behalf.—§ 88.

Property of Persons abroad.—If any goods which are to be exported for drawback be the property of any person residing abroad, having been consigned by the owner thereof to some person as his agent residing in the United Kingdom, to be exported through the same to parts beyond the seas, by such agent, upon account of such owner, it shall be lawful for such person (being the consignee by whom and in whose name the duties inwards on such goods had been paid, or his legal representative,) in like manner, as agent for such owner, to enter, clear, and ship such goods for him, and upon like conditions to receive for him the drawbacks payable thereon.—§ 89.

Shipment within 3 Years, and Payment within 2 Years.—No drawback shall be allowed upon the exportation of any goods unless such goods be shipped within 3 years after the payment of the duties inwards thereon, and no debenture for any drawback or bounty allowed upon the exportation of any goods shall be paid after the expiration of 2 years from the date of the shipment of such goods, and no drawback shall be allowed upon any goods which by reason of damage or decay shall have become of less value for home use than the amount of such drawback; and all goods so damaged which shall be cleared for any drawback shall be forfeited, and the person who caused such goods to be so cleared shall forfeit the sum of 200*l.*, or treble the amount of the drawback in such case, at the election of the commissioners of the customs.—§ 90.

Issuing and passing Debenture.—For the purpose of computing and paying any drawback or bounty payable upon any goods duly entered, shipped, and exported, a debenture shall, in due time after such entry, be prepared by the collector and comptroller, certifying in the first instance the entry outwards of such goods; and so soon as the same shall have been duly exported, and a notice containing the particulars of the goods shall have been delivered by the exporter to the searcher, the shipment and exportation thereof shall be certified to the collector and comptroller, upon such debenture, by the searcher, and the debenture shall thereupon be computed and passed with all convenient despatch, and be delivered to the person entitled to receive the same.—§ 91.

Certificate of landing in Isle of Man.—No drawback or bounty shall be allowed for any goods exported from the United Kingdom to the Isle of Man, until a certificate shall be produced from the collector and comptroller of the customs of the Isle of Man of the due landing of such goods.—§ 99.

Press-packing, and Declaration of Packer.—No drawback or bounty shall be allowed for any goods exported from the United Kingdom in bales cleared as being press-packed, unless the quantities and qualities of the goods in each of such bales shall be verified by the master packer thereof, or, in case of unavoidable absence, by the foreman of such packer, having knowledge of the contents of the bales, by declaration made and subscribed upon the cocket before the collector or comptroller; or if such

packer reside more than 10 miles from the port, then by declaration made and subscribed upon an account of such goods, before a magistrate or justice of the peace for the county or place where such packer shall reside; and if such bales be not cleared as being press-packed, then the searcher, having opened any such bale, shall not be required to repack the same at his charge.—§ 93.

Licensed Lightermen, &c.—No goods cleared for drawback or bounty, or from the warehouse, shall be carried waterborne, to be put on board any ship for exportation from the United Kingdom, by any person, unless such persons shall be authorised for that purpose by licence under the hands of the commissioners of the customs; and before granting such licence, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to require such security by bond for the faithful and incorrupt conduct of such person as they shall deem necessary; and after granting such licence it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to revoke the same, if the person to whom the same shall have been granted shall be convicted of any offence against the laws relating to the customs or excise: provided always, that all such licences which shall be in force at the time of the commencement of this act shall continue in force as if the same had been afterwards granted under the authority of this act.—§ 94.

Warehouse or Debenture Goods not exported.—If any goods which have been taken from the warehouse to be exported from the same, or any goods which have been cleared to be exported for any drawback or bounty, shall not be duly exported to parts beyond the seas, or shall be relanded in any part of the United Kingdom (such goods not having been duly relanded or discharged as short-shipped under the care of the proper officers), or shall be landed in the islands of Faro or Ferro, or shall be carried to any of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man (not having been duly entered, cleared, and shipped to be exported directly to such island), the same shall be forfeited, together with the ship from or by which the same had been so relanded, landed, or carried, and any other ship, vessel, boat, or craft which may have been used in so relanding, landing, or carrying such goods; and any person by whom or by whose orders or means such goods shall have been so taken or cleared, or so relanded, landed, or carried, shall forfeit a sum equal to treble the value of such goods.—§ 95.

Drawback of Duties on Wine allowed for Officers in the Navy.—Drawback of the whole of the duties of customs shall be allowed for wine intended for the consumption of officers of his Majesty's navy, on board such of his Majesty's ships in actual service as they shall serve in, not exceeding the quantities of wine, in any 1 year, for the use of such officers, herein-after respectively mentioned; (that is to say,)

	Gallons.		Gallons.
For every admiral	1,260	For every captain of the third, fourth, and fifth rate	420
— vice-admiral	1,050	— captain of an inferior rate	210
— rear-admiral	840	— lieutenant, and other commanding officer, and for every marine officer	105
— captain of the first and second rate	630		

provided always, that such wine be shipped only at one of the ports herein-after mentioned; (that is to say,) London, Rochester, Deal, Dover, Portsmouth, Plymouth, Yarmouth, Falmouth, Belfast, Dublin, Cork, Leith, or Glasgow.—§ 96.

Persons entering Wine for Drawback to declare the Name and Rank of Officer claiming same.—The person entering such wine, and claiming the drawback for the same, shall state in the entry and declare on the debenture the name of the officer for whose use such wine is intended, and of the ship in which he serves; and such wine shall be delivered into the charge of the officers of the customs at the port of shipment, to be secured in the king's warehouse until the same shall be shipped under their care; and such officers having certified upon the debenture the receipt of the wine into their charge, the debenture shall be computed and passed, and be delivered to the person entitled to receive the same.—§ 97.

Officers leaving the Service, &c. such Wine permitted to be transferred to others.—If any such officer shall leave the service or be removed to another ship, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs of any of the ports before mentioned to permit the transfer of any such wine from one officer to another, as part of his proportion, whether on board the same ship or another, or the transhipment from one ship to another for the same officer, or the relanding and warehousing for future reshipment; and it shall also be lawful for the officers of customs at any port to receive back the duties for any of such wine, and deliver the same for home use: provided always, that if any of such wine be not laden on board the ship for which the same was intended, or be unladen from such ship without permission of the proper officer of the customs, the same shall be forfeited.—§ 98.

Pursers of his Majesty's Ships of War may ship Tobacco for Use of Crew free of Duty, on giving Bond.—It shall be lawful for the purser of any of his Majesty's ships of war in actual service to enter and ship at the ports of Rochester, Portsmouth, or Plymouth, in the proportions herein-after mentioned, any tobacco there warehoused in his name or transferred into his name, for the use of the ship in which he shall serve; provided such purser shall deliver to the collector or comptroller of such port a certificate from the captain of such ship, stating the name of the purser and the number of men belonging to the ship, and shall also give bond, with one sufficient surety, in treble the duties payable on the tobacco, that no part thereof shall be relanded in the United Kingdom without leave of the officers of the customs, or be landed in either of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man.—§ 99.

Purser removed from one Ship to another may tranship Tobacco with Permission of Collector.—If any purser shall be removed from one ship to another, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of the port where such ship shall be, to permit the transhipment of the remains of any such tobacco for the use of such other ship, upon due entry of such tobacco by such purser, setting forth the time when and the port at which such tobacco was first shipped; and if any such ship shall be paid off, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of any port where such ship shall be paid off to permit the remains of any such tobacco to be landed, and to be entered by the purser of such ship, either for payment of duties, or to be warehoused for the term of 6 months, for the supply of some other such ship, in like manner as any tobacco may be warehoused and supplied at either of the ports before mentioned, or for payment of all duties within such 6 months: provided always, that all tobacco warehoused for the purpose of so supplying his Majesty's ships of war shall be subject to the provisions of this act made for the warehousing of tobacco generally, as far as the same are applicable, and are not expressly altered by any of the provisions herein particularly made.—§ 100.

Quantity of Tobacco not to exceed, &c.—No greater quantity of such tobacco shall be allowed to any ship of war than 2 lbs. by the lunar month for each of the crew of such ship, nor shall any greater quantity be shipped at one time than sufficient to serve the crew of such ship for 6 months, after such rate of allowance; and the collector and comptroller of the port at or from which any such tobacco shall be supplied to any such ship, or landed from any such ship, or transferred from one such ship to another, shall transmit a particular account thereof to the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, in order that a general account may be kept of all the quantities supplied to and consumed on board each of such ships under the allowances before granted.—§ 101.

Times and Places for shipping Goods.—No goods shall be put off from any wharf, quay, or other place, or shall be waterborne in order to be exported, but only on days not being Sundays or holidays, and in the day-time; (that is to say,) from the first day of September until the last day of March,

betwixt sun-rising and sun-setting, and from the last day of March until the first day of September, between the hours of 7 of the clock in the morning and 4 of the clock in the afternoon; nor shall any such goods be then put off or waterborne for exportation unless in the presence or with the authority of the proper officer of the customs, nor except from a legal quay appointed by his Majesty, or at some wharf, quay, or place appointed by the commissioners of his Majesty's customs for the shipping of such goods by sufferance.—§ 102.

Penalty for exporting prohibited Goods.—If any goods liable to forfeiture for being shipped for exportation shall be shipped and exported without discovery by the officers of the customs, the person or persons who shall have caused such goods to be exported shall forfeit double the value of such goods. —§ 103.

Prohibitions Outwards.

Prohibitions and Restrictions absolute or modified.—The several sorts of goods enumerated or described in the Table following (denominated "A Table of Prohibitions and Restrictions Outwards") shall be either absolutely prohibited to be exported from the United Kingdom, or shall be exported only under the restrictions mentioned in such Table, according as the several sorts of such goods are respectively set forth therein; (that is to say,)

A Table of Prohibitions and Restrictions Outwards.

Clocks and watches; viz. any outward or inward box, case, or dial plate, of any metal, without the movement in or with every such box, case, or dial plate, made up fit for use, with the clock or watchmaker's name engraven thereon.

Lace; viz. any metal inferior to silver which shall be spun, mixed, wrought, or set upon silk, or which shall be gilt, or drawn into wire, or flatted into plate, and spun or woven, or wrought into or upon, or mixed with lace, fringe, cord, embroidery, tambour work, or buttons, made in the gold or silver lace manufactory, or set upon silk, or made into bullion spangles, or pearl or any other materials made in the gold or silver lace manufactory, or which shall imitate or be meant to imitate such lace, fringe, cord, embroidery, tambour work, or buttons: nor shall any person export any copper, brass, or other metal which shall be silvered or drawn into wire, or flatted into plate, or made into bullion spangles, or pearl or any other materials used in the gold or silver lace manufactory, or in imitation of such lace, fringe, cord, embroidery, tambour work, or buttons, or of any of the materials used in making the same, and which shall hold more or bear a greater proportion than 8 pennyweights of fine silver to the pound avoirdupois of such copper, brass, or other metals.

any metal inferior to silver, whether gilt, silvered, stained, or coloured, or otherwise, which shall be worked up or mixed with gold or silver in any manufacture of lace, fringe, cord, embroidery, tambour work, or buttons.

Tools and utensils; viz. any machine, engine, tool, press, paper, utensil, or instrument used in or proper for the preparing, working, pressing, or finishing of the woollen, cotton, linen, or silk manufactures of this kingdom, or any other goods wherein wool, cotton, linen, or silk is used, or any part of such machines, engines, tools, presses, paper, utensils, or instruments, or any model or plan thereof, or any part thereof; except wool cards or stock cards not worth above 4s. per pair, and spinners' cards not worth above 1s. 6d. per pair, used in the woollen manufactures.

blocks, plates, engines, tools, or utensils commonly used in or proper for the preparing, working up, or finishing of the calico, cotton, muslin, or linen printing manufactures, or any part of such blocks, plates, engines, tools, or utensils.

rollers, either plain, grooved, or of any other form or denomination, of cast iron, wrought iron, or steel, for the rolling of iron or any sort of metals, and frames, beds, pillars, screws, pinions, and each and every implement, tool, or utensil thereunto belonging; rollers, slitters, frames, beds, pillars, and screws for slitting-mills; presses of all sorts, in iron and steel, or other metals, which are used with a screw exceeding 1 1-2 inch in diameter, or any parts of those several articles, or any model of the before-mentioned utensils, or any part thereof; all sorts of utensils, engines, or machines used in the casting or boring of cannon or any sort of artillery, or any parts thereof, or any models of tools, utensils, engines, or machines used in such casting or boring, or any parts thereof; hand stamps, dog-head stamps, pulley stamps, bagmasters, and anvils for stamps; presses of all sorts called cutting-out presses, beds or punches to be used therewith, either in parts or pieces, or fitted together; scouring or shading engines; presses for horn buttons; dies for horn buttons; rolled metal, with silver thereon; parts of buttons not fitted up into buttons, or in an unfinished state; engines for chasing, stocks for casting buckles, buttons, and rings; die-sinking tools of all sorts; engines for making button-shanks; laps of all sorts; tools for pinching of glass; engines for covering of whips; bars of metal covered with gold or silver, and burnishing stones, commonly called blood-stones, either in the rough state or finished for use; wire moulds for making paper; wheels of metal, stone, or wood, for cutting, roughing, smoothing, polishing, or engraving glass; purcellas, pincers, shears, and pipes used in blowing glass; potters' wheels and lathes, for plain, round, and engine turning; tools used by addlers, harness-makers, and bridle-makers; viz. candle strainers, side strainers, point strainers, creasing irons, screw creusers, wheel irons, seal irons, pricking irons, bolstering irons, clams, and head knives.

frames for making wearing apparel.

A List of Goods which may be prohibited to be exported by Proclamation or Order in Council.

Arms, ammunition, and gunpowder.

Ashes, pot and pearl.

Military stores and naval stores, and any articles (except copper) which his Majesty shall judge capable of being converted into or made useful in increasing the quantity of military or naval stores.

Provisions, or any sort of victual which may be used as food by man.

And if any goods shall be exported, or be waterborne to be exported, from the United Kingdom, contrary to any of the prohibitions or restrictions mentioned in such table in respect of such goods, the same shall be forfeited.—§ 104.

The sections from 105. to 118., both inclusive, relate to the Coasting Trade, and are given under that head.

Construction in General.

Terms used in Acts.—Whenever the several terms or expressions following shall occur in this act, or in any other act relating to the customs, or to trade and navigation, the same shall be construed respectively in the manner herein-after directed; (that is to say,) the term "ship" shall be construed to mean ship or vessel generally, unless such term shall be used to distinguish a ship from sloops, brigantines, and other classes of vessels; and the term "master" of any ship shall be construed to mean the person having or taking the charge or command of such ship; the term "owners" and the term "owner" of any shall be construed alike to mean 1 owner, if there be only 1, and any or all the owners if there be more than 1; the term "mate" of any ship shall be construed to mean the person next in command of such ship to the master thereof; the term "seaman" shall be construed to mean alike seaman, mariner, sailor, or landsman, being one of the crew of any ship; the term "British possession" shall be construed to mean colony, plantation, island, territory, or settlement belonging to his Majesty; the term "his Majesty" shall be construed to mean his Majesty, his heirs, and successors; the term "East India Company" shall be construed to mean the United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies; the term "limits of the East India Company's charter" shall be construed to mean all places and seas eastward of the Cape of Good Hope to the straits of Magellan; the term "collector and comptroller" shall be construed to mean the collector and comptroller of the customs of the port intended in the sentence; whenever mention is made of any public officer, the officer mentioned shall be deemed to be such officer for the time being; the term "warehouse" shall be construed to mean any place, whether house, shed, yard, timber pond, or other place in which goods entered to be warehoused upon importation may be lodged, kept, and secured without payment of duty, or although prohibited to be used in the United Kingdom; the term "king's warehouse" shall be construed to mean any place provided by the Crown for lodging goods therein for security of the customs.—§ 119.

Malta in Europe.—The island of Malta and its dependencies shall be deemed to be in Europe. —§ 120.

General Regulations.

Weights, Measures Currency, and Management.—All duties, bounties, and drawbacks of customs shall be paid and received in every part of the United Kingdom and of the Isle of Man in British currency, and according to Imperial weights and measures; and in all cases where such duties, bounties,

and drawbacks are imposed and allowed according to any specific quantity, or any specific value, the same shall be deemed to apply in the same proportion to any greater or less quantity or value; and all such duties, bounties, and drawbacks shall be under the management of the commissioners of the customs.—§ 121.

Collector to take Bonds in respect of Goods relating to the Customs.—All bonds relating to the customs required to be given in respect of goods or ships shall be taken by the collector and comptroller for the use of his Majesty; and after the expiration of 3 years from the date thereof, or from the time, if any, limited therein for the performance of the condition thereof, every such bond upon which no prosecution or suit shall have been commenced shall be void, and may be cancelled and destroyed.—§ 122.

Mode of ascertaining Strength of Foreign Spirits.—The mode of ascertaining the strengths and quantities of foreign spirits imported into the United Kingdom should at all times be exactly similar to the mode in practice for ascertaining the strengths and quantities of spirits made within the United Kingdom; be it therefore enacted, that the same instruments, and the same Tables and scales of graduation, and the same rules and methods, as the officers of the excise shall by any law in force for the time being be directed to use, adopt, and employ in trying and ascertaining the strengths and quantities of spirits made within the United Kingdom, for the purpose of computing and collecting the duties of excise payable thereon, shall be used, adopted, and employed by the officers of the customs in trying and ascertaining the strengths and quantities of spirits imported into the United Kingdom, for the purpose of computing and collecting the duties of customs payable thereon.—§ 123.

Officers of Customs to take Samples of Goods.—It shall be lawful for the officers of the customs to take such samples of any goods as shall be necessary for ascertaining the amount of any duties payable on the same; and all such samples shall be disposed of and accounted for in such manner as the commissioners of his Majesty's customs shall direct.—§ 124.

Time of an Importation and of an Exportation defined.—If, upon the first levying or repealing of any duty, or upon the first granting or repealing of any drawback or bounty, or upon the first permitting or prohibiting of any importation or exportation, whether inwards, outwards, or coastwise, in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, it shall become necessary to determine the precise time at which an importation or exportation of any goods made and completed shall be deemed to have had effect, such time, in respect of importation, shall be deemed to be the time at which the ship importing such goods had actually come within the limits of the port at which such ship shall in due course be reported, and such goods be discharged; and such time, in respect of exportation, shall be deemed to be the time at which the goods had been shipped on board the ship in which they had been exported; and if such question shall arise upon the arrival or departure of any ship, in respect of any charge or allowance upon such ship, exclusive of any cargo, the time of such arrival shall be deemed to be the time at which the report of such ship shall have been or ought to have been made; and the time of such departure shall be deemed to be the time of the last clearance of such ship with the collector and comptroller for the voyage upon which she had departed.—§ 125.

Return of Duties overpaid.—Although any duty of customs shall have been overpaid, or although, after any duty of customs shall have been charged and paid, it shall appear or be judicially established that the same had been charged under an erroneous construction of the law, it shall not be lawful to return any such overcharge after the expiration of 3 years from the date of such payment.—§ 126.

Tonnage or Burden of Ships declared.—The tonnage or burden of every British ship within the meaning of this act shall be the tonnage set forth in the certificate of registry of such ship, and the tonnage or burden of every other ship shall, for the purposes of this act, be ascertained in the same manner as the tonnage of British ships is ascertained.—§ 127.

Officers may refuse Master of British Ship, unless indorsed on Register.—It shall be lawful for the officers of customs at any port under British dominion where there shall be a collector and comptroller of the customs, to refuse to admit any person to do any act at such port as master of any British ship, unless his name shall be inserted in or have been indorsed upon the certificate of registry of such ship as being the master thereof, or until his name shall have been so indorsed by such collector and comptroller.—§ 128.

Falsifying Documents.—If any person shall counterfeit or falsify, or wilfully use when counterfeited or falsified, any entry, warrant, cocket, or transire, or other document for the unlading, lading, entering, reporting, or clearing of any ship or vessel, or for the landing or shipping of any goods, stores, baggage, or article whatever, or shall by any false statement procure any writing or document to be made for any of such purposes, every person so offending shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 500*l.*: provided always, that this penalty shall not attach to any particular offence for which any other penalty shall be expressly imposed by any law in force for the time being.—§ 129.

Authority of an Agent may be required.—Whenever any person shall make any application to any officer of the customs to transact any business on behalf of any other person, it shall be lawful for such officer to require of the person so applying to produce a written authority from the person on whose behalf such application shall be made, and in default of the production of such authority, to refuse to transact such business.—§ 130.

Persons falsifying Declaration liable to Penalty.—If any declaration required to be made by this act or by any other act relating to the customs (except declarations to the value of goods) be untrue in any particular, or if any person required by this act or by any other act relating to the customs to answer questions put to him by the officers of the customs, touching certain matters, shall not truly answer such questions, the person making such declaration or answering such questions shall, over and above any other penalty to which he may become subject, forfeit the sum of 100*l.*—§ 131.

Seizures.—All goods, and all ships, vessels, and boats, which by this act or any act at any time in force relating to the customs shall be declared to be forfeited, shall and may be seized by any officer of the customs; and such forfeiture of any ship, vessel, or boat shall be deemed to include the guns, tackle, apparel, and furniture of the same; and such forfeiture of any goods shall be deemed to include the proper package in which the same are contained.—§ 132.

Restoration of seized Goods, Ships, &c.—In case any goods, ships, vessels, or boats shall be seized as forfeited, or detained as under-valued, by virtue of any act of parliament relating to the customs, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's customs to order the same to be restored in such manner and on such terms and conditions as they shall think fit to direct; and if the proprietor of the same shall accept the terms and conditions prescribed by the said commissioners, he shall not have or maintain any action for recompence or damage on account of such seizure or detention; and the person making such seizure shall not proceed in any manner for condemnation.—§ 133.

Remission of Forfeitures, &c.—If any ship shall have become liable to forfeiture on account of any goods laden therein, or unladen therefrom, or if the master of any ship shall have become liable to any penalty on account of any goods laden in such ship or unladen therefrom, and such goods shall be small in quantity or of trifling value, and it shall be made appear to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs that such goods had been laden or unladen contrary to the intention of the owners of such ship, or without the privity of the master thereof, as the case may be, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to remit such forfeiture, and also to remit or mitigate such penalty as they shall see reason to acquit such master of all blame in respect of such offence, or more or less to attribute the commission of such offence to neglect of duty on his part as master of such ship; and

every forfeiture and every penalty, or part thereof, so remitted, shall be null and void, and no suit or action shall be brought or maintained by any person whatever on account thereof.—§ 134.

Ships not bringing to at Stations, Masters to forfeit.—If any ship coming up or departing out of any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, shall not bring to at the proper stations in such port appointed by the commissioners of his Majesty's customs for the boarding or landing of officers of the customs, the master of such ship shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 100*l*.—§ 135.

Officers may be stationed in Ships in the Limits of any Port.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, and for the collector and comptroller of any port under their directions, to station officers on board any ship while within the limits of any port in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man; and the master of every ship on board of which any officer is so stationed shall provide every such officer sufficient room under the deck, in some part of the forecastle or steerage, for his bed or hammock, and in case of neglect or refusal so to do shall forfeit the sum of 100*l*.—§ 136.

Power to charge Rent in King's Warehouse.—Whenever any goods shall be taken to and secured in any of the king's warehouses in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, for security of the duties thereon, or to prevent the same from coming into home use, it shall and may be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's customs to charge and demand and receive warehouse rent for such goods for all such time as the same shall remain in such warehouse, at the same rate as may be payable for the like goods when warehoused in any warehouse in which such goods may be warehoused without payment of duty: provided always, that it shall be lawful for the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury, or the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, by warrant or order under their hands respectively, from time to time to fix the amount of rent which shall be payable for any goods secured in any of the king's warehouses as aforesaid.—§ 137.

Power to sell Goods not cleared from King's Warehouse.—In case such goods shall not be duly cleared from the king's warehouse within 3 calendar months, (or sooner, if they be of a perishable nature,) it shall be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's customs to cause such goods to be publicly sold by auction, for home use or for exportation, as the case may be; and the produce of such sale shall be applied towards the payment of the duties, if sold for home use, and of the warehouse rent and all other charges; and the overplus (if any) shall be paid to the person authorised to receive the same: provided always, that it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to cause any of such goods to be destroyed as cannot be sold for a sum sufficient to pay such duties and charges, if sold for home use, or sufficient to pay such charges, if sold for exportation: provided also, that if such goods shall have been landed by the officers of the customs, and the freight of the same shall not have been paid, the produce of such sale shall be first applied to the payment of such freight.—§ 138.

Power for his Majesty to appoint Ports and legal Quays.—It shall be lawful for his Majesty, by his commission out of the Court of Exchequer, from time to time to appoint any port, haven, or creek in the United Kingdom, or in the Isle of Man, and to set out the limits thereof, and to appoint the proper places within the same to be legal quays for the lading and unlading of goods, and to declare that any place which had been set out as a legal quay by such authority shall be no longer a legal quay, and to appoint any new place within any port to be a legal quay for the lading and unlading of goods: provided always, that all ports, havens, and creeks, and the respective limits thereof, and all legal quays, appointed and set out and existing as such at the commencement of this act under any law till then in force, shall continue to be such ports, havens, creeks, limits, and legal quays respectively as if the same had been appointed and set out under the authority of this act.—§ 139.

Averment of Offence.—In any information or other proceeding for any offence against any act made or to be made relating to the customs, the averment that such offence was committed within the limits of any port shall be sufficient, without proof of such limits, unless the contrary be proved.—§ 140.

Commissioners may appoint Sufferance Wharfs.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's customs from time to time, by any order under their hands, to appoint places to be sufferance wharfs, for the lading and unlading of goods by sufferance, to be duly issued by them, or by the proper officers under their directions, in such manner and in such cases as they shall see fit.—§ 141.

No Ships engaged in the carriage of Letters to import or export Goods.—No ship or boat appointed and employed ordinarily for the carriage of letters shall import or export any goods without permission of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, under the penalty of the forfeiture of 100*l*., to be paid by the master of such ship or boat.—§ 142.

No Person deemed an Apprentice until Indenture enrolled with Collector.—No person shall be deemed to be an apprentice for the purposes of an act passed in the 4th year of the reign of his late Majesty, intituled "An Act (4 Geo. 4. c. 25.) for regulating the Number of Apprentices to be taken on board British Merchant Vessels, and for preventing Desertion of Seamen," unless the indenture of such apprentice shall have been enrolled with the collector and comptroller of the port from which any such apprentice shall first go to sea after the date of such indenture, or in default of such enrolment, until the same shall have been enrolled at some port from which the ship in which such apprentice shall afterwards go to sea shall be cleared.—§ 143.

Licensed Agents.—It shall not be lawful for any person to act as an agent for transacting any business at the Custom-house in the port of London which shall relate to the entry or clearance of any ship, or of any goods, or of any baggage, unless authorised so to do by licence of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, who are hereby empowered to require bond to be given by every person to whom such licence shall be granted, with 1 sufficient surety, in the sum of 1,000*l*., for the faithful and incorrupt conduct of such person and of his clerks acting for him: provided always, that such bond shall not be required of any person who shall be one of the sworn brokers of the city of London; and if any person shall act as such agent, not being so licensed, or if any person shall be in partnership in such agency with any person not so licensed, such person shall, in either case, for every such offence forfeit the sum of 100*l*.—§ 144.

Treasury may revoke Licence.—It shall be lawful for the said commissioners of his Majesty's treasury, by any order under their hands, to revoke any such licence; and after a copy of such order shall have been delivered to such person or to his clerk, or left at his usual place of abode or business, such license shall be void.—§ 145.

Not to extend to Clerks or Servants of Individuals, nor to Clerks in Long Room.—Nothing herein contained shall extend to prevent the clerk or servant of any person, or of any persons in co-partnership, from transacting any business at the Custom-house on account of such person or persons, without such licence; provided such clerk or servant shall not transact any such business as clerk, servant, or agent to any other person.—§ 146.

Agent may appoint Clerks to act for him only.—It shall be lawful for any such agent or agents in co-partnership to appoint any person without licence to be his or their clerk in transacting such agency: provided always, that no person shall be admitted to be such clerk to more than 1 agent or co-partnership of agents, nor until his name and residence, and the date of his appointment, shall have been indorsed on the licence of every such agent, and signed by him, and witnessed by the signature of the collector and comptroller of the customs, unless such person shall have been appointed with consent of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs before the commencement of this act.—§ 147.

Treasury may extend Regulations to other Ports.—It shall be lawful for the said commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury, by their warrant, to be published in the *London* or *Dublin Gazette*, to extend the regulations herein contained made relating to agents in the port of London to agents at any other port in Great Britain, or at any port in Ireland.—§ 146.

(The commissioners of customs, agreeably to the powers given them to that effect by the 3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 52. § 135. (see vol. ii. p. 17.), have appointed the undermentioned places, within the several ports of the United Kingdom, at which vessels coming into or departing out of such ports shall bring to, for the boarding or landing of customs officers. Every master of a vessel failing to comply with the provisions of said act in this respect forfeits 100*l.*

ENGLAND.

Ports.	Stations for bringing-to.
London	Gravesend Reach, below the Custom-house.
Aberystwith	On the bar, a little above the junction of the rivers Rheidol and Ystwith.
Aberdovey	A little to the westward of the town, in the river Dovey.
Aldborough	Orford haven, the entrance of the rivers Ore and Alde.
Arundel	The piles on the eastern side of the river, between the revenue watch-house and the Duke of Norfolk's Quay, in the harbour of Littlehampton.
Barnstaple	Storn and watch-house, Appledore.
Beaumaris	Opposite the town, at *Fryar's* Roads.
Amlwch	Within the harbour.
Conway	In the roadstead opposite the town.
Carnarvon	In the bay off the town, opposite the Bell Tower, and at Abermenai.
Pwllheli	At the entrance of the harbour, by the Gimblet Rocks.
Barmouth	In the harbour.
Holyhead	In the harbour.
Berwick	At the entrance of the harbour, near the pier head.
Bideford	Storn and watch-house, Appledore.
Boston	Hob Hole.
Bridgewater	Between Brimstall Point, on the coast of the Bristol Channel, and Black Rock, about a mile within the mouth of the river Parrott.
Bridlington	The bay or harbour.
Bridport	The outer buoy, distant about 300 yards, abreast of the harbour.
Bristol	Pill and Kingsroad.
Cardiff	Penrith Roads, a little to the eastward of the mouth of the river Taff.
Cardigan	At Pwllcuu, a little inside the bar or harbour's mouth.
Carlisle	Fisher's Cross.
Chepstow	At the entrance of the river Wye.
Chester	Liverpool, 8 miles from Hoylake.
Chichester	Cockbush Harbour.
Clay	Blackney and Clay Harbour.
Colchester	Coln River, off Mersea Stone, Mersea Island.
Cowes (East)	Roadstead of Cowes, extending from east to west about 2 1-2 miles.
Dartmouth	Between the mouth of the harbour and Sandquay Point.
Salcombe	At the mouth of the harbour and Scarpe Point.
Deal	In the Downs, in open roadstead.
Dover	The outer harbour.
Folkstone	In the harbour.
Exeter	At the Passage Way, Exmouth.
Teignmouth	At the Point.
Falmouth	In the harbour, off Kiln Quay and watch-house.
Faversham	Between the mouth of Faversham Creek and the Horse Sand in the East Swale.
Milton	At the mouth of Milton Creek in the Swale.
Fowey	Near the Custom-house, not far from the entrance of the harbour.
Gloucester	
Grimsby	At the outfall, near the entrance of the harbour.
Gosli	Hull Roads.
Goswick	Dargan Roads, just at the entrance of the river Ifel.
Harwich	In the harbour, between the Guard and Walton Ferry.
Hull	Hull Roads, between the east end of the citadel and the entrance to the Humber Dock to the westward.
Ilfracombe	In the harbour.
Ipswich	In the harbour, between the Guard and Walton Ferry.
Isle of Man: Douglas, Derby Haven, Peel, Ramsey	In their respective bays.
Lancaster	Glasson Dock, on the river Lune.
Poulton	Sea Dyke, entrance of the river Wyre.
Ulverston	Pile Powdry, near the isle of Walney.
Leigh	Leigh Slade, or Leigh Swatch, which channel is formed by the spit of a sand called Marsh End, leading from the east end of Canvy Island, and nearly opposite to a windmill, called the Hamlet Mill, situate upon the Cliff, about 1-2 a mile to the westward of Southend, and about 3 miles from Leigh.
Liverpool	At the entrance of the respective docks.
Llanelly	
Lyme	The basin within the pier or coin of Lyme Regis.
Lynn	Nottingham Point, intermediate space between Common Strath Quay, where the estuary narrows into a river, about 3 miles below the town, or as near as circumstances permit within the point.
Maldon	Barrow Hills, opposite Blackwater River, Maldon.
Milford	In the haven, opposite the town of Milford.
Minehead	The entrance of the harbour.
Newcastle	Opposite the watch-house, at the entrance of the river Tyne.
Shields	Low Lights, North Shields.
Blythnook	At the entrance of the harbour.
Newhaven	In the stream, between the piers and the tide surveyor's watch-house.
Newport (Wales)	At the watch-house, 1 mile from the Custom house.
Padstow	Hawker's Cove, within the harbour.
Penzance	Gwaves Lake.
St. Michael's	St. Michael's Mount Roads.
Plymouth	Within the line of the breakwater, viz. the Sound, Catwater, and Hamoaze.
Pools	At the entrance of the harbour, between South Deep, opposite Beowaen Castle, and the Essex buoy, opposite the castle stables.
Portsmouth	Between Blockhouse Point and the north end of her Majesty's dock-yard.
Longstone	In the roadstead, within 1 mile of the Spit Buoy.
Ramsgate	In the harbour.
Margate	In the harbour.
Sandwich	At the entrance of the ha bour.
Rochester	Stoorness.
Rye	The outer channel, and in Stag's Hole, in the inner channel.
Hastings	In the open roadstead.
Eastbourne	In the open roadstead.
Scarborough	Entrance of the harbour, opposite the Lighthouse, at the end of Vincent's Pier.
Scilly	
Shoreham	Near the entrance of the harbour, in the western branch, opposite the customs watch-house and Kingston Wharf.
Southampton	Itchen buoy, or Burlsdon buoy.
Southwold	Opposite the jetty, near the entrance of the harbour.
Stockton	Ninth buoy, or opposite Cleveland Port.
St. Ives	In the bay, within 1-2 a mile of St. Ives pier.
Hayle	The same.
Sunderland	At the entrance of the harbour, near the watch house on the South pier.
Swansea	In the harbour.
Neath	Briton Ferry, near the entrance of Neath River.
Truro	Falmouth harbour.
Wells	Between the entrance of the harbour and Wells Quay.
Weymouth	Weymouth Roads.
Whitby	The harbour.
Whitehaven	In the harbour, between the tongue and bulwark.
Harrington, Workington, Maryport	In their respective harbours.
Wisbeach	At the light-houses about 3 miles below the station at Sutton Wash.
Wheedbridge	Bawdsey Ferry, the entrance of the river Deben.
Yarmouth	Yarmouth Roads, between Nelson's monument and the haven's mouth—on the Brush, a short distance within the haven's mouth, at the S. E. angle of the river.

SCOTLAND.

Aberdeen	That part of Aberdeen Bay which falls within a line beginning at the easternmost point of the Girdle Ness, and running north 1 1-2 mile, to a point due east of the centre of the Broad Hill.
Peterhead	The bay.
Newburgh	Within the river Ythan, opposite to the village Newburgh.
Stonehaven	Stonehaven Bay, within 300 yards of the entrance of the harbour.
Ayr	South Quay at Ayr.
Banff	The Legal Quays.
Borrowstouness	The harbour.
Inverkeithing	The harbour.
Cambeltown	The harbour.
Dumfries	The harbour.
Dundee	The harbour.
Newburgh and Perth	Caroline Roads, 1 1-2 mile to the eastward of the harbour of Dundee.
Glasgow	Entrance of the harbour.
Grangemouth	Entrance of the harbour.
Alloa	Alloa roadstead.
Kincardine	Kincardine roadstead.
Greenock	From Gravel Point, to the eastward of the town of Greenock, in the county of

Ports.	Stations for bringing to.
	Redhaw, to Kempock Point, being the western point of Greenock Bay, including therein Carlebyke Bay, Greenock Roads, the anchorage at the mill of the Bank, and Greenock Bay.
Rothesay	Rothesay Bay, lying and being within Rothesay Point, on the east of the town of Rothesay, in the Isle of Bute, county of Bute, and Ardmaliah Point on the west of the said bay.
Oban	Oban Bay, in the county of Argyle, as lies within Fladday-house Point on the eastern side, and Culrach Point on the western side of the said bay.
Tobermory	The Bay of Tobermory, lying and being within Leidog Point in the south-east, Fortmore Point to the north-west, and the Isle of Calvrath the east of Tobermory, Isle of Mull, county of Argyle.
Inverary	The roadstead of Inverary, lying and being off the town of Inverary, in the county of Argyle, and extending 1-3 a mile north-east of the quay of the said town.
Lochgilphead	Lochgilphead Roads, at the east end of the Crinan Canal, lying and being within Ardrishaig Point, on the western side of Lochgilphead and Kilmory Point, on the eastern side of the said loch.
Inverness	The harbour.
Nigg	The harbour.
Kirkaldy	Entrance of the harbour.
Aberdour and Burntisland	Burntisland Roads.
Pittenweem, Elie, Anstruther, St. Andrew's	St. Andrew's Bay.
Dundee	The Bay, or Kirkwall Roads, extending along the beach, in a north-east direction, to Thief's Holm, and in a westerly direction to Quasterness Skerry, thence in a southerly direction to the Legal Quoys.
Stromness	The bay called Cairston Roads.
Leith	Between the Martello tower and chain pier at Newhaven.
Dunbar	In the harbour.
Fisherrow	In the harbour.
Eyemouth	In the bay, opposite the Custom-house.
Montrose	Within the bar, at the entrance of the river South Esk, which is called the Still.
Arbroath	The harbour.

Ports.	Stations for bringing to.
Port Glasgow	Port Glasgow Roads, or roadstead, commencing at the black and white chequered buoy, on the east point of the basin called the Parish, distant from the harbour about 800 yards, and extending in a south-easterly direction by the course of the river Clyde to the old Pelias called Newark Castle.
Stranraer	The harbour.
Stranraer	The harbour of Dissarton.
Port Patrick	The harbour.
Troon	Troon Bay, within Holborn Head to the anchorage ground at Seventeen Roods.
Wick	Wick Bay, when entered or within the head-land called the Old Man of Wick.

IRELAND.

Baltimore, Castle Townsend, Crook Haven, Skull Haven	At the entrance of the harbours of Clerk Townsend, Baltimore, Crook Haven, and Skull Haven.
Belfast (Floating Bn.)	Carrickfergus Roads, in Belfast Lough.
Coleraine	Port Rush Bay, outside the harbour.
Cove (Cork)	Between the East buoy and the town of Cove.
West Passage	Between Ferry Point on the southward and Horse Head to the north-west.
Kinsale	Upper Cove, on the eastern side of the harbour.
Youghall	Within the entrance of the harbour, between Blackball Head to the eastward, and Ferry Point.
Drogheda	Ninth Creek, at the entrance of the Boyne.
Queenborough	In the river Boyne, opposite Queenborough.
Dublin	Pigeon-house, between the harbour light-house and the end of the North Wall.
Dundalk	Soldiers' Point.
Galway	To the eastward, or under the shelter of, Mutton Island.
Limerick	Tarbert's Roads, to the southward of Tarbert Island, in the county of Kerry.
Londonderry	Greencastle, situate on the north side of Lough Foyle.
Newry	Warren Point Roads.
Strangford	Ballyhenry Bay or Audley's Town Bay.
Sligo	Oyster Island.
Kilrush	Anchorage of Kilrush.
Ballycastle	In the river, abreast of Ward Town-house.
Ballina	Moyne Post.
Killala	Killala Post.
Waterford	Passage.
New Ross	
Dungarvan	The harbour.
Westport	The anchorage ground at Annagh Head, in Clew Bay.
Wexford	South Bay, about 10 miles from Wexford. (Sup.)

[It was at first intended by the American editor to annex to the present article such information concerning the topics treated in it, and having relation to the United States, as might be desirable for those occasionally to refer to who consult a commercial dictionary. On proceeding to this task, however, it became manifest to him that the execution of his design was quite impracticable in any thing like reasonable bounds. Not to speak of copying the very words of the acts of Congress, or of the sections of acts of Congress, which prescribe the course in every case to be pursued by the importer or exporter of merchandise, a digest only of these enactments, after the manner of Gordon, would occupy altogether a disproportionate space in the present work. Indeed, the space occupied by the 9th book of this author, much of which contains matter that would have a claim for insertion here, amounts to no less than 900 closely printed octavo pages.

For the reason which has been stated, the reader is referred for the information in question to *Story's Laws of the United States*, or to *Gordon's Digest* of those laws.—*Am. Ed.*]

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, the articles imported into and exported from a country.

We have explained in another article (BALANCE OF TRADE), the mode in which the value of the imports and exports is officially determined by the Custom-house, and have shown the fallacy of the common notions as to the advantage of the exports exceeding the imports. The scale of prices according to which the official value of the imports and exports is determined having been fixed so far back as 1698, the account is of no use as showing their true value; but it is of material importance as showing the fluctuations in their quantity. We were anxious, had the means existed, to have given accounts of the various articles imported and exported at different periods during the last century, that the comparative increase or diminution of the trade in each might have been exhibited in one general view. Unluckily, however, no means exist for completing such an account. The Tables published by Sir Charles Whitworth, Mr. Macpherson, and others, specify only the aggregate value of the imports from and exports to particular countries, without specifying the articles or their value of which such imports and exports consisted. And on applying at the Custom-house, we found that the fire in 1814 had destroyed the records; so that there were no means of compiling any complete account of the value of the articles imported or exported previously to that period. We therefore have been obliged to confine ourselves, except as respects the period since 1815, to an attempt to exhibit the amount of the trade with each country for such periods as seemed best calculated to show its real progress. Those selected for this purpose, in the first of the following Tables, are periods of peace; for, during war, the com

merce with particular countries is liable to be extended or depressed so far beyond its natural limits as to afford no means of judging of its ordinary amount. The averages given in the Table (with the exception of 1802), are sufficiently extensive to neutralise the influence of such extraordinary circumstances (whether arising from bad harvests, the repeal or imposition of duties, or any other cause), as might materially affect an average for 2 or 3 years only; and as they extend from 1698 to 1822, they afford a pretty complete view of the progress of the foreign trade of Great Britain. This Table was compiled from official documents by Mr. Cesar Moreau, and may be safely relied on. The Tables which follow have either been copied from, or have been founded upon, official returns. Nos. IV. and V. give, in a brief space, by far the most complete view of the foreign trade of the empire during the half dozen years ending with 1835, than is anywhere to be met with. The proportional value of our export trade to different countries is, for the first time, exhibited in Table V.

During the first half of last century, and previously, woollen goods formed the principal article of native produce exported from Great Britain; and next to it were hardware and cutlery, leather manufactures, linen, tin, and lead, copper and brass manufactures, coal, earthenware, provision, slops, &c. Corn formed a considerable article in the list of exports down to 1770; since which period the balance of the corn trade has been, with a few exceptions, very decidedly on the side of importation. Cotton did not begin to be of any importance as an article of export till after 1770; but since then the extension and improvement of the cotton manufacture has been so astonishingly great, that the exports of cotton stuffs and yarn amount, at this moment, to about *a half* of the entire exports of British produce and manufactures!—(See vol. i. p. 526.) The export of woollen goods has been comparatively stationary.

The principal articles of import during the last half century have consisted of sugar, tea, corn, timber and naval stores, cotton wool, sheep's wool, woods and drugs for dyeing, wine and spirits, tobacco, silk, tallow, hides and skins, coffee, spices, bullion, &c. Of the colonial and other foreign products imported into England, considerable quantities have always been re-exported.

Tables of Imports and Exports.

1. Account of the *Official* Value of the Import and Export Trade of Great Britain with all Parts of the World, at an Annual Medium of the undermentioned Periods; specifying the separate Amount of the Trade with each Country for such Periods.

Countries.	Imports into Great Britain from all Parts, of all Sorts of Products.					Exports from Great Britain to all Parts, of all Sorts of Products				
	Annual Medium of Five Periods of Peace, viz.					Annual Medium of Five Periods of Peace, viz.				
	1698–1701.	1748–1755.	1784–1792.	In 1802.	1816–1822.	1698–1701.	1748–1755.	1784–1792.	In 1802.	1816–1822.
Europe, British and foreign	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Foreign, North	1,288,170	2,158,870	2,895,899	3,915,853	4,981,985	3,114,985	4,168,689	4,781,985	15,015,989	17,010,989
South	1,490,904	1,893,926	2,960,914	5,193,097	5,898,503	1,451,281	3,199,499	5,187,189	7,408,231	5,899,997
Ireland, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Man, and the Whale Fishery	497,640	746,232	2,489,684	3,893,691	5,143,230	429,553	1,353,504	2,951,681	3,683,321	4,097,230
Gibraltar (from 1801, Malta and Ionian Islands)	• •	111,963	13,236	119,513	147,981	338,894	641,998	210,839	542,404	2,448,565
Europe, British and foreign	3,286,720	4,827,911	9,199,015	12,927,679	13,491,699	5,288,492	9,291,988	10,411,098	26,630,141	31,980,039
Asia	656,031	1,119,158	5,179,196	5,794,903	7,119,192	214,212	714,105	1,795,747	2,939,916	5,219,446
Africa	17,481	24,279	92,253	188,963	267,939	114,043	213,541	309,546	6,181,179	681,713
America	1,039,780	2,521,996	5,258,349	13,480,870	14,042,949	737,679	2,001,880	5,805,526	10,896,892	17,466,355
Grand Total	5,599,952	8,211,346	17,716,752	31,442,515	34,921,838	6,449,594	12,220,974	18,621,942	41,611,986	55,198,196
Europe, North										
Russia	110,448	491,052	1,618,148	2,182,490	2,258,975	60,999	100,954	895,696	1,681,555	2,023,725
Sweden	215,697	187,638	261,323	367,250	132,808	68,454	19,859	70,617	90,515	145,817
Denmark and Norway	77,328	84,507	140,138	155,873	196,517	99,874	97,808	294,108	497,016	422,810
Prussia	181,189	280,633	566,544	1,057,803	946,060	152,209	171,091	117,247	618,262	1,002,361
Germany	691,198	687,806	562,391	1,195,020	894,741	757,621	1,345,312	1,566,311	3,005,237	3,772,871
Netherlands	624,410	407,240	717,057	1,000,768	561,389	2,044,525	2,448,947	2,317,986	4,382,617	4,357,516
Europe, South.										
France	86,025	60,962	452,784	424,484	727,360	166,115	437,483	981,492	2,260,108	1,314,079
Portugal	202,999	262,549	615,496	961,711	492,193	545,143	1,121,529	675,348	1,254,844	1,935,184
Spain	526,527	437,869	764,287	699,997	677,496	540,422	1,196,257	709,179	1,431,324	812,965
Italy	318,537	279,445	853,983	722,501	994,253	145,940	238,478	750,243	1,950,416	3,650,715
Turkey	276,998	198,071	184,549	154,484	306,678	215,008	135,874	121,827	163,184	264,116
America, North.										
United States	296,402	991,169	998,409	1,998,504	3,907,498	227,548	1,926,161	2,896,484	5,329,620	6,963,966
British colonies	18,617	48,750	221,418	367,995	716,573	15,491	72,984	564,489	1,250,999	1,715,230
America, South.										
British West Indies	714,781	1,568,183	3,960,674	5,231,175	7,566,215	331,350	624,087	1,952,589	3,998,619	5,030,307
Foreign ditto (from 1806, Brazils and Span. colon.)	• •	1,696	189,869	1,056,966	2,132,674					

Foreign Trade of Great Britain and Ireland.

II. Account specifying the *Official* and *Declared* Value of the Exports of British and Irish Produce and Manufacture, and the *Official Value* of the Exports of Foreign and Colonial Merchandize, from Great Britain to Foreign Parts; with the *Official Value* of the Imports into the same, also from Foreign Parts, in each Year since 1700.

Years ending the 5th of January.	British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported from Great Britain.		Foreign and Colonial Merchandize exported from Great Britain.	Imports into Great Britain.
	Official Value.	*Declared Value.*	*Official Value.*	*Official Value.*
1700	£18,506,591	£21,952,839	£2,760,198	£4,122,223
1800	22,264,941	35,903,856	7,271,606	24,466,709
1801	22,831,926	35,929,007	11,549,681	26,257,781
1802	21,501,606	29,730,656	10,336,006	30,435,208
1803	23,195,803	45,102,230	12,677,431	23,816,373
1804	20,043,508	36,127,767	8,028,643	24,104,541
1805	22,132,267	37,125,746	8,928,741	26,454,981
1806	22,907,371	37,234,396	7,613,130	27,324,020
1807	25,268,546	39,746,561	7,717,558	25,534,476
1808	22,063,772	36,294,442	7,684,218	25,226,845
1809	24,179,854	36,306,285	5,776,775	25,660,953
1810	22,916,858	46,049,777	12,750,356	30,170,208
1811	22,299,408	47,009,286	9,257,483	27,613,204
1812	21,723,533	30,850,618	6,117,720	25,240,904
1813	23,447,913	39,234,596	9,533,055	24,923,923
1814	*	*	*	*
1815	22,300,580	43,447,372	10,157,818	26,090,771
1816	41,712,003	40,653,945	15,708,253	31,822,053
1817	34,774,531	40,238,940	13,441,666	30,374,921
1818	39,239,467	40,349,235	10,269,971	29,910,509
1819	41,060,555	45,180,150	10,835,800	25,945,340
1820	38,983,089	34,259,251	9,879,236	29,081,040
1821	37,820,993	35,569,077	10,525,026	31,515,223
1822	40,194,681	36,823,187	10,602,990	29,709,133
1823	43,558,486	36,176,992	9,911,926	30,423,876
1824	43,166,039	34,589,410	8,566,990	34,591,954
1825	48,024,952	37,600,091	10,188,596	36,056,551
1826	46,453,022	36,077,320	9,155,305	42,660,954
1827	40,332,854	30,847,598	10,066,503	36,174,350
1828	51,379,108	38,394,817	9,806,343	43,489,346
1829	50,019,726	36,150,379	9,926,655	43,536,187
1830	55,465,723	35,912,573	10,605,441	43,311,649
1831	60,495,637	37,691,309	9,535,786	44,815,397
1832	60,090,123	36,652,894	10,739,943	46,161,661
1833	64,562,037	36,046,087	11,026,750	43,327,417
1834	69,832,854	39,305,513	9,980,596	44,529,287
1835	73,495,536	41,286,594	11,549,913	47,908,031
1836	77,984,510	46,936,370	13,786,893	47,463,510

* Records destroyed by fire.—From the year ending the 5th of January, 1815, inclusive, British produce and manufactures have been included in the returns of Irish produce, &c. from Ireland, and consequently omitted in the column headed Exports, Foreign, Colonial, and British, under which they have been previously returned. The exports from Ireland to foreign parts are inconsiderable. Their declared value, in 1835, was only 445,302*l.*—(See post.)

III. Account showing the Quantities of the principal Articles of British and Irish Produce or Manufacture exported from Ireland in different Years, from 1801 to 1835, to *all* Countries; showing also the aggregate Official Value of such Exports, with the Portion thereof exported to Foreign Countries, and to Great Britain.

Articles exported.		1801.	1805.	1809.	1813.	1817.	1821.	1825.
Corn and meal, viz.—								
Barley	qrs.		17,923	26,569	194,199	98,114	72,229	164,822
Oats	—	199	283,254	329,456	208,329	646,039	1,159,321	1,608,204
Wheat	—		82,815	25,498	231,723	47,260	476,940	283,240
Other grain	—	1	5,308	3,025	5,954	2,011	7,897	23,882
Wheat flour	cwt.	209	23,774	18,087	267,894	84,517	295,056	284,507
Oatmeal, &c.	—	2,534	24,297	20,943	166,547	54,988	96,083	204,617
Cattle and live stock—								
Cows and oxen	No.	31,664	21,941	18,256	49,592	44,398	96,769	63,504
Sheep	—	2,291	10,898	7,506	7,899	29,478	58,354	72,191
Swine	—	1,566	6,368	4,712	14,481	24,418	104,556	65,919
Horses	—	813	4,196	3,451	4,001	879	2,503	3,146
Bacon and hams	cwt.	21,161	95,075	107,132	254,606	191,035	362,309	282,278
Beef and pork	barrels	160,940	222,098	232,744	321,503	342,805	212,163	181,578
Butter	cwt.	304,600	384,416	385,566	461,514	397,909	472,944	474,161
Lard	—	2,049	6,565	15,246	23,136	17,181	23,489	25,281
Soap and candles	—	15,577	17,713	20,910	46,615	26,361	16,494	14,791
Flax, undressed	—	1,269	278	6,507	64,191	44,259	69,791	54,299
Spirits, Irish	Imp. gals.	178,623	318,978	69,427	113,916	27,264	326,491	282,529
Cotton manufactures	yards	1,256	4,548	84,599	99,141	549,261	981,971	19,947,459
other descriptions	value	£. 4,824	9,287	21,963	58,074	25,250	6,564	201
Linen manufactures	yards	57,911,602	48,898,533	57,166,399	39,023,087	55,230,575	49,531,189	56,114,515
yarn	lbs.	2,631,182	782,480	1,264,913	2,141,776	1,271,444	1,150,464	991,180
Other articles the produce or manufacture of the U. K.	value	£. 198,259	211,184	302,913	286,999	484,128	334,323	466,265
Agg. official value of prod. and manufact. of U. K. exp. from Ireland to *all* parts		£. 3,775,148	4,270,647	4,902,946	5,897,264	5,447,494	7,705,079	8,101,953
Agg. official value of prod. and manufact. of U. K. exp. from Ireland to *foreign* ports		£. 425,076	469,509	625,415	1,192,781	977,969	627,918	997,667
Agg. official value of prod. and manufact. of U. K. exp. from Ireland to *Great Britain*		£. 3,350,069	4,201,078	4,267,425	5,164,483	5,469,465	7,067,350	8,464,289

The above Table shews the inconsiderable amount of the trade of Ireland with all countries, except Great Britain. In 1825, the trade between the two divisions of the empire was placed on the footing of a coasting trade, and no account has since been kept of the quantity or value of the commodities passing between them, with the exception of corn.

IV. Account of the different Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandize imported into, exported from, and retained for Consumption in, the United Kingdom, with the Nett Revenue accruing thereon, during the Years 1832, 1833, 1834, and 1835.

Description of Merchandize.		Quantities imported.				Quantities exported.				Quantities retained for Consumption.				Nett Revenue.			
		1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
Annatto	lbs.	94,498	147,671	252,891	126,451	1,264	15,264	5,744	5,547	93,234	132,407	247,147	120,904	£. 1,401	£. 1,971	£. 3,705	£. 1,807
Arrow root	—	224,311	169,729	94,154	134,331	16,253	10,253	6,139	5,547	208,058	159,476	87,915	128,784	5,201	3,987	2,197	3,219
Barilla and alkali	cwts.	129,440	214,262	193,971	126,000	5,780	5,449	5,333	5,547	123,660	208,813	188,638	120,453	Gross proc. 1,236	Gross proc. 2,088	Gross proc. 1,886	Gross proc. 1,205

IV. Account of the different Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise imported into, exported from, and retained for Consumption in, the United Kingdom, with the Nett Revenue accruing thereon, during the Years 1832, 1833, 1834, and 1835.

Descriptions of Merchandise.	Quantities imported.				Quantities exported.				Quantities retained for Consumption.				Nett Revenue.			
	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
													£.	£.	£.	£.
Annatto lbs.	98,468	147,971	292,921	183,481	1,264	23,004	2,795	6,927	103,201	214,118	289,126	201,453	611	897	1,209	1,211
Ashes, pearl and pot cwts.	191,911	169,729	94,134	184,219	13,765	11,269	6,186	8,247	184,262	168,422	89,949	183,951	6,122	1,683	1,349	1,839
Arrow root lbs.	308,301	331,170	287,511	287,585	5,283	24,295	24,264	29,277	302,983	307,268	263,196	258,308	954	977	821	845
															Gross rev.	Gross rev.
Barilla and alkali cwts.	126,548	214,823	159,971	225,088	6,726	2,459	3,233	5,267	274,752	218,869	159,480	149,280	32,976	16,705	17,764	14,617
														Drawbacks and repay-ments.	4,459	4,259
															13,305	9,764
Bark for tanning or dyeing —	776,403	993,231	948,203	888,095	6,203	264	1,132	2,264	770,551	854,270	946,551	891,214	92,993	99,676	99,779	91,719
Bark not for tanning or dyeing lbs.	423,164	-	642,502	426,079	311,302	-	282,318	227,199	83,569	-	59,989	198,779	294	-	295	295
Borax —	109,866	109,713	235,823	226,234	69,241	65,849	68,389	60,539	111,489	76,068	126,022	205,631	223	205	252	252
Boracic acid —	547,609	767,767	747,499	782,507	-	-	19,662	26,409	515,204	776,140	663,031	665,195	4,126	1,284	1,326	1,330
Brimstone cwts.	541,545	459,753	503,295	614,405	13,227	26,269	13,764	25,957	393,301	391,653	443,564	615,772	2,247	2,561	11,197	15,394
Bristles lbs.	1,515,539	1,546,913	1,502,251	1,625,262	74,016	71,410	2,260	46,696	1,780,221	1,482,772	1,500,163	1,542,980	29,240	22,242	24,722	23,245
Cork, unmanufactured cwts.	89,697	84,103	87,873	93,575	16	16	28	348	42,209	89,083	87,371	93,769	17,071	34,233	35,094	37,507
Coffee, viz.—																
British plantation lbs.	24,642,880	18,228,880	22,088,192	14,617,046	726,286	194,960	762,948	282,268	20,994,201	20,941,164	22,284,272	17,888,189	882,816	881,341	814,454	668,184
East India and Mauritius —	10,970,026	6,218,220	9,951,141	7,167,914	2,715,324	2,295,027	6,303,562	2,816,981	1,970,635	1,790,319	1,566,894	5,582,781				
Foreign plantation —	14,615,023	9,578,980	9,894,847	6,613,589	15,982,460	11,153,691	9,177,972	10,529,264	17,591	1,671	2,416	2,192				
Totals —	50,228,929	34,026,109	41,934,111	28,398,469	25,713,748	15,643,678	15,250,482	13,548,497	22,982,427	22,731,154	23,753,586	23,473,162				
Cocoa, viz.—																
British plantation lbs.	694,943	2,144,662	1,264,622	438,440	77,600	80,999	442,643	21,220	1,122,220	1,022,178	1,122,222	1,022,720				
East India —	-	-	401	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	-				
Foreign —	2,246,178	2,464,716	1,619,570	1,672,516	1,722,684	2,212,550	1,756,973	2,269,260	17,597	38,108	6,194	440				
All sorts —	2,971,019	4,609,718	2,884,594	2,110,756	1,722,284	2,251,277	2,205,216	2,491,120	1,139,191	1,060,287	1,122,726	1,024,170	14,222	13,233	11,779	10,240
Husks and shells —	249,504	515,222	494,229	276,401	21	-	-	1,274	252,272	449,122	449,722	269,230				
Chocolate and cocoa paste —	1,225	2,224	2,232	2,205	225	117	1,225	240	1,470	1,220	1,220	2,227				
Cotton wool from foreign countries, viz.—																
United States of America —	219,754,752	237,508,752	269,203,075	284,455,812												
Brazil —	20,108,560	23,463,231	19,231,326	24,266,488												
Turkey and Egypt —	3,115,220	267,262	956,167	5,725,262												
Other foreign countries —	526,048	1,685,109	2,280,252	5,277,269												
Cotton wool from British possessions, viz.—																
East Indies and Mauritius —	35,178,625	32,755,164	32,220,225	41,474,209												
British West Indies, the growth of —	1,705,764	1,253,168	1,072,211	1,495,517												
Ditto, imported from —	231,684	431,606	624,314	319,768												
Other British possessions —	25,221	162,262	47,545	24,208												
Total quantities lbs.	296,832,525	303,926,937	326,975,425	368,702,963	15,627,940	17,293,221	24,481,223	32,779,734	259,412,463	286,632,976	302,256,627	335,477,622	699,627	672,511	776,212	886,225
Cotton manufactures, viz.—																
Piece goods of India pieces	-	200,523	298,966	306,094	-	853,549	674,459	478,087	-	£. 28,577	£. 47,389	£. 69,195		4,000	6,000	6,151
Manufactures at value £.	-	31,537	57,982	71,793	-	16,249	18,919	29,359	-							
Cotton yarn lbs.	-	177,333	103,830	117,816	-	32,267	40,562	37,348	-	113,297	99,686	78,687				

Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, imported, exported, retained, &c., *continued*.

Descriptions of Merchandise.		Quantities imported.				Quantities exported.				Quantities retained for Consumption.				Nett Revenue.			
		1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
														£.	£.	£.	£.
Dyeing stuffs, viz.																	
Cochineal	lbs.	388,477	389,381	416,287	416,289	126,570	120,782	255,490	252,025	166,900	178,246	130,980	162,595	4,158	4,239	3,495	4,097
Fustic	tons	4,359	9,578	14,048	9,931	717	1,516	1,452	1,142	4,457	7,660	10,434	8,935	915	1,567	2,112	1,817
Gum Arabic	cwts.	8,701	15,195	17,424	13,981	372	356	519	4,548	7,173	12,078	17,613	15,309	2,753	3,581	5,201	4,565
Senegal		37,435	15,125	19,600	4,408	2,070	-	322	770	19,208	19,934	14,608	10,585	6,234	5,968	4,365	3,175
Annatto and roucou	lbs.	278,296	447,786	677,796	852,168	109,630	183,216	258,257	175,767	148,056	154,272	241,959	191,364	1,496	654	958	585
Tragacanth		44,598	85,094	31,168	24,497	4,510	1,832	5,189	28,558	53,272	58,827	34,257	30,430	267	156	92	94
Indigo		6,253,065	6,635,430	4,155,296	4,481,305	5,346,725	3,854,814	3,528,226	4,074,598	2,385,653	2,223,300	2,447,827	2,560,806	20,675	20,781	22,056	23,276
Lac dye	cwts.	472,876	338,304	708,938	568,815	71,208	52,811	88,234	206,169	402,389	435,973	388,474	504,478	1,447	1,170	1,067	1,639
Logwood	tons	18,774	20,009	21,054	16,744	4,427	7,045	4,545	3,887	12,415	17,385	14,048	14,727	2,512	3,492	2,542	2,653
Madder	cwts.	79,435	61,267	72,894	64,102	676	726	1,257	855	69,548	72,195	70,951	64,109	18,143	14,730	7,257	9,565
Madder roots		24,449	66,662	66,297	66,323	-	27	-	2	61,767	66,549	75,371	67,891	3,862	3,721	1,662	1,687
Nicaragua wood	tons	2,097	2,936	5,196	6,242	431	1,088	1,288	1,811	1,560	1,801	2,702	3,930	807	898	788	982
Safflower	cwts.	5,591	6,620	6,666	6,482	1,884	3,133	2,882	3,686	1,668	2,308	3,607	2,939	147	191	232	185
Sumac		140,308	120,786	150,441	177,832	3,715	1,626	695	407	129,278	147,878	163,665	176,356	6,182	4,856	546	447
Tanin	lbs.	486,548	320,421	598,895	118,646	15,620	22,657	8,957	27,854	320,708	247,777	167,232	84,640	5,984	4,150	2,705	1,614
Valonia	cwts.	163,402	178,545	174,196	162,082	54	43	230	41	156,496	169,149	167,527	168,513	8,805	8,456	9,378	9,413
Yellow berries		-	-	4,000	5,050	-	-	80	282	-	-	3,810	6,001	-	-	281	607
Zaffre	lbs.	292,295	344,107	315,457	282,540	448	3,228	-	330	283,922	330,989	283,986	286,824	417	151	197	151
Elephants' teeth	cwts.	5,995	5,045	6,726	5,995	1,405	1,914	1,980	1,715	2,693	2,966	4,922	5,036	2,990	4,094	4,415	3,999
Flax and tow, or codilla of flax and hemp		982,516	1,120,899	811,726	748,814	15,894	28,982	19,649	12,555	891,899	1,112,180	784,978	788,143	4,148	4,728	3,495	3,157
Fruit, viz.—																	
Apples, not dried	bushels	18,626	27,697	16,447	11,874	-	21	126	6	16,449	32,769	13,448	11,477	2,236	4,868	2,016	2,236
Almonds	cwts.	13,577	15,831	18,894	16,917	6,998	11,290	11,998	8,705	7,128	6,325	6,987	7,170	11,627	6,528	6,453	7,268
Currants	bushels	25,166	32,276	31,764	31,973	-	287	-	1,541	25,088	33,817	16,499	15,297	2,236	3,365	1,741	1,559
Currants	cwts.	165,659	142,530	182,788	176,083	11,756	10,554	12,967	22,188	142,717	140,445	163,583	153,549	316,697	311,088	363,169	314,597
Figs		24,772	10,894	21,613	18,773	6,001	2,986	4,088	2,630	21,393	16,494	16,478	20,662	23,136	17,781	16,384	15,411
Grapes	value, £.	8,701	11,106	16,488	16,765	-	-	10	2	8,701	11,106	16,488	16,780	1,739	2,235	884	888
Lemons and oranges	chests	242,247	231,951	288,248	284,488	1,497	5,694	1,497	1,264	241,973	219,147	254,783	282,145	54,594	62,660	57,454	58,888
Prunes, dried	cwts.	335	750	250	468	10	7	10	2	258	825	240	277	491	961	368	388
Prunes and prunellos		-	-	6,417	4,557	-	-	78	1,174	-	-	4,261	4,677	-	-	4,388	4,677
Prunes		3,926	9,980	12,648	12,009	204	125	258	1,214	4,627	8,008	6,945	12,080	6,222	11,080	6,525	4,296
Raisins		127,418	156,324	212,728	169,364	25,977	26,127	27,695	20,998	120,305	137,938	147,467	160,844	148,447	148,155	122,272	120,530
Small sorts	bushels	152,838	165,562	181,558	196,585	3,797	5,548	1,217	1,138	122,747	156,726	134,221	119,553	12,893	15,645	12,566	11,287
Walnuts		34,913	19,415	29,008	27,885	561	1,566	308	60	15,229	14,843	28,475	25,529	1,519	1,562	2,026	2,043
Furs, undressed, viz.—																	
Bear	No.	21,585	12,568	13,690	15,041	18,864	17,451	10,986	11,414	2,162	2,833	548	1,348	902	580	91	190
Beaver		91,970	62,849	117,295	98,409	598	189	788	215	100,581	92,096	68,675	97,542	1,722	1,742	1,228	1,672
Cat and lynx		42,748	19,857	64,127	95,264	15,123	4,801	6,287	11,947	48,228	27,478	46,311	81,427	722	454	1,089	1,221
Coney		630,541	644,570	725,149	622,430	4,995	2,134	10,965	10,166	678,466	645,240	700,264	564,648	282	284	340	188
Ermine		3,927	105,139	107,596	183,979	15,302	1,974	1,139	2,400	62	34,202	163,983	156,762	3	282	2,050	1,885
Fitch		238,241	1:1,468	224,216	47,568	-	-	1,436	6,206	244,540	182,771	204,115	50,390	3,224	2,145	1,713	420
Fox		68,051	62,592	75,939	80,271	70,170	58,971	61,097	66,577	8,988	24,015	13,508	7,150	396	770	443	197
Marten		140,467	163,277	182,428	159,854	26,187	14,875	2,864	17,961	178,425	178,708	130,305	134,370	3,214	3,969	2,740	2,625
Musk		80,913	103,581	132,630	115,591	46,490	60,999	62,632	69,298	66,460	44,306	49,248	60,536	236	150	750	549
Muscquash		507,298	318,988	872,515	1,171,659	114,421	110,858	97,875	221,490	393,348	512,620	246,089	970 614	162	257	124	290
Nutria		222,493	21,889	61,003	557,608	1,270	-	7,499	23,143	275,727	23,889	61,216	451,867	1,724	29	26	283
Otter		17,557	8,378	27,232	18,374	21,005	15,858	9,391	24,444	1,741	621	911	594	134	78	91	64
Racoon		255,830	230,715	209,934	297,797	227,495	227,80	188,545	280,005	871	566	9,255	-	14	5	78	5
Squirrel		2,566,158	1,160,162	1,473,772	1,273,013	48,163	23,448	2,772	87,240	2,378,944	1,569,827	1,445,268	1,402,732	13,626	7,884	8,317	8,218

Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, imported, exported, retained, &c., *continued*.

Descriptions of Merchandise.		Quantities imported.				Quantities exported.				Quantities retained for Consumption.				Nett Revenue.			
		1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
														£.	£.	£.	£.
Hard woods, viz.																	
Boxwood	tons	327	888	1,008	997	22	45	18	42	308	835	997	799	1,999	6,888	3,250	3,948
Cedar under 8 inches square		1,197	1,572	2,505	2,058	21	106	66	112	1,352	1,539	2,665	1,712	2,717	1,479	2,998	1,332
Mahogany		16,864	11,819	18,957	15,047	781	1,306	462	997	19,293	15,115	16,721	18,171	47,524	41,630	39,797	44,467
Rosewood		848	463	1,677	2,423	153	105	42	30	838	1,048	1,156	1,416	6,392	10,474	11,645	14,189
Hats or bonnets, viz.—																	
Of bast, cane, chip, or horsehair	No.	668	1,728	11,685	12,647	189	2	18,394	5,532	2,634	1,616	2,347	10,088	306	140	279	841

Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, imported, exported, retained, &c., *continued*.

Descriptions of Merchandise.	Quantities imported.				Quantities exported.				Quantities retained for Consumption.				Nett Revenue.			
	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
													£.	£.	£.	£.
Hard woods, viz.																
Boxwood - - - - - - tons	327	588	1,093	887	92	45	18	42	300	535	657	795	1,993	3,698	3,999	3,948
Cedar under 8 inches square - - - —	1,137	1,572	2,505	2,856	21	106	65	112	1,253	1,539	2,665	1,712	2,717	1,479	2,988	1,502
Mahogany - - - - - - —	15,964	11,819	16,957	19,067	791	1,206	492	997	19,293	15,115	16,721	18,171	47,524	41,630	38,797	44,407
Rosewood - - - - - - —	832	463	1,077	2,473	183	105	42	80	836	1,046	1,156	1,416	6,392	10,474	11,645	14,188
Hats or bonnets, viz.—																
Of hair, cane, chip, or horsehair - - No.	666	1,726	11,695	13,647	189	2	13,304	5,532	3,634	1,616	2,347	10,088	205	140	270	841
Of straw - - - - - - —	108,438	25,722	16,550	7,472	36,271	64,038	23,956	12,117	60,986	21,460	14,497	2,980	19,300	6,988	5,393	1,041
Plaiting of hat, cane, &c. - - - lbs.	139	585	33	494	841	1,548	753	256	98	37	30	156	29	37	23	159
Ditto of straw - - - - - —	19,109	22,223	45,978	27,489	1,095	2,301	2,832	1,656	17,911	22,079	25,470	21,211	15,174	19,798	20,915	26,642
Unmanufactured straw for plaiting - - —	2,490 L. cwt.qr.lb. 529 0 16	Value, L. 1,307	Cwts. 2,662	Cwts. 3,931	Value, L. 22	Value, L. 14	Cwts. 28	Cwts. 136	L. 2,378 cwt.qr.lb. 414 1 24	Value, L. 2,611	Cwts. 2,372	Cwts. 3,624	811	Repayments exceed the gross rec.	9	13
Hemp, unbrased - - - - - cwts.	503,564	627,450	673,811	687,559	21,410	36,170	19,672	65,951	703,646	612,623	693,696	643,193	21,478	2,112	2,544	2,697
Hides, untanned, viz.—																
Buffalo, bull, ox, cow, or horse hides - —	198,691	226,300	437,231	350,027	37,318	23,306	58,127	73,380	161,993	205,861	342,718	294,184	24,018	23,027	34,709	43,497
Hides or pieces of hides unenumerated - value, L.	1,505	1,301	782	127	-	228	16	-	1,505	1,072	776	127	-	-	-	23
Hides, tanned, viz.—																
Buffalo, bull, ox, cow, or horse hides - lbs.	28,654	25,702	20,598	23,070	10,305	10,450	4,964	23,304	24,695	48,578	42,339	31,692	310	532	517	1,041
Muscovy or Russia - - - - - No.	1,686	5,244	5,120	6,443	-	4,689	481	-	3,416	3,451	3,747	4,692	884	983	937	1,322
Hides and pieces of hides unenumerated - value, L.	4	6	56	-	-	-	-	-	4	6	50	-	2	2	15	-
Horns, horn tips, and pieces of horns - - cwts.	29,395	42,709	46,656	51,264	11,026	9,268	10,500	12,979	14,858	25,050	29,536	27,864	1,761	2,262	2,445	2,953
Jalap - - - - - - - lbs.	22,983	-	98,111	73,209	3,849	-	5,209	8,857	54,071	-	50,720	54,308	2,022	-	1,253	1,360
Iron bar - - - - - - - tons	19,243	17,913	16,215	19,750	3,451	2,084	2,285	2,634	14,634	15,973	15,208	17,672	21,951	23,208	23,274	26,379
Isinglass - - - - - - - cwts.	1,919	-	1,976	1,811	23	-	45	56	1,619	-	1,689	1,814	5,066	-	5,976	4,530
Lead—pig - - - - - - - tons	1,089	780	970	1,276	257	2,015	265	1,389	184	-	95	2 1-2	261	61	51	5
Leather gloves - - - - - - pairs	1,516,632	1,436,472	1,697,944	1,920,623	21,564	-	22,634	38,569	1,478,190	1,411,215	1,695,589	1,921,368	27,108	-	33,352	34,175
Linens, viz.—																
Cambrics and border handkerchiefs - pieces	44,775	36,230	39,696	45,726	628	504	321	355	43,994	40,703	37,374	45,213				
Lawns, not French - - - sq. yds.	-	-	-	4,015	-	-	-	2,567	-	-	-	178				
Damasks and damask diaper - - - —	1,654	2,285	10,957	11,377	343	326	43	6,515	1,173	2,695	10,914	6,374				
Drillings, ticks, and twilled linens - —	-	745	1,734	970	-	-	-	-	1,492	286	560	646				
Sailcloth - - - - - - —	19,508	2,986	12,754	9,534	20,905	2,902	1,747	5,414	59	185	272	211				
Rolls - - - - - - values, L.	399	574	49	421	10	4	-	6	389	570	407	415	17,997	20,366	17,681	19,087
Plain linen and diaper - - - sq. yds.	45,781	40,171	29,548	144,853	47,736	17,914	14,430	148,994	-	-	4	908				
Ditto - - - - - - ells	417,049	342,027	537,588	582,231	73,450	16,606	17,782	14,110	-	-	-	-				
Ditto - - - - - - pieces	36,519	41,280	46,349	54,788	32,314	47,191	39,363	65,370	-	-	-	-				
Linens not French, plain linens and diapers, and manufactures of linen unenumerated - value, L.	10,736	13,401	11,984	12,902	1,224	566	267	1,087	12,585	12,890	12,628	15,668				
Linen yarn - - - - - - cwts.	12,504	13,970	14,566	12,305	-	-	103	53	12,504	14,012	14,405	12,252	620	-	720	614
Liquorice juice - - - - - —	5,789	7,763	6,071	6,414	236	-	107	167	6,006	6,759	6,141	7,315	22,507	-	22,504	27,257
Molasses - - - - - - cwts.	665,685	717,934	720,302	698,321	1,120	1,332	2,078	4,996	666,669	648,960	667,950	682,479	264,651	260,823	268,631	278,796
Oil—castor - - - - - - lbs.	301,656	343,802	694,371	1,109,377	23,117	26,246	27,033	61,296	477,449	281,295	545,438	670,906	2,543	621	699	776
Olive - - - - - - - galls.	110,822	1,891,918	2,218,142	866,168	819,595	397,367	234,330	293,734	1,284,190	1,389,217	2,225,237	554,196	43,260	45,743	46,207	9,634
Cocoa nut - - - - - - cwts.	10,808	-	8,810	19,528	824	-	640	2,338	10,388	-	7,506	14,015	1,276	-	619	884
Palm - - - - - - - —	222,336	267,194	270,669	267,151	6,017	19,736	20,412	30,915	230,328	216,225	264,806	242,783	27,542	27,043	28,606	15,230
Train, spermaceti, and blubber - - - tuns	30,776	32,876	25,234	24,197	2,558	2,653	2,787	3,088	28,967	31,349	21,462	16,114	1,712	1,761	1,560	1,304

Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, imported, exported, retained, &c., *continued.*

Descriptions of Merchandise.	Quantities imported.				Quantities exported.				Quantities retained for Consumption.				Nett Revenue.			
	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
													£.	£.	£.	£.
Opium - - - - - - lbs.	69,579	126,848	69,216	85,681	13,562	83,001	31,634	74,126	33,256	35,477	29,467	21,181	6,052	7,088	5,709	6,240
Provisions, viz.—																
Bacon and hams - - - - - cwts.	3,239	3,725	3,727	3,854	1,810	1,693	2,180	2,995	1,408	1,935	1,497	1,423	1,975	2,243	2,056	1,992
Beef, salted - - - - - - —	3,592	4,732	4,155	4,084	642	4,182	3,046	1,736	518	979	1,217	1,322	316	864	731	733
Butter - - - - - - - —	130,926	136,966	133,872	146,784	1,894	2,721	2,304	2.7 9	128,235	135,264	130,170	143,149	125,294	125,981	130,979	143,160
Cheese - - - - - - - —	133,446	134,074	146,585	140,952	2,617	5,584	6,764	5,670	131,757	128,085	140,181	134,642	68,049	66,946	72,506	70,520
Eggs - - - - - - - No.	61,986,560	67,609,114	69,586,560	40,964,480	-	2,000	-	3,800	61,936,560	67,601,114	69,586,560	59,960,680	21,537	23,524	24,198	20,946
Fish, anchovies - - - - - lbs.	80,107	178,032	158,948	227,752	1,032	5,215	3,064	2,405	99,472	177,421	156,080	128,901	889	1,479	1,303	1,783
Eels - - - - - - ship loads	69	61	76	69	-	-	-	-	69	61	69	69	940	856	1,069	1,069
										Duty paid						
Oysters - - - - - - bushels	77,950	17,993	9,008	5,398	-	-	-	-	77,950	17,993	9,008	5,398	5,846	1,349	675	405
Of Newfoundland and British America - - cwts.	-	-	51,974	68,337	-	-	17,413	5,360	-	-	34,562	62,977				
Pork, salted - - - - - - —	-	-	3,736	3,507	-	-	3,731	3,491	-	-	9	29	-	-	6	17
Quicksilver - - - - - - lbs.	781,628	1,567,966	773,307	2,008,997	553,200	1,168,137	756,160	1,288,250	230,024	380,158	193,421	294,257	2,302	1,085	810	885
Rags and other materials for making paper - tons	6,671	8,549	10,985	8,903	113	-	110	350	6,782	8,660	10,042	10,295	1,714	2,301	2,313	2,082
Rhubarb - - - - - - lbs.	125,546	176,926	56,399	81,169	118,924	63,944	77,458	80,182	66,509	82,104	49,062	44,525	4,314	2,194	2,464	2,220
					Foreign Cleared.	Foreign Cleared.	Foreign Cleared.	Foreign Cleared.								
Rice, cleaned, from East Indies and British possessions in Africa and America - - cwts.	174,994	202,318	310,511	347,137	65,865	55,536	117,056	209,166	-	-	-	-				
					Cleaned in U. K.	Cleaned in U. K.	Cleaned in U. K.	Cleaned in U. K.								
From foreign countries in Europe, Africa, and America - - - - - -	11,102	16,508	6,720	2,351	16,385	9,459	4,143	25,175	111,651	Cleaned. 132,784	Cleaned. 106,316	98,297	28,750	-	-	22,327
In the husk, from the East Indies and British possessions in Africa and America - - bushels	19,925	12,891	20,287	42,272	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-				
						Rough or in the husk.				In the husk.	In the husk.					
From foreign countries in Europe, Africa, and America - - - - - —	224,394	188,159	226,419	230,949	727	2,827	1,205	1,123	179,677	153,668	256,406	177,980				
Sago - - - - - - - cwts.	2,414	7,678	25,764	19,255	2,515	1,741	2,832	483,517	4,770	6,948	15,827	11,257	917	847	697	586
Saltpetre and cubic nitre - - - - - —	257,657	365,746	280,695	364,339	30,169	30,737	66,276	73,279	191,467	169,235	216,983	264,560	5,133	4,184	5,966	5,439
Seeds, viz.—																
Carraway - - - - - - —	980	1,765	7,649	643	257	23	650	878	2,675	1,267	4,220	2,900	4,001	2,022	6,241	3,296
Clover - - - - - - - —	64,662	63,262	62,271	58,974	1,236	940	895	1,161	72,924	64,797	58,955	58,447	72,932	64,995	57,016	56,180
Flax and linseed - - - - - bushels	1,995,072	2,179,135	2,210,237	2,208,748	94,727	652	7,523	21,078	2,013,034	2,222,987	2,211,966	2,159,498	12,644	13,923	13,880	13,555
Onion - - - - - - - lbs.	53,756	31,581	65,852	25,543	57	7,715	1,100	5,090	26,356	28,506	40,190	25,687	2,719	2,169	3,014	1,903
Rape - - - - - - - bushels	582,145	623,130	591,986	754,834	- -	19,833	800	3,064	583,095	585,316	516,125	690,716	3,676	3,586	3,220	4,317
Tares - - - - - - - —	66,274	57,474	63,969	105,261	- -	1,699	- -	- -	74,058	60,264	63,909	81,605	4,697	2,865	4,682	4,966
Silk, viz.—																
Raw silk.																
From India - - - - - lbs.	1,514,707	970,434	1,798,459	901,215												
Cape of Good Hope - - - —	8,184	36,056	40,334	-												
China - - - - - - —	29,101	52,181	662,384	727,499												
Turkey - - - - - - —	455,278	360,020	418,427	673,898												
Italy - - - - - - —	216,702	213,500	93,430	245,303	68,542			115,590	3,262,819	4,417,027	- -	4,027,149	14,159	15,260	13,893	17,943
France - - - - - - —	749,417	902,819	639,634	915,265												
Other countries - - - - - —	116,318	272,099	81,262	294,542												
Total of raw silk - - - - —	3,201,721	2,785,109	3,653,512	3,737,480		68,187	207,007									
Waste and knubbs.																
From India - - - - - —	112	19,194	36,941	148,474												
China - - - - - - —	-	-	-	-												
Italy - - - - - - —	247,454	164,656	209,784	275,963												
France - - - - - - —	357,046	413,439	586,479	911,482	10			4,133	660,695	207,472	- -	1,279,697	295	292	450	616
Other countries - - - - —	50,727	52,173	69,756	96,040												
Total of waste and knubbs - - - —	654,000	649,451	1,012,951	1,431,964												

Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, imported, exported, retained, &c., *continued.*

Descriptions of Merchandise.	Quantities imported.				Quantities exported.				Quantities retained for Consumption.				Nett Revenue.			
	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
													£.	£.	£.	£.
Thrown silk, viz.—					F. Thrown.											
From Italy - - - - - - lbs.	2,546	2,788	1,473	1,189	39,461	- -	F. Thrown.	F. Thrown.	- -	- -	- -	- -			Excess of	Excess of
					B. Thrown.	F. Thrown.	6,750	20,998					12,097	17,323	drawback.	drawback.
France - - - - - - —	145,284	214,894	180,429	178,963	98	B. Thrown.	B. Thrown.	Foreign thrown.							14,957	20,686
Other countries - - - - —	29,336	11,456	10,217	36,472	- -	1,316	2,021	16,708	382,932	- -	- -	251,370				
Total of thrown silk - - - —	177,165	229,138	192,149	216,624												
Silk manufactured goods, viz.—																

Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, imported, exported, retained, &c., *continued*.

Description of Merchandise.		Quantities imported.				Quantities exported.				Quantities retained for Consumption.				Nett Revenue.			
		1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
														£.	£.	£.	£.
Thrown silk, viz.—						F. Thrown. 29,461	-	-	-	-	-	-	-				
From Italy	lbs.	2,546	2,788	1,473	1,189	B. Thrown. -	F. Thrown. 6,760	F. Thrown. 20,986	-	-	-	-	-			Excess of drawback.	Excess of drawback.
France	—	145,284	214,894	180,439	172,942	-	30	-	Foreign thrown.					12,097	17,823	14,357	20,696
Other countries	—	29,336	11,466	10,217	26,472	-	B. Thrown. 1,316	B. Thrown. 3,051	16,799	289,238	-	-	-	251,270			
Total of thrown silk	—	177,166	228,148	192,149	215,603	-											
Silk manufactured goods, viz.—																	
Manufactures of Europe.																	
Silk or satin, and silk or satin ribbons	—	76,447	66,446	89,088	89,055	6,290	11,975	11,695	12,562	70,148	-	-	-	29,140			
Gauze and gauze ribbons	—	63,230	66,776	75,480	85,109	608	1,816	1,197	2,190	46,936	-	-	-	32,808			
Tissue fabrics	—	-	-	-	35,775	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	25,630			
Crape	—	15,609	6,009	4,305	3,694	537	430	345	513	15,092	-	-	-	3,072			
Velvet and velvet ribbons	—	13,295	12,594	10,236	6,778	1,358	2,065	2,468	1,227	11,967	-	-	-	7,720			
Ribbons, embossed or figured with velvet	—	681	709	216	189	4	-	26	-	677	-	-	-	109			
Fancy silk net or tricot	—	183	1,625	2,133	2,146	-	4	2	-	107	-	-	-	2,155			
Silk mixed with metal	—	114	136	510	304	-	5	280	75	107	-	-	-	208			
Total entered by weight	—	-	157,291	182,313	175,455	-	16,120	16,114	17,578	-	-	-	-	100,840	148,700	169,952	180,787	169,572
Plain silk, lace, or net, called tulle	sq. yds.	39,967	45,923	51,366	10,704	240	300	345	600	39,727	-	-	-	10,104			
Millinery, viz.—																	
Turbans or caps	No.	314	441	465	508	6	15	65	178	308	-	-	-	267			
Hats or bonnets	—	855	726	799	686	8	112	178	257	846	-	-	-	429			
Dresses	—	323	478	217	171	117	188	148	107	207	-	-	-	106			
Entered at value	£.	32	16	-	46	-	4,063	6,207	-	32	-	-	-	46			
Manufactures of silk, or of silk and any other materials not particularly enumerated	£.	47,695	72,160	92,055	85,977	4,488	4,488	5,987	5,655	43,178	-	-	-	79,284			
Manufactures of India, viz.—																	
Bandannoes, romals, and silk handkerchiefs	pieces	254,168	295,160	378,696	388,413	105,164	175,214	170,238	280,910	92,288	-	-	-	102,287			
Silks and crapes in pieces	-	6,211	3,800	1,577	2,292	7,048	6,035	203	2,259	2,926	-	-	-	1,324	10,264	21,976	21,096	26,844
Crape shawls, scarfs, and handkerchiefs	No.	20,679	15,295	973	7,445	-	17,182	6,905	7,516	12,218	-	-	-	5,740			
Skins, viz.—																	
Calf and kid, unbound	cwts.	58,043	69,097	77,888	81,656	719	697	2,010	1,215	48,014	48,770	72,388	69,471	10,087	10,121	15,100	15,236
Tanned, tawed, curried, or dressed	lbs.	3,491	1,195	3,630	53,149	247	1,710	-	614	1,754	1,004	3,976	11,560	82	57	159	414
Deer, undressed	No.	104,128	154,010	226,718	226,697	74,873	142,523	194,198	194,854	14,764	42,447	55,088	36,617	124	274	324	454
Goat, undressed	—	548,023	382,418	604,982	507,570	66,798	51,515	53,142	159,133	548,240	386,383	476,097	384,452	2,914	2,779	1,013	997
Kid, in the hair	—	91,452	177,308	207,494	259,230	62,313	6,315	25,280	25,230	31,931	180,850	181,582	168,090	11	80	35	42
Kid, dressed	—	678,048	626,823	617,414	791,462	612	548	-	900	677,436	636,370	617,414	790,538	3,369	3,179	3,091	3,950
Lamb, undressed	—	1,911,178	2,468,169	2,254,070	2,297,275	15,995	60,966	70	2,892	1,901,161	2,418,468	2,784,543	2,297,045	248	412	480	598
Tanned, tawed, or dressed	—	82,479	20,940	28,697	97,385	-	-	2,050	2,050	22,479	20,840	19,497	84,804	112	104	98	416
Seal, undressed	—	230,373	429,905	259,955	230,683	9,179	3,977	7,536	28,192	262,238	436,875	349,053	316,394	756	336	184	330
Sheep, undressed	—	119,416	245,598	246,246	403,009	15,756	6,169	6,981	20,311	91,207	262,752	256,311	442,081	206	1,074	1,043	1,806
Sheep, tanned	—	69,764	-	65,189	141,899	28,749	-	23,365	69,273	25,514	-	41,685	62,604	5,744	-	6,981	6,981
Spelter	cwts.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spices, viz.—																	
Cassia lignea	lbs.	1,046,566	1,227,710	2,088,930	1,998,308	764,080	1,341,546	1,980,260	1,432,036	72,930	77,087	100,192	96,313	1,943	1,775	2,196	2,209
Cinnamon	—	36,762	102,492	221,232	445,367	624,277	447,856	232,493	419,138	15,271	11,073	11,696	16,604	435	387	310	432
Cloves	—	251,495	265,414	150,184	124,924	23,752	144,767	55,400	301,554	82,672	65,455	86,488	98,246	8,169	8,379	5,571	9,321
Ginger	cwts.	8,569	16,206	20,031	12,955	3,820	5,971	10,977	3,536	6,138	7,613	11,382	10,514	3,535	4,410	6,353	6,497
Mace	lbs.	72,536	20,300	27,772	21,641	60,763	10,564	6,677	17,210	15,238	15,014	17,184	18,673	2,762	2,813	2,606	2,393
Nutmegs	—	224,427	119,050	242,091	235,047	148,760	98,195	175,840	194,397	117,405	92,954	119,228	129,880	14,675	11,621	15,145	17,089
Pepper	—	4,8-8,847	3,729,452	7,675,340	3,343,277	3,677,378	3,997,027	6,301,247	1,246,488	1,225,491	2,286,283	2,457,030	2,258,573	111,230	111,174	122,453	117,256
Pimento	—	1,710,260	4,344,573	1,306,773	2,536,358	1,704,177	2,810,206	1,780,143	2,462,455	226,121	330,945	322,751	344,458	6,171	6,994	6,730	7,179
Spirits, &c.																	
Rum	lbs. proof gals.	4,753,782	5,146,877	5,152,489	5,540,179	2,229,285	1,284,206	1,682,282	1,672,274	2,513,985	3,452,188	3,345,177	3,415,305	1,580,360	1,670,797	1,705,140	1,587,804

Foreign and Colonial Merchandise, imported, exported, returned, &c., continued.

Description of Merchandise.	Quantities imported.				Quantities exported.				Quantities retained for Consumption.				Real Revenue.			
	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
													£.	£.	£.	£.
Spirits, &c.																
Brandy	2,671,889	2,683,515	3,178,227	3,106,795	231,666	252,206	1,177,253	1,177,253	1,491,888	1,808,889	1,294,949	1,294,949				(1,476,511
Geneva	270,560	430,040	377,141	377,141	252,626	261,771	280,789	280,789	21,301	21,634	19,646	19,646	1,558,888	1,559,880	1,706,880	92,197
Other sorts	34,328	79,666	49,485	67,641	62,764	45,169	85,779	85,779	9,664	8,951	14,149	14,149				10,927
							Mixed in bond 29,728									
Sugar, viz.—					Raw 2,000,000	Raw 2,000,000	Raw 2,000,000	Raw 2,000,000								
West India	3,726,376	3,955,943	3,944,943	3,955,943	Refined	Refined	Refined	Refined	3,894,324	3,941,944	3,741,979	3,955,943	4,304,393	4,414,944	4,599,943	4,827,940
East India and Mauritius	711,999	771,999	771,999	771,999	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000	1,000,000								
Foreign	270,274	327,661	327,661	327,661	455,000	455,000	455,000	455,000								
Refined	1,177,416	1,116,427	1,116,427	1,116,427	165,439	165,439	165,439	165,439								
Candy	14,000	14,000	14,000	14,000	14,000	14,000	14,000	14,000								
Tea	29,977,000	29,977,000	29,977,000	29,977,000	4,000,000	4,000,000	4,000,000	4,000,000								
Tobacco, viz.—																
Unmanufactured—																
Leaf, lbs.	11,116	11,116	13,397	13,154	31,719	31,719	45,000	45,000	11,785	11,785	13,394	13,394	13,569	13,569	13,569	13,569
Leaf and dust ends	11,964	11,964	67,103	617,731	1,000	1,000	500	500	10,154	10,154	67,103	617,731	1,000	1,000	500	500
Stalks, 6 and under 12 lb. in drawback	6,764	6,764	10,823	10,364	500	500	500	500	6,764	6,764	10,823	10,364	338	338	338	338
3 and under 12 lb. in drawback	4,116	4,116	4,116	5,511	500	500	500	500	3,616	3,616	4,116	5,011	181	181	181	181
Under 3 lb. in drawback	1,749	2,561	2,749	1,547	10	10	1	1	1,739	2,551	2,748	1,546	87	128	137	77
Cut, pulled	68,559	68,559	68,559	168,577	2,000	2,000	2,000	2,000	66,559	66,559	66,559	166,577	3,328	3,328	3,328	8,328
Snuff, viz.—	409,024	409,024	409,024	409,024	910	910	910	910	408,114	408,114	408,114	408,114	20,405	20,405	20,405	20,405
Dust, dusts and flour	41,764	41,764	41,764	41,764	24	24	24	24	41,740	41,740	41,740	41,740	2,087	2,087	2,087	2,087
Unmanufactured lbs.	31,403	31,403	31,403	31,403	24	24	24	24	31,379	31,379	31,379	31,379	1,569	1,569	1,569	1,569
	5,719	5,719	5,681	5,188	6	6	6	6	5,713	5,713	5,675	5,182	285	285	283	259
Tin																
Tobacco, viz.—																
Unmanufactured—																
Leaf, lbs.	19,888,619	22,092,779	26,527,381	25,823,611	6,754,579	8,091,562	12,300,564	13,019,697	13,134,040	13,901,217	14,226,817	12,803,914				
Stalks	350,764	346,018	360,238	394,861	165,031	210,914	273,360	9,000,534	185,733	135,104	86,878	3,794,380	9,287	6,755	4,343	189,719
Snuff	1,368	3,044	3,044	744	5,211	2,269	1,868	14,523	1,368	3,044	3,044	744	68	152	152	37
Tar and pitch (under 6s. per cwt. in value)	282,000	282,000	282,000	294,384	600	600	600	600	281,400	281,400	281,400	293,784	14,070	14,070	14,070	14,689
Tea, viz.—																
Bohea	5,775	5,775	5,775	7,600	5,336	5,336	1,885	1,204	439	439	3,890	6,396	5,775	5,775	5,775	7,600
Bloomed	4,545	1,000	1,000	654	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	3,545	1,000	1,000	654	5,545	1,000	1,000	654
Whalebone	18,760	25,825	25,825	7,337	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	17,760	24,825	24,825	6,337	1,776	2,482	2,482	633
Wool, sheep and lambs'	29,182,973	29,182,973	44,055,232	42,774,332	656,014	442,206	897,206	4,101,700	28,526,959	28,740,767	43,158,026	38,672,632				
Woollen cloths for exportation, viz.—																
Manufactured, entered at value																
Wines, viz.—																
Cape	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000								
Madeira	78,271	74,276	74,276	68,851	700	700	700	700	77,571	73,576	73,576	68,151				
Port	11,550	11,445	11,445	12,445	1	1	1	1	11,549	11,444	11,444	12,444				
Portugal	576,546	454,304	454,304	587,748	34,780	5,580	5,580	3,154	541,766	448,724	448,724	584,594				
Spanish	311,445	275,366	275,366	270,448	20,446	19,540	19,540	153,256	290,999	255,826	255,826	117,192				
Madeira	2,116,245	2,009,703	4,913,427	4,393,277	365,201	213,377	475,044	1,475,044	1,750,944	1,796,326	4,438,383	2,918,233				
All sorts	2,446,690	3,308,530	3,446,690	4,388,690	140,403	220,104	220,104	220,104	2,306,287	3,088,426	3,226,586	4,168,586				
Additional duty on wine in dealer's stocks	577,105	811,751	895,754	574,614	256,986	312,945	346,575	459,612	320,119	498,806	549,179	114,992				
	9,018,630	7,449,941	9,786,116	9,000,531	1,270,365	1,313,396	1,398,121	1,575,561	7,748,265	6,136,545	8,387,995	7,424,970				

* Including bullion, specie, and stuff, manufactured in the United Kingdom.

Account of the real or dec
United Kingdom, exporte
specifying the Countries
each: and showing, also
try, and to each Quarter
whole Exports to be 1,00

Countries.	1830.
	£.
Europe.	
Russia	1,489,53
Sweden	40,49
Norway	60,92
Denmark	116,81
Prussia	177,92
Germany	4,483,56
Holland	2,032,45
Belgium	
France	475,89
Portugal, Proper	1,198,69
Azores	30,62
Madeira	36,44
Spain and the Balearic Islands	627,09
Canary Islands	62,62
Gibraltar	232,76
Italy and the Italian Islands	3,251,37
Malta	189,13
Ionian Islands	86,06
Turkey and Continental Greece (exclusive of Morea)	1,129,61
Morea & Greek Islands	6,03
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	344,03
	16,954,67
Asia.	
Arabia	
East India Comp.'s Territories and Ceylon	6,986,53
China	
Sumatra and Java	168,10
Philippine Islands	71,93
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	344,67
New Zealand, and South Sea Islands	1,39
Ports of Siam	10,46
	4,455,99
Africa.	
Egypt (ports on the Mediterranean)	116,22
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	1,19
Western Coast of Africa	254,12
Cape of Good Hope	330,03
Cape de Verd Islands	1,71
St. Helena	26,91
Isle of Bourbon	10,04
Mauritius	161,09
	905,23
America.	
British North American Colonies	1,897,19
British West Indies	2,836,44
Hayti	821,79
Cuba, and other foreign West Indies	616,09
U. States of America	6,133,34
Mexico	975,44
Guatemala	
Columbia	816,75
Brazil	2,455,10
States of the Rio de la Plata	662,17
Chili	540,63
Peru	366,16
	16,956,31
Totals	39,271,59

Europe	15,954,76
Asia	4,455,99
Africa	905,23
America	16,956,31
Totals	39,271,59

N.B.—The reader will fi
ing a sequel to, the above,
countries to which articles
during the six years endin
with their average annual

Account of the real or declared Value of the various Articles of the Manufacture and Produce of the United Kingdom, exported to Foreign Countries during each of the Six Years ending with 1835; specifying the Countries to which they were exported and the Value of those annually shipped for each: and showing, also, the average Amount of Exports during the said Six Years to each Country, and to each Quarter of the Globe; and the average Proportion exported to each, supposing the whole Exports to be 1,000.

Countries.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	Average annual Amount of Exports, 1830—1835.	Average and Proportion exported to each Country, supposing whole Exports to be 1,000.
Europe.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Russia	1,429,536	1,191,561	1,567,250	1,551,002	1,382,309	1,758,772	1,468,072	97-127,767
Sweden	40,428	57,147	64,952	59,549	63,094	105,154	65,054	1-063,362
Norway	65,926	56,580	54,526	55,038	61,948	79,278	58,990	1-468,759
Denmark	118,818	92,294	93,366	99,951	94,596	107,979	101,171	2-563,926
Prussia	177,993	192,816	258,556	144,179	136,438	188,273	183,038	4-564,757
Germany	4,465,405	3,842,952	5,068,997	4,365,548	4,547,166	4,809,902	4,448,978	110-905,917
Holland	2,033,458	2,062,586	2,789,988	2,191,809	2,470,267	2,648,408	2,774,268	69-208,781
Belgium				886,439	760,059	918,487		
France	475,894	602,688	674,791	848,335	1,116,985	1,455,696	862,096	21-469,858
Portugal, Proper	1,108,695	975,991	840,792	907,091	1,800,128	1,854,328	1,124,166	28 007,010
Azores	28,628	41,638	77,940	54,430	63,275	49,717	51,788	1-291,101
Madeira	39,444	36,980	35,099	33,451	38,456	40,092	36,238	·903,859
Spain and the Balearic Islands	607,008	527,845	442,926	442,827	825,907	406,066	470,875	11-728,757
Canary Islands	42,020	33,292	21,055	30,507	30,698	24,308	30,468	·756,417
Gibraltar	332,760	367,235	461,470	385,460	460,719	502,580	422,378	10-523,992
Italy and the Italian Islands	2,251,276	2,490,376	2,961,778	2,316,280	2,232,777	2,426,171	2,368,123	67-942,349
Malta	188,135	154,519	96,994	135,436	342,666	136,925	155,961	3-890,451
Ionian Islands	56,068	50,883	55,725	86,916	94,490	107,604	67,465	1-663,591
Turkey and Continental Greece (exclusive of Morea)	1,129,618	966,654	915,819	1,018,604	1,207,941	1,231,669	1,065,901	27-000,228
Morea & Greek Islands	9,694	10,443	10,149	23,914	37,179	23,834	20,369	·508,007
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	344,036	324,694	317,496	336,934	360,666	351,812	339,063	9-456,808
	16,264,574	15,575,074	16,901,803	15,947,725	18,367,666	18,916,045	16,477,190	410-942,919
Asia.								
Arabia					250	6,049	1,050	·026,187
East India Company's Territories and Ceylon	3,885,530	3,277,412	3,514,779	3,495,301	3,578,569	3,192,696	3,442,881	86-016,981
China					542,952	1,074,708	318,493	7-970,716
Sumatra and Java	169,108	295,206	150,606	471,718	410,278	363,192	306,647	7 632,900
Philippine Islands	71,230	38,513	102,264	155,298	76,818	129,745	100,779	2-515,449
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	344,677	366,471	460,236	556,372	716,014	396,348	525,020	13-094,109
New Zealand and South Sea Islands	1,396	4,712	1,676	936		2,697	1,891	·047,162
Ports of Siam	10,467				19,748		5,036	·125,974
	4,455,398	4,105,444	4,235,485	4,711,619	4,844,318	5,456,116	4,601,996	114-759,778
Africa.								
Egypt (ports on the Mediterranean)	119,227	122,932	113,109	145,647	159,277	209,235	158,230	3-955,833
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	1,126	426	751	2,930	14,923	29,046	8,098	·201,717
Western Coast of Africa	252,125	234,788	290,061	325,810	326,193	292,540	287,530	7,171,055
Cape of Good Hope	330,036	257,245	296,405	346,197	304,295	286,561	300,581	7,718,788
Cape de Verd Islands	1,710	216		146	590	675	389	010,109
St. Helena	36,916	29,431	31,286	30,041	31,519	31,197	31,071	·799,858
Isle of Bourbon	10,042				7,091		2,855	·071,304
Mauritius	161,089	148,475	163,191	89,434	148,519	186,469	150,833	3-740,306
	905,220	803,362	880,753	907,016	992,190	1,146,047	944,287	23-849,967
America.								
British North American Colonies	1,997,198	2,080,227	2,075,725	2,052,540	1,971,099	2,158,158	2,060,658	49-347,474
British West Indies	2,836,448	2,291,949	2,499,608	2,597,588	2,690,084	3,197,540	2,720,403	67-450,040
Hayti	321,795	376,108	345,104	341,826	357,297	365,786	350,987	8-730,850
Cuba, and other foreign West Indies	616,068	699,591	695,770	677,626	915,006	797,048	736,756	17-127,121
U. States of America	6,152,045	5,033,983	5,468,372	7,579,649	6,844,980	10,566,455	7,607,980	189-742,808
Mexico	275,441	743,650	169,311	261,487	470,810	608,930	501,340	12-524,201
Guatemala				3,700	60,666	15,214	8,318	·204,804
Columbia	216,751	249,240	282,142	121,586	199,966	182,249	200,479	4-984,991
Brazil	2,452,103	1,836,571	2,144,803	2,575,940	2,460,979	2,600,767	2,350,417	58-435,870
States of the Rio de la Plata	693,172	559,970	650,198	515,962	681,564	686,925	606,974	15-120,670
Chili	540,036	651,617	608,195	516,517	396,731	608,176	703,375	17-539,993
Peru	385,169	496,006	375,610	367,584	296,265	441,904	393,588	9-068,464
	16,996,311	15,380,462	15,432,956	18,070,960	17,844,055	21,984,052	18,075,122	450 747,136
Totals	38,271,597	37,164,372	38,450,994	39,637,347	41,648,191	47,577,270	40,099,395	1000-000,000
Recapitulation.								
Europe	15,264,784	15,575,074	15,901,803	15,946,725	18,367,666	18,916,045	16,477,190	410-942,919
Asia	4,455,398	4,105,444	4,235,485	4,711,619	4,844,318	5,456,116	4,601,996	114-759,778
Africa	905,220	803,362	880,753	907,016	992,190	1,146,047	944,287	23-549,967
America	16,996,311	15,380,462	15,432,956	18,070,960	17,844,055	21,984,052	18,075,122	450-747,136
Totals	38,271,597	37,164,372	38,450,994	39,637,347	41,648,191	47,577,270	40,099,395	1000-000,000

N.B.—The reader will find in the *Supplement* [to this article, p. 32] a table deduced from, and forming a sequel to, the above, but which we could not get inserted in this place. It exhibits the different countries to which articles of the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom have been exported during the six years ending with 1835, arranged in the order of the magnitude of the exports to them, with their average annual amount, and the proportional value of the exports to each.

VI. Account of the Value of the various Articles of the Produce and Manufacture of the United Kingdom exported to Foreign Parts, according to the real or declared Value thereof, in the Years 1833, 1834, and 1835.

Articles.	1833.			1834.			1835.		
Great Britain.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Alum	2,759	1	2	1,515	2	8	1,358	19	7
Apparel, slops, and negro clothing	406,785	6	10	455,297	18	1	494,861	8	8
Arms and ammunition	321,952	10	9	312,980	15	9	407,489	2	0
Bacon and hams	31,039	10	2	25,578	0	6	27,578	4	7
Beef and pork, salted	96,390	6	9	99,162	6	6	104,781	13	4
Beer and ale	203,195	14	1	182,584	4	5	225,641	3	11
Books, printed	124,265	7	7	122,292	0	5	148,098	0	8
Brass and copper manufactures	883,241	8	9	961,606	2	11	1,023,949	4	8
Bread and biscuit	8,121	2	11	7,671	8	9	8,499	4	8
Butter and cheese	155,883	5	8	164,246	6	10	175,856	4	11
Cabinet and upholstery wares	43,417	19	1	47,510	12	9	51,003	5	10
Coals and culm	238,949	6	9	218,205	14	3	242,746	12	5
Cordage	96,919	11	0	90,419	0	2	79,541	8	8
Corn, grain, meal, and flour	32,260	12	6	25,479	11	10	25,108	14	10
Cotton manufactures	13,754,992	17	10	15,281,494	13	0	16,395,170	6	7
yarn	4,704,008	9	1	5,211,014	17	8	5,705,568	11	2
Cows and oxen	854	0	0	1,256	10	0	1,445	0	0
Earthenware of all sorts	496,188	18	5	492,724	8	9	599,989	16	2
Fish of all sorts	294,591	16	0	300,094	6	0	317,552	1	8
Glass of all sorts	437,541	7	10	490,488	14	5	606,927	9	1
Haberdashery and millinery	381,505	16	9	344,515	18	4	516,774	14	5
Hardwares and cutlery	1,464,374	0	8	1,484,891	0	8	1,831,766	5	10
Hats, beaver and felt	129,830	2	11	125,644	12	6	185,048	5	10
of all other sorts	19,565	2	4	21,155	3	5	27,437	3	6
Hops	27,899	6	6	18,926	6	6	15,816	4	4
Horses	74,801	18	0	92,414	12	0	99,464	10	0
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought	1,403,073	12	2	1,404,756	1	10	1,640,939	2	2
Lard	7,963	17	3	7,198	0	10	11,881	3	0
Lead and shot	130,445	13	0	142,490	13	2	195,096	4	3
Leather, wrought and unwrought	373,985	6	9	342,496	18	10	378,977	19	9
saddlery and harness	59,110	13	6	62,706	3	3	73,547	12	3
Linen manufactures	2,093,663	10	2	2,364,980	5	0	2,936,060	1	4
yarn	73,006	6	0	156,318	11	9	216,634	19	10
Machinery and mill-work	181,597	10	11	311,958	18	8	367,316	7	2
Mathematical and optical instruments	17,792	7	0	21,007	8	4	25,003	11	1
Mules	1,092	10	0	1,881	0	0	1,761	15	0
Musical instruments	41,086	10	3	48,813	19	6	60,810	6	2
Oil, train, of Greenland fishery	36,288	19	2	58,607	14	11	89,073	16	10
Painters' colours	136,617	13	7	152,989	15	5	169,881	5	1
Plate, plated ware, jewellery, and watches	179,219	13	6	191,854	3	0	231,900	13	6
Potatoes	9,443	15	6	6,455	17	6	5,955	16	2
Salt	130,580	0	2	149,242	7	6	142,411	14	8
Saltpetre, British refined	11,552	15	0	20,981	17	0	20,383	12	0
Seeds of all sorts	6,281	5	6	7,115	5	0	8,549	9	3
Silk manufactures	737,263	17	10	837,018	15	4	973,478	3	8
Soap and candles	243,634	8	9	245,998	17	0	248,803	10	6
Spirits	12,487	10	3	10,114	18	0	16,848	3	2
Stationery of all sorts	209,526	11	3	206,139	8	9	267,577	1	8
Sugar, refined	562,630	4	3	915,668	19	6	851,745	3	7
Tin, unwrought	26,985	15	10	33,277	1	2	36,299	11	5
and pewter wares and tin plates	232,155	17	4	336,998	0	3	391,068	5	11
Tobacco (manufactured) and snuff	15,775	9	10	13,887	19	0	13,663	11	0
Tongues	2,091	13	0	2,998	17	0	2,421	17	0
Umbrellas and parasols	43,041	2	4	43,791	16	2	45,461	11	4
Whalebone	16,170	12	3	21,437	4	0	12,958	15	0
Wool, sheep's	328,140	0	2	192,175	14	1	267,838	11	10
of other sorts	27,462	10	0	26,878	12	0	45,080	4	0
Woollen and worsted yarn	246,804	0	0	338,541	11	9	900,091	2	4
Woollen manufactures	6,285,649	2	11	5,754,017	6	5	6,536,735	8	7
All other articles	965,238	15	6	954,413	16	11	1,054,142	3	10
Total declared value of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom, exported from *Great Britain* to foreign parts	39,305,518	19	8	41,286,564	5	6	46,926,370	5	8
Ireland.									
Total declared value of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom, exported from *Ireland* to foreign parts	355,485	17	7	336,015	4	1	444,115	11	8
United Kingdom.									
Total	39,661,003	17	3	41,622,579	9	7	47,370,485	17	4*

* There is a slight discrepancy between the numbers in this and the previous table. They were derived from different parliamentary papers, and these do not always agree.

Causes of the Magnitude of British Commerce.—The immediate cause of the rapid increase and vast magnitude of the commerce of Great Britain is, doubtless, to be found in the extraordinary improvements, and consequent extension, of our manufactures since 1770. The cotton manufacture may be said to have grown up during the intervening period. It must also be borne in mind, that the effect of an improvement in the production of any article in considerable demand is not confined to that particular article, but extends itself to others. Those who produce it according to the old plan, are undersold unless they adop the same or similar improvements; and the improved article, by coming into competition with others for which it may be substituted, infuses new energy into their producers, and impels every one to put forth all his powers, that he may either preserve his old, or acquire new advantages. The cotton manufacture may be said to be the result of the stupendous inventions and discoveries of Hargraves, Arkwright, Crompton, and a few others; but we should greatly under-rate the importance of their inventions, if we supposed that their influence was limited to this single department. They imparted a powerful stimulus to every branch of industry. Their success, and that of Watt and Wedgwood, gave that confidence to genius so essential in all great undertakings. After machines had been invented for spinning and weaving cottons, whose fineness emulates the web of the gossamer, and steam-engines had been made "to engrave seals, and to lift a ship like a bauble in the air," every thing seemed

possible—*nil arduum virum est.* And the unceasing efforts of new aspirants to wealth and distinction, and the intimate connection of the various arts and sciences, have extended and perpetuated the impulse given by the invention of the spinning-frame and the steam-engine.

The immense accumulation of capital that has taken place since the close of the American war has been at once a cause and a consequence of our increased trade and manufactures. Those who reflect on the advantages which an increase of capital confers on its possessors can have no difficulty in perceiving now it operates to extend trade. It enables them to buy cheaper, because they buy larger quantities of goods, and pay ready money; and, on the other hand, it gives them a decided superiority in foreign markets where capital is scarce, and credit an object of primary importance with the native dealers. To the manufacturer, an increase of capital is of equal importance, by giving him the means of constructing his works in the best manner, and of carrying on the business on such a scale as to admit of the most proper distribution of whatever has to be done among different individuals. These effects have been strikingly evinced in the commercial history of Great Britain during the last half century; and thus it is, that capital, originally accumulated by means of trade, gives, in its turn, nourishment, vigour, and enlarged growth to it.

The improvement that has taken place in the mode of living during the last half century has been partly the effect, and partly the cause, of the improvement of manufactures, and the extension of commerce. Had we been contented with the same accommodations as our ancestors, exertion and ingenuity would long since have been at an end, and routine have usurped the place of invention. Happily, however, the desires of man vary with the circumstances under which he is placed, extending with every extension of the means of gratifying them, till, in highly civilised countries, they appear almost illimitable. This endless craving of the human mind, its inability to rest satisfied with previous acquisitions, combined with the constant increase of population, renders the demand for new inventions and discoveries as intense at one period as at another, and provides for the continued advancement of society. What is a luxury in one age, becomes a necessary in the next. The fact of Queen Elizabeth having worn a pair of silk stockings was reckoned deserving of notice by contemporary historians; while, at present, no individual, in the rank of a gentleman, can go to dinner without them. The lower classes are continually pressing upon the middle; and these, again, upon the higher; so that invention is racked, as well to vary the modes of enjoyment, as to increase the amount of wealth. That this competition should be, in all respects, advantageous, is not to be supposed. Emulation in show, though the most powerful incentive to industry, may be carried to excess; and has certainly been ruinous to many individuals, obliged sometimes, perhaps, by their situation, or seduced by example, to incur expenses beyond their means. But the abuse, even when most extended, as it probably is in England, is, after all, confined within comparatively narrow limits; while the beneficial influence resulting from the general diffusion of a taste for improved accommodations adds to the science, industry, wealth, and enjoyments of the whole community.

We are also inclined to think that the increase of taxation, during the late war, contributed to the improvement of manufactures, and the extension of trade. The gradually increasing pressure of the public burdens stimulated the industrious portion of the community to make corresponding efforts to preserve their place in society; and produced a spirit of invention and economy that we should have in vain attempted to excite by any less powerful means. Had taxation been very oppressive, it would not have had this effect; but it was not so high as to produce either dejection or despair, though it was, at the same time, sufficiently heavy to render a considerable increase of exertion and parsimony necessary, to prevent it from encroaching on the fortunes of individuals, or, at all events, from diminishing the rate at which they were previously accumulating. To the excitement afforded by the desire of rising in the world, the fear of falling superadded an additional and powerful stimulus; and the two together produced results that could not have been produced by the unassisted operation of either. We do not think that any evidence has been, or can be, produced to show, that the capital of the country would have been materially greater than it is, had the tranquillity of Europe been maintained uninterrupted from 1793 to the present moment.

We do not state these circumstances in order to extenuate the evils of war, or of oppressive taxation; but merely to show the real influence of taxation on industry, when gradually augmented and kept within reasonable bounds. Under such circumstances, it has the same influence on a nation that an increase of his family, or of his unavoidable expense, has on a private individual.

But after every fair allowance has been made for the influence of the causes above stated, and of others of a similar description, still it is abundantly certain that a liberal system of government, affording full scope for the expansion and cultivation of every mental and bodily power, and securing all the advantages of superior talent and address to their possessors, is the grand *sine quâ non* of commercial and manufacturing prosperity. Where oppression and tyranny prevail, the inhabitants, though surrounded by all the means of civilisation and wealth, are invariably poor and miserable. In respect of soil, climate, and situation, Spain has a decided advantage over Great Britain; and yet, what a miserable contrast does the former present, when compared with the latter! The despotism and intolerance of her

rulers, and the want of good order and tranquillity, have extinguished every germ of improvement in the Peninsula, and sunk the inhabitants to the level of the Turks and Moors. Had a similar political system been established in England, we should have been equally depressed. Our superiority in science, arts, and arms, though promoted by subsidiary means, is, at bottom, the result of *freedom* and *security*—freedom to engage in every employment, and to pursue our own interest in our own way, coupled with an intimate conviction, derived from the nature of our institutions, and their opposition to every thing like arbitrary power, that acquisitions, when made, may be securely enjoyed or disposed of. These form the grand sources of our wealth and power. There have only been two countries,—Holland and the United States,—which have, in these respects, been placed under nearly the same circumstances as England; and, notwithstanding they inhabit a morass, defended only by artificial mounds from being deluged by the ocean, the Dutch have long been, and still continue to be, the most prosperous and opulent people of the Continent; while the Americans, whose situation is more favourable, are advancing in the career of improvement with a rapidity hitherto unknown. In Great Britain we have been exempted, for a lengthened period, from foreign aggression and intestine commotion; the pernicious influence of the feudal system has long been at an end; the same equal burdens have been laid on all classes; we have enjoyed the advantage of liberal institutions, without any material alloy of popular licentiousness or violence; our intercourse with foreign nations, though subjected to many vexatious restraints, has been comparatively free; full scope has been given to the competition of the home producers; the highest offices have been open to deserving individuals; and, on the whole, the natural order of things has been less disturbed amongst us by artificial restraints than in most other countries. But without security, no degree of freedom would have been of material importance. Happily, however, every man has felt satisfied, not only of the temporary, but of the permanent tranquillity of the country, and of the stability of its institutions. The plans and combinations of capitalists have not been affected by misgivings as to what might take place in future. Monied fortunes have not been amassed in preference to others, because they might more easily be sent abroad in periods of confusion and disorder; but all individuals have unhesitatingly engaged, whenever an opportunity offered, in undertakings of which a remote posterity was alone to reap the benefit. No one can look at the immense sums expended upon the permanent improvement of the land, on docks, warehouses, canals, &c., or reflect for a moment on the settlements of property in the funds, and on the extent of our system of life insurance, without being deeply impressed with the vast importance of that confidence which the public have placed in the security of property, and the good faith of government. Had this confidence been imperfect, industry and invention would have been paralysed; and much of that capital which feeds and clothes the industrious classes would never have existed. The preservation of this security entire, both *in fact and in opinion*, is essential to the public welfare. If it be anywise impaired, the colossal fabric of our prosperity will crumble into dust; and the commerce of London, Liverpool, and Glasgow, like that of Tyre, Carthage, and Palmyra, will, at no very remote period, be famous only in history.—(From the *Treatise on Commerce*, contributed by the author of this work to the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge.)

I. Table exhibiting the different Countries to which Articles of the Produce or Manufacture of the United Kingdom have been exported during the Six Years ending with 1835, arranged in the Order of the Magnitude of the Exports to them; and specifying the average annual Amount of the Exports to each during the said Six Years, and the Portion of such Exports destined for each, supposing the whole Exports to be 1,000.

Countries.	Average annual Amount of Exports, 1830–1835.	Average anl. Proportion exp. to each Country, supposing whole Exports to be 1,000.	Countries.	Average annual Amount of Exports, 1830–1835.	Average anl. Proportion exp. to each Country, supposing whole Exports to be 1,000.
United States of America	£7,807,890	189·742,366	Cape of Good Hope	£309,531	7·719,768
Germany	4,446,872	110·905,917	Sumatra and Java	301,647	7·622,900
East India Comp.'s territories and Ceylon	3,342,281	83·359,981	Western Coast of Africa	287,830	7·171,058
Holland	2,774,988	69·208,781	Columbia	226,439	4·999,991
Belgium			Prussia	188,048	4 564,757
British West Indies	2,720,993	67·859,640	Malta	155,911	3 ·89,151
Italy and the Italian Islands	2,688,123	67·042,949	Egypt (ports on the Mediterranean)	133,320	3·323,833
Brazil	2,260,417	56·125,870	Mauritius	120,339	2·719,218
British North American Colonies	1,980,660	49·647,474	Denmark	101,471	2·523,226
Russia	1,489,072	37·137,767	Philippine Islands	100,779	2·513,449
Portugal, Proper	1,124,169	28·037,010	Ionian Islands	67,465	1·682,591
Turkey and Continental Greece (exclusive of Morea)	1,083,901	27·030,323	Sweden	65,058	1·622,580
France	962,096	21·499,858	Norway	58,860	1·468,728
Chili	703,275	17·539,325	Azores	51,769	1·291,103
Cuba, and other foreign West Indies	698,756	17·427,121	Madeira	36,233	·903,659
States of the Rio de la Plata	606,374	15·120,600	St. Helena	32,071	·799,558
Mexico	531,940	13·264,201	Canary Islands	30,409	·758,407
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	525,020	13·094,109	Morea and Greek Islands	20,349	·508,007
Spain and the Balearic Islands	470,275	11·728,757	Guatemala	8,118	·204,854
Gibraltar	428,379	10·683,982	Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	5,088	·201,717
Hayti	390,607	9·750,050	Ports of Siam	5,035	·125,574
Peru	360,598	7·036,464	Isle of Bourbon	2,855	·071,204
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	280,069	6·456,306	New Zealand, and South Sea Islands	1,891	·047,162
China	319,593	7·970,716	Arabia	1,050	·026,187
			Cape de Verd Islands	569	·013,193
			Totals	40,095,895	1000·000,000

II. Account of the Quantities of the Principal articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise imported into, exported from, and retained for Consumption in the United Kingdom, with the Nett Revenue accruing thereon, during the Years ending the 5th January, 1837, and 1838.

Description of Merchandise.		Quantities Imported.		Quantities exported.		Quantities retained for Consumption.		Nett Revenue.	
		1836.	1837.	1836.	1837.	1836.	1837.	1836.	1837.
Ashes, pearl and pot	sorts	142,955	147,229	19,197	18,910	120,170	128,098	£. 998 Gross rev.	£. 193 Gross rev.
Barilla and kelp	—	70,214	108,135	1,680	3,641	97,203	91,404	9,078	8,996
							Drawbks & repayments	8,532	4,019
								4,146	4,976
Bark for tanning or dyeing	—	778,119	788,736	3,546	8,008	784,819	781,119	25,553	26,456
Coffee, viz.—									
British plantation	lbs.	16,977,912	15,198,418	108,488	329,017	17,532,731	17,138,158		
East India and Mauritius	—	9,806,710	9,950,005	3,622,985	1,320,255	7,413,725	9,205,634	691,616	695,845
Foreign plantation	—	5,276,218	11,278,095	5,950,970	6,411,708	2,234	3,169		
Totals	—	34,054,837	36,412,514	10,681,759	8,060,975	24,947,690	26,346,961		
Cocoa	lbs.	2,782,624	2,868,000	832,567	985,676	1,130,168	1,416,813	11,165	13,928
Husks and shells	—	488,048	511,767	13,900	-	384,144	481,170		
Cotton wool from foreign countries, viz.—									
The United States of America	lbs.	292,615,668	320,651,715						
Brazil	—	27,501,279	20,340,145						
Turkey and Egypt	—	5,435,721	7,261,240						
Other foreign countries	—	6,784,418	4,626,669						
Cotton wool from British possessions, viz.—									
East Indies and Mauritius	lbs.	75,897,897	51,077,197						
British West Indies, the growth of	—	1,312,806	1,190,162						
British West Indies, imported from	—	491,551	396,546						
Other British possessions	—	5,35	23,634						
Total quantities	—	404,910,057	407,286,795	31,730,760	30,722,091	363,694,236	368,445,085	490,000	499,620
Indigo	lbs.	7,710,444	6,645,873	3,691,951	3,967,561	2,940,396	2,236,194	36,366	28,020
Lac dye	—	998,075	1,011,274	260,976	133,999	690,248	423,335	1,717	1,140
Logwood	tons	12,981	14,299	4,395	2,376	12,361	12,023	2,473	2,543
Madder	cwts.	109,906	94,941	264	232	105,445	78,820	10,719	8,037
Madder roots	—	8,331	109,236	8	2	94,101	100,503	2,114	2,586
Flax and tow, or codilla of flax and hemp	—	1,329,116	1,000,265	16,789	6,870	1,511,428	998,654	6,441	4,234
Currants	—	196,561	217,981	5,736	17,341	175,774	174,842	194,891	198,193
Lemons and oranges	chests	683,854	849,990	1,455	1,536	926,631	811,490	88,236	82,651
Raisins	cwts.	199,398	169,590	26,496	11,626	166,194	156,162	117,095	114,095
Hats of straw	No.	14,042	26,238	16,173	12,714	3,437	6,624	1,009	1,693
Platting of straw	lbs.	42,890	30,962	11,946	7,546	29,681	23,962	24,569	20,003
Hemp, undressed	cwts.	886,098	778,981	26,105	16,574	897,589	681,819	2,488	2,762
Hides, untanned, viz.—									
Buffalo, bull, ox, cow, or horse hides	—	268,061	288,888	87,795	46,549	280,214	290,739	45,789	46,488
Hides, tanned, viz.—									
Buffalo, bull, ox, cow, or horse hides	lbs.	70,410	87,679	22,305	19,203	66,010	63,884	724	614
Leather gloves	pairs	1,420,999	1,955,900	81,405	19,364	1,459,263	1,318,670	27,507	22,229
Molasses	cwts.	582,306	582,233	1,669	1,641	657,082	582,019	295,845	296,324
Oil—Olive	galls.	2,954,016	1,721,914	150,561	209,473	1,944,622	1,492,656	46,516	34,986
Palm	cwts.	277,017	283,287	34,979	16,738	234,357	211,919	14,878	12,230
Train, spermaceti, & blubber	tons	19,499	21,008	1,305	389	18,794	20,878	1,882	14,270
Saltpetre and cubic nitre	cwts.	779,844	949,288	38,444	36,959	823,134	940,329	6,985	8,289
Flax and linseed	bushels	3,359,215	3,021,089	1,371	6,379	3,179,097	3,381,643	19,905	21,118
Silk, raw	lbs.	4,453,081	4,146,481	113,800	845,971	4,289,254	3,520,105	18,079	15,454
Waste and Knubbs	—	1,008,289	963,281	97,645	21,266	1,824,968	897,456	772	369
Canis lignea	—	687,413	854,674	633,068	760,141	80,396	105,435	2,242	2,642
Pepper	—	7,754,852	5,291,266	4,151,569	4,765,900	2,794,491	2,628,775	98,134	93,231
Pimento	—	3,399,226	2,118,300	2,237,992	1,876,645	400,914	335,406	6,339	4,750
Sugar, viz.—				Ra w.					
West India	cwts.	3,600,817	3,906,228	278,099	448,382	3,488,999	3,954,810	4,184,185	4,760,465
East India and Mauritius	—	780,597	912,277	Refin ed.					
Foreign	—	827,647	995,078	248,544	227,307				
Tallow	—	1,186,564	1,314,549	18,709	52,376	1,314,085	1,289,514	207,780	218,977
Tea	lbs.	48,206,701	36,975,981	4,985,819	4,716,949	49,142,286	30,614,606	4,674,535	3,823,946
Timber, viz.—									
Battens and batten ends	gt hund.	17,947	15,983	80	139	15,677	14,451	152,586	139,606
Deal and deal ends	—	66,319	72,852	1,092	946	66,300	66,651	647,581	680,570
Masts, 6 and under 9 lns. in diameter	No.	9,414	9,474	245	199	9,947	9,783	2,780	2,885
Masts, 9 and under 12 inches in diameter	—	2,331	2,623	268	160	2,231	2,444	2,119	2,313
Masts, 12 and upwards	loads	2,649	4,275	35	19	3,900	4,077	3,443	4,371
Oak planks	—	19,048	1,868	-	6	2,971	3,199	11,490	8,919
Staves	gt hund.	93,695	95,721	2,124	1,638	90,811	84,454	57,334	51,693
Fir, 8 inches square and upwards	loads	682,980	679,260	480	948	672,985	681,039	545,074	452,859
Oak, ditto	—	85,964	81,516	15	9	86,013	85,948	81,219	81,304
Unenumerated ditto	—	36,432	46,481	72	80	36,314	45,698	10,965	13,773
Waimscot logs ditto	—	4,812	5,693	-	5	3,988	4,080	10,964	10,938
Tobacco, viz.—									
Unmanufactured	lbs.	30,332,907	27,144,107	12,319,405	17,341,587	22,150,785	22,321,499	3,297,103	3,417,639
Manufactured or cigars	—	161,968	682,186	482,681	308,869	158,192	144,395		
Snuff	—	13,580	4,159	3,496	5,472	606	851		
Wool, sheep and lambs	lbs.	54,280,977	48,979,708	613,707	2,631,352	60,266,415	42,515,899	199,434	118,169
Wine, viz.—									
Cape	Imp. galls.	580,975	618,106	10,876	8,766	541,511	600,727	74,435	82,914
French	—	583,541	782,140	99,912	105,681	392,089	488,594	94,504	126,286
Portugal	—	4,099,451	2,990,966	581,026	195,518	2,278,359	2,660,253		
Spanish	—	3,164,344	3,802,585	645,923	492,345	2,388,415	2,278,263	1,022,884	897,847
Madeira	—	283,979	220,400	152,338	148,107	133,673	111,376		
Other sorts	—	605,109	904,865	285,380	391,123	316,188	508,819		
All sorts	—	9,406,085	9,980,499	1,974,554	1,334,795	6,809,218	6,291,551	1,798,998	1,827,099

III. An account of the Official Value of the Imports into and Exports from the United Kingdom, from and to all Countries, for the Year ending 5th January, 1835, with the Declared or Real Values of the Exports for the Years ended 5th January, 1835, and 1836, distinguishing each Country, and British and Colonial and Foreign Produce.

Names of Countries.	Official Value of Imports into the United Kingdom, 1834.	Official Value of Exports from the United Kingdom, 1834.			Declared Value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported from the U. K. in 1834.	Declared Value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported from the U. K. in 1835.
		British and Irish Produce and Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Merchandise.	Total Exports.		
Europe.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Russia	4,125,844	1,697,228	776,966	2,474,197	1,998,200	1,752,276
Sweden	306,942	64,096	60,851	122,947	92,084	105,156
Norway	88,774	100,022	46,184	146,210	91,960	78,478
Denmark	231,316	194,435	49,944	244,382	94,395	107,979
Prussia	725,866	176,308	263,282	439,590	136,483	188,273
Germany	1,427,977	2,220,227	1,818,986	10,454,173	4,247,196	4,402,980
Holland	1,104,678	3,264,617	1,890,118	5,154,735	3,470,227	2,649,402
Belgium	304,230	1,187,105	1,208,227	2,395,332	760,050	815,497
France	3,809,286	1,230,927	546,164	1,817,091	1,116,885	1,453,636
Portugal, Proper	951,410	1,319,555	251,400	1,561,019	1,200,123	1,554,336
Azores	15,178	120,526	12,466	142,990	40,276	49,717
Madeira	23,231	68,993	30,316	99,378	34,455	40,082
Spain and the Balearic Islands	971,878	895,576	192,265	1,087,841	295,207	405,065
Canary Islands	78,784	58,076	17,989	76,064	30,686	34,305
Gibraltar	47,544	1,211,782	211,284	1,423,166	460,719	604,560
Italy and the Italian Islands	1,188,210	4,581,183	1,414,281	5,995,464	2,288,777	2,426,171
Malta	14,954	451,056	1,436	452,492	244,596	136,925
Ionian Islands	307,393	180,974	33,244	214,218	84,486	107,804
Turkey and Continental Greece, exclusive of the Morea	741,220	2,427,944	297,305	2,725,249	1,207,941	1,231,088
Morea and Greek Islands	45,567	69,977	24,295	94,272	27,179	28,834
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	251,906	412,168	184,780	546,948	260,491	351,612
Africa.						
Egypt (ports on the Mediterranean)	82,521	243,708	5,274	248,982	128,277	209,225
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	122,343	46,274	26,264	72,538	14,833	29,040
Western Coast of Africa	472,476	262,586	173,918	736,504	280,489	292,540
Cape of Good Hope	243,720	499,994	146,266	646,158	304,362	332,921
Eastern Coast of Africa	57					
Cape Verd Islands		530		530	550	675
St. Helena	2,184	28,535	26,550	51,914	21,615	21,197
Isle of Bourbon		11,754	1,350	13,047	7,261	
Mauritius	782,148	264,966	42,284	307,249	143,519	196,559
Madagascar	56					
Asia.						
Arabia		300		300	250	2,049
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	4,217,699	} 7,166,999	466,136	7,633,205	} 2,678,500	3,192,672
China	3,508,923				} 842,868	1,074,108
Sumatra and Java	141,399				410,273	353,892
Philippine Isles	56,952				76,818	129,743
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	247,499	260,948	227,206	1,077,454	716,014	696,945
New Zealand and South Sea Islands	1,966					2,697
Port of Siam		See India and China.			19,748	
Singapore	765,795					
America.						
British North American Colonies	1,167,829	2,261,278	290,878	2,552,181	1,671,069	2,159,168
British West Indies	5,410,114	4,494,062	525,977	5,018,847	2,980,053	3,187,540
Hayti	74,168	254,742	20,781	275,524	257,297	265,798
Cuba and other Foreign West Indies	995,127	2,199,011	24,600	2,223,611	913,005	767,043
United States of America	10,276,633	5,548,717	511,139	5,759,856	6,541,980	10,569,455
Mexico	261,417	380,868	182,036	562,904	456,610	402,820
Guatemala	13,739	24,078	27	24,105	30,095	1,214
Columbia	117,309	225,278	20,000	245,347	199,997	152,548
Brazil	1,207,805	5,675,116	177,225	5,852,340	2,466,679	3,630,767
States of the Rio de la Plata	680,130	1,825,518	85,360	1,910,878	851,564	858,925
Chili	142,755	1,295,187	48,280	1,344,347	296,231	606,176
Peru	123,086	495,990	61,458	557,348	399,236	441,224
Totals	49,051,416	78,895,090	11,502,986	86,397,075	41,649,016	47,372,270

IV. Account specifying the different Articles, and the Real or Declared Value of each, of the Produce and Manufacture of the United Kingdom, exported to Foreign Parts during each of the Three Years ending with 1837.

Species of Exports.	1835.	1836.	1837.
GREAT BRITAIN.	£	£	£
Alum	1,359	3,898	2,761
Apparel, Slops, and Negro Clothing	404,861	504,863	533,301
Arms and Ammunition	407,490	411,286	289,142
Bacon and Hams	37,573	42,319	35,840
Beef and Pork, salted	164,788	136,898	119,117
Beer and Ale	235,641	264,560	268,235
Books, printed	148,098	178,034	147,430
Brass and Copper Manufactures	1,093,949	1,079,009	1,166,088
Bread and Biscuit	5,465	6,184	9,991
Butter and Cheese	178,637	205,858	170,073
Cabinet and Upholstery Wares	51,003	75,511	67,357
Coals and Culm	242,746	299,760	428,690
Cordage	70,541	84,475	73,231
Corn, Grain, Meal, and Flour	25,109	31,207	34,781
Cotton Manufactures	16,393,170	18,482,586	13,632,146
—— Yarn	5,706,562	6,190,326	6,955,986
Cows and Oxen	1,445	3,073	6,107
Earthenware of all sorts	539,900	637,493	563,098

Table IV.—*continued.*

Species of Exports.	1836.	1836.	1837.
	£	£	£
Fish of all sorts	217,652	185,433	185,120
Glass of all sorts	636,928	551,599	475,905
Haberdashery and Millinery	516,775	661,980	414,867
Hardwares and Cutlery	1,831,766	2,270,630	1,460,404
Hats, Beaver and Felt	135,048	147,907	104,000
—— of all other sorts	37,437	41,753	46,290
Hops	16,616	11,786	10,547
Horses	99,465	98,302	75,215
Iron and Steel, wrought and unwrought	1,840,939	2,340,207	2,003,703
Lard	11,881	26,585	14,782
Lead and Shot	195,096	224,931	155,210
Leather, wrought and unwrought	278,978	316,322	250,306
—— Saddlery and Harness	73,348	93,388	87,037
Linen Manufactures	2,838,050	3,949,053	2,109,897
—— Yarn	216,635	315,608	415,726
Machinery and Mill-work	307,316	300,852	403,298
Mathematical and Optical Instruments	25,004	25,030	27,259
Mules	1,702	5,366	5,104
Musical Instruments	60,810	76,120	71,618
Oil, Train, of Greenland Fishery	39,074	5,836	5,700
Painters' Colours	169,861	210,811	151,307
Plate, Plate Ware, Jewellery, and Watches	231,900	238,869	257,796
Potatoes	5,954	4,915	7,030
Salt	142,412	171,463	190,444
Saltpetre, British refined	20,384	14,411	19,393
Seeds of all sorts	8,549	8,930	7,466
Silk Manufactures	973,479	916,777	503,653
Soap and Candles	248,803	276,223	230,835
Spirits	16,866	24,297	10,485
Stationery of all sorts	237,877	297,945	197,489
Sugar, refined	851,745	697,220	602,377
Tin, unwrought	32,220	61,847	74,657
—— and Pewter Wares and Tin Plates	381,068	387,528	271,518
Tobacco (manufactured) and Snuff	13,594	13,654	13,124
Tongues	2,432	3,569	2,744
Umbrellas and Parasols	45,462	62,336	32,464
Whalebone	12,960	10,550	6,347
Wool, Sheep's	387,834	323,549	185,350
—— of other sorts	45,080	39,967	10,076
Woollen and Worsted Yarn	309,091	358,690	337,140
Woollen Manufactures	6,836,735	7,636,117	4,654,397
All other Articles	1,034,142	1,293,932	1,113,069
Total real or declared Value of the Prod. and Manufac. of the U. K. exported from Great Britain to Foreign Parts £	46,926,370	53,015,431	41,911,998
Ireland, Total Exports from	445,900	353,141	363,040
Total from the United Kingdom £	47,372,270	53,368,572	42,274,938

V. Account of the Real or Declared Value of the various Articles of the Manufacture and Produce of the United Kingdom exported to Foreign Countries in 1828 and during each of the Eight Years ending with 1837; specifying their Value, the Countries to which exported, and the Value of those annually shipped for each.

Countries to which exported.	Exports.								
	1828.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Russia	1,318,898	1,489,538	1,191,565	1,587,250	1,531,003	1,868,300	1,762,775	1,742,433	2,046,592
Sweden	63,699	60,466	57,127	64,932	59,549	86,084	105,158	113,306	101,121
Norway	53,582	63,926	56,580	84,528	55,038	61,948	79,378	79,469	72,413
Denmark	111,880	118,813	92,294	93,396	99,951	94,595	107,979	91,302	103,448
Prussia	166,145	177,923	192,816	258,556	144,179	136,423	188,873	160,722	151,536
Germany	4,394,164	4,463,605	3,642,952	5,068,997	4,355,548	4,547,168	4,602,966	4,463,729	4,893,616
Holland	2,142,736	2,022,458	2,082,536	2,789,398	2,161,893	2,470,267	2,648,492	2,560,622	3,040,029
Belgium					886,429	760,059	818,457	539,276	904,972
France	486,638	475,884	602,688	674,791	848,333	1,116,885	1,453,636	1,591,381	1,643,204
Portugal, Proper	945,016	1,106,695	975,991	840,792	967,091	1,060,120	1,554,326	1,086,934	1,079,815
Azores	27,940	23,629	41,638	77,920	54,430	63,275	49,717	53,574	56,405
Madeira	36,802	38,444	38,960	29,038	33,411	36,455	40,092	52,168	46,044
Spain and the Balearic Islands	901,168	607,068	587,849	442,936	442,887	825,907	405,065	437,076	286,636
Canary Islands	36,152	42,620	33,282	21,053	30,507	30,686	24,308	40,870	41,204
Gibraltar	1,036,925	992,760	967,285	451,470	893,450	480,719	602,880	796,411	905,155
Italy and the Italian Islands	2,176,149	3,851,379	2,490,376	2,361,772	2,216,280	3,282,777	2,498,171	2,921,466	2,490,066
Malta	239,658	189,185	184,519	96,894	135,438	242,666	136,925	143,015	103,680
Ionian Islands	41,078	56,963	50,883	55,725	86,916	94,496	107,804	109,123	124,486
Turkey and Continental Greece, exclusive of the Morea	185,842	1,139,816	866,654	915,219	1,019,604	1,207,941	1,231,669	1,175,034	1,169,696
Morea and Greek Islands	838	9,694	10,446	10,149	25,914	37,179	23,854	12,009	15,451
Egypt (ports on the Mediterranean)	85,802	110,237	122,692	115,109	145,847	158,277	209,235	216,990	220,080
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	13,745	1,139	486	751	2,350	14,823	29,040	29,332	54,077
Western Coast of Africa	191,458	252,123	234,768	220,081	289,310	280,483	282,540	467,186	312,899
Cape of Good Hope	218,049	230,036	257,245	292,405	346,197	304,382	326,921	482,315	488,814
Cape Verd Islands	5,886	1,710	215		146	550	575	413	761
St. Helena	31,362	26,915	29,451	21,236	30,041	31,615	31,197	11,041	9,646

Table V.—*continued.*

Countries to which exported.	Exports.								
	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Isle of Bourbon	128,189	92,042				7,091			3,788
Mauritius	186,872	181,039	149,675	169,181	82,624	169,219	198,176	242,254	249,418
Arabia						250	6,042	14,546	797
East India Company's Territories and Ceylon	4,366,382	3,365,530	3,377,412	3,514,779	3,499,201	3,575,689	3,792,852	4,286,259	2,892,978
China						863,852	1,074,788	1,326,948	975,278
Sumatra and Java	158,200	168,102	280,986	160,609	471,712	410,273	348,492	284,662	315,791
Philippine Islands	300	71,220	58,513	102,254	185,295	76,818	128,743	51,775	32,508
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	448,290	314,677	393,471	468,229	555,372	716,014	696,545	893,571	893,565
New Zealand, and South Sea Islands	2,497	1,396	4,732	1,576	996		2,927		
Ports of Siam		19,467				19,742			
British N. Amer. Colonies	1,891,044	1,857,133	2,089,827	2,075,738	2,092,410	1,971,099	2,168,166	2,782,394	2,141,035
British West Indies	3,898,764	2,939,448	3,581,940	3,439,808	3,597,572	3,980,044	3,188,440	3,776,448	3,466,745
Hayti	346,338	321,790	378,103	548,104	381,523	367,207	385,799	351,663	171,060
Cuba and other Foreign West Indies	669,726	818,029	983,831	928,709	877,998	919,005	797,998	897,152	991,718
United States of America	5,810,315	6,122,346	9,053,283	5,468,272	7,579,499	6,344,949	10,568,445	12,425,605	4,695,235
Mexico	327,029	278,441	726,868	199,981	421,497	456,648	402,880	354,823	520,100
Guatemala	6,191				3,700	20,998	15,284	764	78
Colombia	992,113	216,751	949,250	998,568	121,838	799,946	152,945	120,772	170,451
Brazil	3,516,297	2,446,103	1,838,571	2,144,938	2,275,840	2,460,679	3,630,767	3,080,538	1,986,068
States of the Rio de la Plata	813,299	638,172	836,270	660,156	515,262	831,564	696,632	699,576	668,104
Chili	705,371	548,676	651,617	708,193	816,817	895,232	605,176	561,903	628,545
Peru	574,615	368,469	409,003	275,610	297,294	399,235	447,324	406,538	476,274
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	329,498	344,036	334,654	317,492	365,804	360,685	351,812	318,608	360,017
Totals	36,812,756	36,271,597	37,164,872	36,456,504	36,687,347	41,649,191	47,272,270	52,366,672	42,970,744

Remarks on the above Tables.—Foreign Competition.—It is seen from the last of the above tables, that the falling off in the exports in 1837 was almost entirely owing to the decline in the exports to the United States, which fell off from 12,425,605*l.* in 1836, to 4,695,235*l.* in 1837. But this extraordinary decline was wholly owing to accidental causes, or to the pecuniary difficulties in which the mercantile class in the United States were involved in the latter part of 1836 and 1837, through the previous abuse of credit, and the revulsion occasioned by the universal stoppage of the banks. It was clear, that how severe soever in the meantime, any check to commerce originating in such circumstances would be of a very evanescent description; and, in point of fact, its influence has already almost ceased to be felt, and our exports to the United States were last year almost as large as ever. We subjoin

An Account of the Real or Declared Value of the principal Articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported in 1837 and 1838.

Articles.	Declared Value.	
	1837.	1838.
	£	£
Coals and Culm	421,545	484,305
Cotton Manufactures	13,640,181	16,700,468
Yarn	6,955,948	7,430,582
Earthenware	583,237	670,965
Glass	477,767	576,544
Hardwares and Cutlery	1,460,609	1,567,478
Linen Manufactures	2,133,744	2,019,719
Yarn	479,307	655,899
Metals; viz. Iron and Steel	2,009,259	2,530,903
Copper and Brass	1,166,277	1,226,258
Lead	155,251	156,150
Tin, in Bars, &c.	74,737	109,230
Tin Plates	350,668	434,749
Salt	192,621	223,372
Silk Manufactures	509,673	778,031
Sugar, refined	453,984	550,566
Wool, Sheep's or Lambs'	185,356	432,067
Woollen Manufactures	4,660,019	5,792,156
Yarn	333,666	365,657
Total of the above Articles	36,226,466	43,338,839

It is obvious, from this and the previous tables, that the statements that have recently been put forth with so much misplaced confidence, as to the influence of foreign competition on our trade, and the consequent decay of our exports, if not wholly unfounded, are, at all events, very grossly exaggerated. Provided tranquillity be maintained at home, and that Britain continues to be exempted from that political agitation that is the bane of industry and the curse of every country in which it prevails, we have nothing to fear from foreign competition. Our natural and acquired advantages for the prosecution of manufactures and trade, are vastly superior to those of every other country; and though foreigners do excel us in a few departments, and may come to excel us in others, so that the character and

channels of our trade may, in
shadow of a foundation for
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population of the innumerable

Our restrictive regulations
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seem generally to entertain the
The truth is, that, in ordinary
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evidence has been, or can be
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Hence, were our manufactures
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the agriculturists have nothing
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upon, and is, in fact, measured
the latter continues to increase
and climates, we may be sure
market.—*Sup.*)

[The tables which follow (
commerce of the United States
copied from Mr. Hazard's *Com*
to Congress of the present Sec

It was intended to have add
merce of our principal *ports*;
racy has been found impracti
on the subject, afforded by th
ports separately.—*Am. Ed.*

A Statement exhibiting the Valu
Yea

Year ending 30th of September.	Free of duty.
	£
1834	66,393,180
1835	77,940,493
1836	92,036,481
1837	69,250,031
1838	60,860,005
1839	72,040,719

Year ending 30th of September.	Domestic Produce.
	£
1834	81,024,102
1835	101,189,082
1836	106,916,680
1837	95,561,414
1838	90,033,831
1839	100,951,004

channels of our trade may, in consequence, be partially changed, there is not so much as the shadow of a foundation for supposing that its amount will be at all affected. On the contrary, it is all but certain that it will continue to augment with the augmenting wealth and population of the innumerable nations with which we have commercial relations.

Our restrictive regulations are the only thing from which (supposing tranquillity to be preserved) it is at all reasonable to apprehend any serious injury; and though their influence has been much modified during the last few years, it were much to be wished that it were still further diminished. They not only tend to lessen exportation, by diminishing importation, but give a handle to all sorts of misrepresentation, and enable a clamour to be raised when there is really little or no foundation for one. This has been very strikingly evinced in the recent discussions as to the Corn Laws. All parties, manufacturers and agriculturists, seem generally to entertain the most erroneous notions as to the influence of these statutes. The truth is, that, in ordinary years, it is now, thanks to the spread of agricultural improvement, all but imperceptible. During the six years ending with 1837, the average price of wheat in Great Britain was 50*s.* 2*d.* a quarter; and we are bold to say, that not a tittle of evidence has been, or can be produced, to show that this price would have been reduced 5*s.* a quarter had the ports been all the while open to unconditional importation from abroad. Hence, were our manufactures really declining, or in a perilous state, which happily they are not, it is idle to suppose that this decline or danger could be obviated by the repeal of the Corn Laws. The influence of the latter is now nearly restricted to years when the home crops are deficient, and then, certainly, it is very injurious. Seeing, therefore, that the agriculturists have nothing to fear from the opening of the ports, sound policy would suggest that foreign corn should be admitted at all times for home consumption, under such a reasonable constant duty (5*s.* or 6*s.* on wheat and other grain in proportion) as may be required to countervail the burdens peculiarly affecting the land; and were this done, and the timber duties equalised, the sugar duties placed on a fair footing, and some of the more oppressive duties in our tariff, as those on brandy and hollands, adequately reduced, the foreign competition to which we might be exposed would be productive of nothing but advantage. Such competition is, in reality, the vivifying principle of industry, *curis acuens mortalia corda*. It gives a new stimulus to the inventive powers, at the same time that it supplies new products and new modes of enjoyment to reward the labour of the industrious. It must ever be borne in mind that the amount of the exports from a country always depends upon, and is, in fact, measured by the amount of its imports; and while the magnitude of the latter continues to increase, and we freely open our ports to the products of all countries and climates, we may be sure that our exports will equally increase, and be found in every market.—*Sup.*)

[The tables which follow (and which give a very interesting and satisfactory view of the commerce of the United States), with the exception of what is expressly stated to have been copied from Mr. Hazard's *Commercial and Statistical Register*, are derived from the reports to Congress of the present Secretary of the Treasury.

It was intended to have added to them a table exhibiting a comparative view of the commerce of our principal *ports*; but to prepare such a table with the desirable degree of accuracy has been found impracticable; and the reader must be left to gather the information on the subject, afforded by this work, by consulting the articles relating to each of those ports separately.—*Am. Ed.*

A Statement exhibiting the Value of Imports into and Exports from the United States, during the Years 1834, 1835, 1836, 1837, 1838, and 1839.

Year ending 30th of September.	Value of Imports.			
	Free of duty.	Paying duty ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.
	$	$	$	$
1834	66,393,180	35,608,208	22,519,944	126,521,332
1835	77,940,493	45,817,740	26,137,509	149,895,742
1836	92,056,481	59,343,388	38,580,166	189,980,035
1837	69,250,031	37,716,374	34,022,812	140,989,217
1838	60,860,005	27,090,460	25,766,919	113,717,404
1839	72,040,719	42,563,739	43,005,102	157,609,560

Year ending 30th of September.	Value of Exports.			Value of Imports.
	Domestic Produce.	Foreign Merchandise.	Total.	
	$	$	$	$
1834	81,024,162	23,312,811	104,336,973	126,521,332
1835	101,189,082	20,504,495	121,663,577	149,895,742
1836	106,916,680	21,746,360	128,663,040	189,980,035
1837	95,564,414	21,854,962	117,419,376	140,989,217
1838	90,033,821	12,452,795	108,486,616	113,717,404
1839	100,951,004	17,408,000	118,359,004	157,609,560

"The following table, compiled from Witworth's 'Trade of Great Britain,' Macpherson's 'Annals of Commerce,' and Anderson's 'History of Commerce,' exhibits an interesting view of the trade between the American Colonies and the mother country, from 1697 to 1776, which, in fact, formed almost the only commerce of this country, prior to the Revolution."—*Hazard's U. S. Com. and Stat. Reg.*, vol. i. p. 3.

Years.	New England.		New York.		Pennsylvania.		Virgin. & Maryland.		Carolina.		Georgia.	
	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1697	26,282	66,468	10,093	4,579	2,347	2,097	227,756	58,796	12,374	5,289		
1698	31,254	93,517	8,763	25,379	2,780	10,704	174,053	310,135	9,265	18,462		
1699	26,660	127,279	16,818	42,792	1,477	17,064	198,115	205,078	12,372	11,401		
1700	41,486	91,918	17,567	49,410	4,608	18,529	317,302	173,481	14,058	11,603		
1701	32,656	86,322	18,547	31,910	5,290	12,003	235,736	199,683	16,978	13,906		
1702	37,026	64,625	7,965	29,991	4,145	9,342	274,782	72,391	11,870	10,460		
1703	33,539	59,608	7,471	17,562	5,160	9,899	144,928	196,713	13,197	12,428		
1704	30,823	74,896	10,540	22,294	2,430	11,819	264,112	60,458	14,067	6,621		
1705	22,793	62,504	7,393	27,902	1,309	206	116,766	174,322	2,898	19,788		
1706	22,310	57,050	2,849	31,588	4,210	11,037	149,152	58,015	8,652	4,001		
1707	38,793	120,631	14,283	29,855	786	14,365	207,625	237,901	23,311	10,492		
1708	49,635	115,505	10,647	26,899	2,120	5,723	213,493	79,061	10,340	11,996		
1709	39,559	120,349	12,259	34,577	517	5,681	261,668	80,268	20,431	28,521		
1710	31,119	106,338	8,203	31,475	1,977	8,594	188,429	127,639	20,793	19,613		
1711	26,416	137,491	12,103	26,856	36	19,408	273,181	91,535	12,871	20,406		
1712	24,699	128,105	12,466	18,524	1,471	8,464	297,941	134,583	29,394	20,015		
1713	49,904	126,778	14,428	46,470	178	17,037	206,268	76,304	32,449	23,967		
1714	51,541	121,288	20,810	44,643	2,662	14,927	280,470	128,873	31,290	23,712		
1715	66,555	164,650	21,316	54,629	5,461	17,188	174,756	199,274	29,158	16,631		
1716	69,595	121,156	21,971	52,173	5,193	21,842	281,343	179,595	46,987	27,272		
1717	58,898	132,001	24,534	44,140	4,499	22,305	296,584	215,962	41,275	25,058		
1718	61,591	131,855	27,331	62,966	5,588	22,716	316,576	191,925	46,385	15,841		
1719	54,452	125,317	19,596	56,355	6,564	27,068	332,069	164,630	50,373	19,630		
1720	49,206	128,769	16,836	37,397	7,928	24,531	331,482	110,717	62,736	18,290		
1721	50,483	114,594	15,681	50,754	6,037	21,548	357,812	127,376	61,858	17,703		
1722	47,955	133,722	20,118	57,478	6,882	20,397	283,091	172,754	79,650	34,374		
1723	59,339	176,486	27,992	53,013	8,332	15,992	287,997	123,833	78,103	42,246		
1724	69,585	168,507	21,191	63,020	4,057	30,324	277,344	161,894	90,504	37,839		
1725	72,021	201,768	24,976	70,650	11,981	42,209	214,730	195,884	91,942	39,182		
1726	63,816	200,882	28,307	84,866	5,960	57,634	324,767	185,981	93,453	43,934		
1727	75,052	187,277	31,617	67,452	12,823	31,979	421,588	192,985	96,055	23,254		
1728	64,689	194,590	21,141	81,634	15,230	37,478	413,089	171,092	91,175	33,067		
1729	52,512	161,102	15,833	64,760	7,434	29,799	386,174	108,921	113,320	58,366		
1730	54,701	208,196	8,740	64,356	10,582	48,592	346,823	150,931	151,739	64,785		
1731	49,048	183,467	20,756	66,116	12,786	44,260	408,502	171,278	159,771	71,145		
1732	64,095	216,600	9,411	65,540	8,524	41,696	310,799	148,289	126,207	58,298		898
1733	61,968	184,570	11,626	65,417	14,776	40,565	403,196	186,177	177,845	70,466	203	1,695
1734	82,252	146,460	15,307	81,758	20,217	52,392	373,090	172,086	120,466	99,658	18	1,921
1735	72,899	189,125	14,155	80,405	21,919	48,804	394,995	220,381	145,348	117,837	3,019	12,112
1736	66,788	222,158	17,944	86,000	20,786	61,513	380,163	204,794	214,083	101,147		2,012
1737	63,347	223,923	16,833	125,833	15,196	56,690	492,246	211,301	187,758	58,986		5,701
1738	59,116	203,233	16,228	135,438	11,918	61,450	391,814	256,860	141,119	87,793	17	6,496
1739	46,604	220,378	18,459	106,070	8,134	54,452	444,654	217,200	236,192	94,445	223	3,324
1740	72,389	171,081	21,498	118,777	15,048	56,751	341,997	281,428	265,560	181,821	924	3,524
1741	60,052	198,147	21,142	140,430	17,158	91,010	577,109	248,582	236,830	234,270		2,552
1742	53,166	148,899	13,536	167,591	8,527	75,395	427,769	264,186	154,667	127,063	1,622	17,018
1743	63,185	173,461	15,067	134,487	9,596	79,340	557,821	328,195	235,136	111,499	2	2,291
1744	50,248	143,982	14,527	119,220	7,446	62,214	402,709	234,855	192,594	79,141		769
1745	38,918	140,463	14,083	54,957	10,130	54,380	399,423	196,799	91,847	66,815		929
1746	38,612	209,177	8,841	86,719	15,779	73,699	419,371	288,545	76,897	102,809		984
1747	41,771	210,610	14,998	137,984	3,832	82,404	492,619	200,088	107,500	95,529		24
1748	39,748	197,682	12,358	143,311	12,363	75,330	491,852	252,624	167,305	160,172		1,314
1749	39,999	238,286	23,413	265,773	14,944	238,637	434,618	323,600	120,499	164,085	51	5
1750	48,455	343,659	25,632	267,120	26,191	317,713	508,939	349,419	191,607	134,037	1,042	2,125
1751	63,287	305,974	49,363	248,941	22,870	190,917	460,085	247,027	245,491	136,314	355	2,065
1752	74,313	273,340	40,648	191,030	29,978	201,666	569,453	325,151	288,264	150,777	1,526	3,163
1753	83,395	345,523	40,553	277,864	38,527	245,644	632,575	356,776	164,634	213,009	3,057	14,126
1754	66,538	320,423	26,663	197,497	39,649	244,647	573,435	323,513	307,238	149,215	3,236	1,974
1755	59,533	341,796	28,055	151,071	52,336	144,456	489,666	285,157	295,525	189,887	4,437	2,930
1756	47,359	384,371	24,073	220,425	20,091	200,169	337,759	334,897	222,916	181,780	7,155	536
1757	27,556	363,404	19,168	253,311	14,190	166,436	418,881	426,687	130,889	213,049		2,571
1758	30,304	465,694	14,260	356,555	21,383	260,953	454,362	438,471	156,511	181,602		10,212
1759	25,985	527,067	21,684	630,785	22,404	498,161	357,228	459,007	206,374	215,255	6,074	15,178
1760	37,602	599,647	21,125	480,106	29,754	707,998	504,451	605,882	162,769	218,131	12,198	
1761	40,225	334,225	48,648	289,570	39,170	304,067	455,083	545,350	253,009	254,587	5,764	24,270
1762	41,733	247,385	58,882	288,046	38,091	206,199	415,709	418,599	181,695	194,170	6,522	23,761
1763	74,815	258,854	52,998	238,560	38,228	284,152	649,294	555,391	282,366	250,134	14,469	44,908
1764	88,157	459,765	53,617	515,416	36,258	436,191	559,508	515,192	341,727	305,808	31,325	18,338
1765	145,819	451,299	54,959	382,349	25,148	363,308	505,671	383,224	385,918	334,709	34,183	29,165
1766	141,733	409,642	67,020	330,829	26,881	327,314	461,693	372,548	293,587	296,732	53,074	67,268
1767	128,207	406,081	61,422	417,957	37,641	371,830	437,926	437,628	395,027	344,093	35,856	23,334
1768	148,375	419,797	87,115	482,930	59,404	432,107	406,048	475,984	508,108	389,866	42,402	56,562
1769	190,353	907,992	73,466	74,918	26,111	199,906	361,992	488,362	587,114	306,600	62,270	58,340
1770	148,011	394,451	69,882	475,991	28,109	131,881	435,094	717,782	278,907	146,273	55,532	56,193
1771	150,381	1,420,119	95,875	653,621	31,615	728,744	577,818	920,396	420,311	109,169	63,810	70,493
1772	120,265	824,830	62,707	349,970	29,133	507,909	528,404	793,910	425,923	449,610	66,083	92,406
1773	124,624	597,055	76,246	289,214	36,652	496,448	589,803	328,904	456,513	344,859	85,391	62,939
1774	119,248	562,476	80,008	437,977	69,611	625,652	612,030	528,738	432,302	378,116	67,617	57,518
1775	116,588	71,625	187,018	1,998	175,992	1,866	758,356	1,921	579,349	6,245	103,477	113,772
1776	702	55,050	2,318		1,421	305	73,220		13,668		19,569	

Imports into the United States from the 1st of October, 1789, to the 30th September, 1838.

Years.	Total value of Imports.*	Value retained in the Country for Consumption.†	Cotton manufactures.‡	Woollens.	Wines.	Spirits.	Teas.	Silks.	Molasses.	Iron & steel.	Cutlery.	Silks.	Coffee.§	Sugar.	Spices.	Lead.	Linen.	Hemp.	Specie and bullion.
1790	D.23,000,000	D.22,460,314	-	-	D. 836,131	D.959,975	D.382,408	D.185,067	D.1,682,931	-	-	-	D.560,718	D.1,676,085	-	D.77,461			
1791	29,300,000	28,687,346																	
1792	31,500,000	31,746,903																	
1793	31,000,000	29,961,434																	
1794	34,000,000	31,372,787																	
1795	69,756,325	61,302,705																	
1796	81,436,644	66,786,166																	
1797	75,379,400	68,379,400																	
1798	79,071,730	75,541,730																	
1799	78,665,052	77,665,052																	

Imports into the United States from the 1st of October, 1789, to the 30th September, 1838.

Years.	Total value of Imports.*	Value retained in the Country for Consumpt'n.†	Articles.																
			Cotton manufactures.‡	Woollens.	Wines.	Spirits.	Teas.	Salt.	Molasses.	Iron & steel.	Crockery.	Silks.	Coffee.‖	Sugar.	Spices.	Lead.	Linen.	Hemp.	Specie and bullion.
1790	*D.* 23,000,000	*D.* 22,460,844																	
1791	29,230,000	28,087,950	- -	- -	*D.* 836,121	*D.*859,975	*D.*262,509	*D.*185,047	*D.*1,458,921	- -	- -	- -	*D.*560,719	*D.*1,676,085	-	*D.*71,441			
1792	31,500,000	29,748,903																	
1793	31,100,000	28,990,428																	
1794	34,600,000	32,073,767																	
1795	69,756,263	61,268,786																	
1796	81,436,164	66,136,164																	
1797	75,379,406	69,379,406																	
1798	68,551,709	35,551,709																	
1799	79,069,148	33,546,148																	
1800	91,252,768	52,121,891																	
1801	111,363,511	64,720,799																	
1802	76 313, 933	40,558,362	-	- -	2,328,591	5,625,558	2,906,349	740,376	2,094,364	- -	- -	- -	8,927,208	7,704,298	- -	145,376			
1803	64,666,666	51,272,594	-	- -	2,204,702	5,508,026	2,985,977	815,985	2,109,357	- -	- -	- -	3,>51,718	5,684,362	- -	216,533			
1804	85,000,000	45,768,403	-	- -	3,843,022	7,342,487	1,911,195	725,716	1,803,513	- -	- -	- -	12,338,308	9,993,918	- -	319,094			
1805	120,600,000	67,420,981	-	- -	-	§6,170,333													
1806	129,410,000	80,125,764	-	- -	-	§7,197,560													
1807	138,500,000	78,856,442	-	- -	-	§5,808,315													
1808	56,990,000	43,992,588	-	- -	-	§4 130,812													
1809	59,400,000	39,802,469	-	- -	-	§3,364,294													
1810	85,400,000	61,008,705	-	- -	-	§4,604,361													
1811	53,400,000	37,377,210	-	- -	-	§5,455,245													
1812	77,030,000	61,534,873	-	- -	-	§6,023,304													
1813	22,005,000	19,157,155																	
1814	12,965,000	12,819,831																	
1815	113,041,274	106,437,924																	
1816	147,103,000	129,964,444																	
1817	99,250,000	73,991,931																	
1818	121,750,000	102,323,304																	
1819	87,125,000	67,959,317																	
1820	74,450,000	56,441,971																	
1821	62,585,724	41,285,236	*D.*7,788,514	*D.*7,238,854	1,973,484	1,904,788	1,329,636	699,021	1,719,227	*D.*3,212,261	*D.*638,032	*D.*4,486,924	4,489,370	3,553,592	*D.*310,281	284,701	*D.*2,884,159	*D.*510,589	*D.*8,084,980
1822	83,241,511	80,955,399	10,850,216	11,752,585	1,864,627	2,450,381	1,860,777	695,932	2,398,356	5,210,056	1,107,864	6,840,928	5,522,649	5,034,429	505,340	395,441	6,840,928	1,054,764	3,369,946
1823	77,579,387	50,035,645	8,469,482	7,853,451	1,291,542	1,791,419	2,361,245	740,966	2,634,222	5,083,351	1,095,126	6,718,444	7,098,119	3,258,689	580,966	155,175	3,603,807	674,454	5,097,898
1824	80,549,007	55,211,850	9,157 667	9,046,853	1,050,898	2,642,630	2,786,252	613,488	2,413,643	4,564,134	856,336	7,204,588	5,437,029	5,165,800	369,140	107,494	3,046,920	241,107	6,473,095
1825	96,340,075	63,749,632	12,509,516	10,576,873	1,986,289	3,135,210	2,728,905	698,125	2,547,715	5,930,517	1,011,826	10,259,743	5,250,393	4,282,530	626,039	301,408	3,645,125	431,787	6,150,765
1826	84,974,477	60,434,895	6,348,034	7,956,838	1,781,189	1,587,712	3,754,291	677,058	2,253,726	5,451,923	1,229,050	6,527,800	4,159,556	5,311,631	594,568	265,409	2,720,565	551,757	6,980,966
1827	79,484,066	56,094,832	9,316,153	8,231,515	1,821,035	1,651,436	1,714,882	685,201	2,818,948	6,002,206	1,091,757	6,712,015	4,464,391	4,577,361	322,730	303,615	2,980,880	635,854	8,151,130
1828	88,309,924	65,914,977	10,996,230	9,097,559	1,907,533	2,231,656	2,451,197	443,469	2,788,471	7,396,033	1,495,652	7,686,640	5,192,338	3,546,736	432,504	298,544	2,471,352	1,075,243	7,489,741
1829	74,492,527	57,834,049	8,362,017	6,568,235	1,564,562	1,447,914	2,080,457	714,618	1,484,104	5,752,925	1,229,817	7,192,898	4,588,565	3,622,406	461,539	62,146	2,480,181	676,935	7,403,602
1830	70,876,920	56,489,441	7,962,326	6,598,634	1,535,102	958,980	2,429,018	671,979	995,746	5,930,070	1,168,477	5,932,245	4,227,021	4,036,348	457,723	20,265	2,485,053	200,336	8,155,964
1831	103,191,124	83,157,569	16,080,224	12,668,029	1,873,056	1,637,737	1,418,037	535,136	2,492,486	7,192,979	1,516,435	11,117,946	6,317,686	4,910,877	579,085	58,410	3,145,797	295,706	7,305,945
1832	101,029,266	76,996,793	10,398,653	9,762,362	2,397,479	1,365,019	2,788,353	634,910	2,524,281	8,804,832	1,867,542	9,248,907	9,099,464	2,983 689	366,013	124,631	3,391,508	866,865	5,907,504
1833	108,118,311	85,295,576	13,262,509	7,650,449	2,801,455	1,537,226	5,484,603	906,419	2,967,986	7,742,783	1,689,336	9,498,366	10,567,298	4,755,856	919,493	89,019	2,932,085	470,973	7,070,365
1834	126,521,332	103,208,521	10,145,281	7,379,329	2,944,398	1,319 245	6,217,949	886,315	2,969,030	8,534,456	1,372,900	10,998,964	8,782,617	5,538,097	498,562	183,762	301,502	514,743	17,911,633
1835	149,895,742	129 391,247	15,367,585	10,023,580	3,750,698	1,832,681	4,522,806	985,087	3,074,178	8,966,899	1,697,692	16,677,547	10,715,468	6,806,425	712,895	84,112	5,932,568	683,981	13,131,447
1836	189,980 085	168,213,675	17,876 187	12,758,480	4,338,034	1,917,381	5,942,911	724,527	4,077,318	12,892,648	2,709,187	22,980,219	9,853,058	12,514,718	1,086,089	87,621	6,471,213	815,568	13,400,881
1837	140,989,277	119,134,255	11,150,941	4,243,648	4,105,741	1,470,862	5,902,054	662,617	3,444,701	11,119,548	1,923,401	14,352,823	8,657,760	7,203,206	847,607	17,874	4,851,857	483,792	10,508,414
1838	113,717,404	101,364,804	6,589,330	6,98[illegible]230	2,318,282	1,476,919	3,497,156	1,028,418	3,865,285	7,418,504	1,233,536	9,812,338	7,640,217	7,586,825	439,256	10,494	3,563,340	512,506	17,747,116

* For the early years, the aggregate of the value of imports does not appear on the official statement, and has been estimated at different amounts by different persons; and thus that column and the column as to the value of foreign merchandise consumed, will not always correspond with former reports. But the difference will not be found so great as to affect material y any general result.

† A greater portion of impor's were exported before 1812, or during the long wars in Europe, as may be seen in the next table.

‡ The practice of making regular reports of the value and quantity of each article imported, did not commence till 1821. Previous to last, therefore, only detached returns can be obtained for a few articles and a few years.

§ The value has been estimated agreeably to the prices current returned by collectors of the customs in their quarterly abstracts of exports for each year.

‖ The exports of coffee in 1802 equalled *D.*4,015,939; in 1803 *D.*3,594,6[illegible] and in 1804, *D.*12,185,946. The exports of sugar and teas were near half the imports, though below that proportion.

Imports into the United States from the 1st of October, 1789, to the 30th September, 1838.—continued.

Years.	FROM Great Britain and dependencies.	France and dependencies.	Spain and dependencies.	Netherlands and dependencies.	Sweden and dependencies.	Denmark and dependencies.	Portugal and dependencies.	China.	Hanse Towns.	Russia.	West Indies generally.	Texas.	Mexico.	Colombia.	Central America.	Brazil.	Argentine Republic.	Chili.
	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.
1789																		
1790																		
1791																		
1792																		
1793																		
1794																		
1795	39,972,215	20,399,977	2,949,445	3,669,615	671,496	2,614,449	2,223,777	1,114,108	1,668,438	1,189,715	95,198							
1796	41,127,268	19,042,114	3,663,268	4,387,304	751,325	2,283,787	2,129,328	2,458,410	2,176,486	1,268,978	15,059							
1797	32,810,643	23,072,987	6,062,011	6,613,249	880,978	2,758,116	2,129,205	2,218,954	2,255,977	1,415,414	52,998							
1798	28,753,261	17,886,102	6,447,480	6,534,109	813,245	1,543,406	1,481,246	2,304,304	2,230,763	1,087,152	16,978							
1799	37,211,919	9,166,185	14,476,829	6,038,036	882,498	2,941,980	1,314,864	3,219,282	6,928,511	2,274,913	101,397							
1800	42,577,580	9,644,323	16,071,918	7,132,627	474,656	1,976,560	1,395,736	4,613,453	4,909,873	1,824,985	81,077							
1801	52,253,382	14,808,945	19,249,514	8,949,479	845,086	2,436,360	1,418,434	4,542,560	4,868,757	1,892,089	4,711							
1802																		
1803																		
1804																		
1805																		
1806																		
1807																		
1808																		
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1814																		
1815																		
1816																		
1817																		
1818																		
1819																		
1820																		
1821	20,977,398	6,999,681	9,653,738	2,934,322	1,369,999	1,999,720	748,423	3,111,881	990,165	1,892,189	3,727					695,196		
1822	26,527,325	7,068,542	12,376,841	3,709,102	1,544,907	2,585,408	881,290	5,542,566	1,878,757	3,307,323	1,589					1,486,587		
1823	34,072,578	6,805,343	14,253,589	2,125,567	1,508,050	1,384,532	533,635	6,511,425	1,961,026	2,258,777	7,123					1,214,810		
1824	32,732,340	8,120,783	16,577,156	2,355,525	1,101,750	2,110,695	601,722	5,618,502	2,527,630	2,209,668	166					2,074,119		
1825	42,264,813	11,835,561	9,468,237	2,985,378	1,417,598	1,589,592	733,463	7,533,115	2,739,528	2,057,110	9,879		4,844,647	1,857,050	68,788	3,150,707	748,771	529,509
1826	31,212,866	9,589,898	9,823,430	2,174,181	1,258,152	2,117,164	765,303	7,422,186	2,816,545	2,617,168	130		3,916,186	2,078,794	291,270	3,156,678	625,789	629,949
1827	33,[illegible]974	9,445,582	9,110,880	1,729,070	1,226,042	2,240,171	650,001	5,617,183	1,838,566	2,086,077	187		5,231,867	1,550,248	251,342	2,050,971	80,085	184,669
1828	[illegible]271,651	10,297,705	8,167,546	1,990,431	1,046,788	2,374,080	483,565	5,338,108	2,644,392	2,788,342	1,080		4,814,258	1,481,856	204,770	3,097,752	317,466	781,863
1829	23,[illegible]248	9,616,970	6,801,374	1,617,324	1,303,950	2,086,177	687,989	4,690,947	2,274,275	2,218,995	3,314		5,028,761	1,255,510	211,991	2,535,467	212,114	416,118
1830	26,804,3[illegible]	8,240,865	8,373,651	1,356,765	1,306,640	1,671,218	471,643	5,878,141	1,673,278	1,621,399	7,396		5,235,941	1,130,096	262,263	2,491,460	1,431,863	182,565
1831	47,556,717	14,737,946	11,701,201	1,553,091	1,130,720	1,652,216	887,560	8,083,325	3,491,307	1,605,328	10,691		5,166,745	1,207,154	196,594	2,275,829	985,103	413,756
1832	42,465,524	12,774,615	10,965,220	2,356,474	1,156,804	1,182,708	456,264	6,344,907	2,965,096	3,251,852	12,740		4,293,504	1,439,188	286,318	3,880,845	1,560,171	504,623
1833	48,086,865	13,962,913	13,431,207	2,347,343	1,300,869	1,166,872	555,187	7,541,570	2,227,726	2,772,550	- -		5,452,818	1,524,622	267,746	5,0[illegible]9,653	1,377,117	334,130
1834	52,679,2[illegible]	17,557,345	13,527,464	2,127,906	1,126,541	1,694,308	699,122	7,882,387	3,255,486	2,985,940	- -		8,080,068	1,727,188	170,988	4,129,969	1,430,118	787,409
1835	65,542,2[illegible]	23,382,564	15,817,140	2,903,718	1,316,508	1,403,902	1,125,713	8,997,187	3,641,943	2,386,245	- -		9,497,446	1,862,764	215,450	5,674,495	678,618	917,085
1836	80,022,915	27,038,235	19,345,889	3,681,514	1,295,918	1,974,340	672,670	7,324,816	4,994,320	2,775,554	4,480		5,815,819	1,896,650	195,304	7,310,190	1,013,503	811,497
1837	64,249,537	22,497,817	18,327,371	3,570,628	1,459,276	1,266,906	925,791	8,965,337	5,642,221	2,816,116	2,183	108,994	5,654,002	1,567,345	163,403	4,991,883	988,442	1,180,156
1838	49,851,121	18,087,149	15,371,394	2,196,295	800,790	1,844,985	725,058	4,764,356	2,547,356	1,888,326	217	163,718	3,300,709	1,615,949	155,614	3,191,238	1,010,908	982,095

Imports into the United States from the 1st of October, 1789, to the 30th September, 1838.—continued.

Years.	INTO Maine.*	New Hampshire.	Vermont.	Massachusetts.	Rhode Island.	Connecticut.	New York.	New Jersey.	Pennsylvania.	Delaware.	Maryland.	District of Columbia.	Virginia.	North Carolina.	South Carolina.	Georgia.	Louisiana.	Missis-sippi.	Alabama.	Ohio.	Michigan.	Tennessee.	Kentucky.	Missouri.	Florida.
	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.		D.
1789	- -	103,900	- -	5,951,500	238,750	169,000	10,738,250	2,500	11,950,000	64,500	6,913,500	- -	6,461,750	966,600	4,516,250	689,000									
1790																									
1791																									
1792																									
1793																									
1794																									
1795																									
1796																									

Imports into the United States from the 1st of October, 1789, to the 30th September, 1820.—CONTINUED.

Years.	Maine.*	New Hampshire.	Vermont.	Massachusetts.	Rhode Island.	Connecticut.	New York.	New Jersey.	Pennsylvania.	Delaware.	Maryland.	District of Columbia.	Virginia.	North Carolina.	South Carolina.	Georgia.	Louisiana.	Missis. Territ.	Alabama.	Ohio.	Michigan.	Tennessee.	Kentucky.	Missouri.	Florida.
	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.
1789	-	165,500	-	5,362,000	253,256	180,000	10,739,950	9,200	11,000,000	64,000	6,845,500	-	6,461,700	955,000	4,616,629	800,000									
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1820	961,324	278,627	154,977	14,396,760	1,011,147	942,755	46,310,400	217,286	24,158,000	964,507	4,979,845	388,954	1,976,487	930,670	5,007,113	1,006,694	5,779,717			12	59,976				15,270
1821	962,100	271,772	153,847	15,017,161	1,418,544	957,454	49,537,000	217,286	24,158,000	964,507	4,979,845	388,954	1,976,487	930,670	5,007,113	1,006,694	5,779,717			190	18,577				4,977
1822	788,441	265,518	181,854	15,778,758	1,249,336	891,540	43,698,174	57,888	15,961,681	114,000	4,561,402	379,849	639,797	495,836	2,165,195	551,998	4,852,139		91,804	161	1,945				6,986
1823	1,188,948	251,944	193,041	15,826,141	907,936	704,478	43,698,174	57,888	15,041,797	19,683	4,751,815	277,897	658,592	511,300	1,982,597	343,356	4,890,054		115,411		5,695				5,316
1824	1,266,236	248,489	233,601	17,088,682	1,705,854	726,134	35,115,600	49,004	13,251,779	10,009	4,285,549	289,600	855,436	367,545	1,534,483	330,963	4,107,241		179,554		10,658				16,560
1825	1,393,397	268,549	177,079	15,770,641	1,541,228	851,174	35,115,600	49,004	12,312,365	5,995	5,405,780	321,600	431,785	376,731	1,454,106	313,600	4,511,561		201,909		3,774				857,894
1826	1,214,791	278,949	202,382	12,520,744	418,311	808,536	34,765,977	786,277	10,100,168	24,179	4,904,135	305,981	286,532	283,547	1,236,616	360,955	5,657,200	200	253,720		2,957				153,648
1827	972,698	139,926	140,668	10,453,544	493,756	288,563	35,624,070	15,444	8,702,128	385,574	4,825,986	160,560	405,739	321,992	1,054,619	288,346	7,569,063	160	144,823	160	217,315				32,649
1828	941,627	148,905	164,705	14,388,646	462,161	453,085	37,077,447	-	12,784,858	31,416	4,826,577	162,555	495,852	386,390	1,205,983	289,490	6,706,685	-	224,405	617	57,299	-	-	-	115,710
1829	1,011,034	142,617	181,778	15,267,095	1,041,298	552,015	38,316,648	70,600	10,079,369	31,053	5,497,253	130,047	603,939	715,104	1,317,705	316,911	8,297,506	-	197,778	1,253	83,646	-	-	5,681	165,296
1830	1,070,276	142,754	232,972	15,940,911	1,042,298	552,015	38,316,648	-	10,479,368	185,043	5,647,494	166,254	677,885	852,473	1,767,899	646,852	13,791,499	-	285,361	15,197	100,397	-	-	-	151,788
1831	1,063,171	115,085	232,406	17,872,189	677,084	395,720	73,188,544	4,466	10,479,368	185,043	5,647,494	166,254	681,265	841,981	1,591,935	380,040	17,519,914	-	555,855	5,818	120,688	13,796	-	-	98,173
1832	1,191,116	71,514	217,853	19,800,573	847,713	499,502	84,191,305	15,502	12,249,257	10,611	5,647,153	111,195	1,105,814	897,116	2,501,361	573,332	15,117,849	4,850	671,618	10,890	572,397	36,015	-	4,227	181,743
1833	958,969	98,554	248,846	25,961,448	555,199	486,468	119,235,446	24,253	15,098,226	207,003	7,131,567	111,419	915,023	971,823	2,510,991	774,343	14,030,932	-	619,365	17,747	494,734	37,451	17,572	-	265,514
1834	981,724	81,365	264,417	23,577,965	688,813	545,381	94,466,398	1,198	9,960,371	71,348	5,707,982	182,745	971,147	799,668	2,313,971	770,095	9,488,385	-	594,548	12,385	564,661	5,47	9,853	15,981	368,584

* The value of articles paying ad valorem rates of duty, in 1791 amounted to about two-thirds of the imports, and consisted of cottons, woollens, linens, silks, hemp, iron, crockeryware, &c. The value of the specific articles has been estimated by adding one-third to the ad valorem. They consisted of spirits, molasses, coffee, sugar, tea, salt, iron, &c. The ad valorem articles imported into each State are taken from actual returns; the others are apportioned among the States, by estimate, in a like ratio.

Exports of the United States, commencing on the 1st of October, 1789, and ending on the 30th of September, 1838.

Years.	Value of exports from the United States.			Value of the principal articles.												
	Total.	Domestic.	Foreign.	Cotton.*	Tobacco.†	Manufactures.	Specie and bullion.	Flour.	Lumber.	Rice.	Pork, hogs, &c.	Fish.	Beef, cattle, &c.	Butter and cheese.	Skins and furs.
	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.
1790	20,205,156	19,666,000	539,156	32,316	4,348,597	- -	- -	4,501,293	1,363,534	1,753,796	242,308	941,696	400,293	57,417	98,324
1791	19,012,041	18,500,000	512,041	52,007	3,481,946	- -	- -	3,406,245	960,060	1,136,590	381,910	1 130,364	494,105	103,148	1,146
1792	20,753,084	19,000,000	1,753,084	51,470	- -	- -	- -	4,168,543							
1793	26,109,572	24,000,000	2,109,572	180,000	- -	- -	- -	6,845,164							
1794	33,026,233	26,500,000	6,526,233	500,000	- -	- -	- -	5,845,929							
1795	47,989 472	39,500,000	8,489,472	2,250,000	- -	- -	- -	7,746,974							
1796	67,064,097	40,764,097	26,300,000	2,200,000	- -	- -	- -	9,115,289							
1797	56,850,306	29,950,086	27,000,000	1,250,000	- -	- -	- -	4,800,543							
1798	61,527,097	28,527,097	33,000,000	3,500,000	- -	- -	- -	4,614,247							
1799	78,665,522	33,142,522	45,523,000	4,100,000	- -	- -	- -	4,997,926							
1800	70,971,760	31,540,903	39,130,977	5,000,000	- -	- -	- -	6,547,459							
1801	94,115,925	47,473,204	46,642,721	9,100,000	- -	- -	- -	11,300,051							
1802	72,483,160	36,708,189	35,774,971	5,250,000	6,220,000	- -	- -	8,012,799							
1803	55,800,033	42,205,961	13,594,072	7,940,000	6,209,000	1,355,000	- -	9,310,000	2,800,000	2,455,000	1,890,000	2,120,000	1,145,000	595,000	800,000
1804	77,699,074	41,467,477	36,231,597	7,650,000	6,000,000	2,100,000	- -	7,100,000	2,540,000	2,350,000	1,990,000	3,040,000	1,520,000	490,000	956,000
1805	95,566,021	42,387,002	53,179,019	9,445,940	6,341,000	2,445,000	- -	8,321,000	2,607,000	1,705,000	1,190,000	2,406,000	1,545,000	415,000	987,000
1806	101,536,963	41,253,727	60,283,236	8,332,000	6,572,000	2,963,000	- -	6,967,000	2,495,000	2,697,000	1,096,000	2,516,000	1,360,000	481,000	841,000
1807	108,343,150	48,699,592	59,643,558	14,232,000	5,476,000	2,309,000	- -	10,753,000	2,637,000	2,207,000	1,157,000	2,198,000	1,108,000	490,000	652,000
1808	22,430,966	9,433,546	12,997,414	2,221,098	933,090	411,000	- -	1,936,100	723 000	221,000	396,000	721,000	265,000	196,000	161,000
1809	52,203,231	31,405,700	20,797,531	8,615,000	3,774,000	1,711,000	- -	6,944,000	1,643,000	2,104,000	1,001,000	1,405,000	425,000	284,000	552,000
1810	66,757,974	42,366,679	24,391,295	15,108,000	5,048,000	2,174,000	- -	6,846,000	2,537,000	2,626,000	807,000	1,917,000	747,000	318,000	177,000
1811	61,316,161	45,294,041	16,022,120	9,652,000	2,150,000	2,518,000	- -	14,662,000	3,195,000	2,387,000	1,002,000	1,405,000	1,195,000	395,000	314,000
1812	38,527,226	30,032,109	8,495,127	5,060,000	1,514,000	1,695,000	- -	13,687,000	1,638,000	1,544,000	604,000	738,000	524,000	329,000	1.3,000
1813	27,855,997	25,008,152	2,847,845	2,324,000	319,000	436,000	- -	13,591,000	636,000	3,021,000	457,000	291,000	539,000	95,000	58,000
1814	6,927,441	6,782,272	145,169	2,683,000	232,000	274,600	- -	1,734,000	258,000	230,000	176,000	178,000	241,000	59,000	22,000
1815	52,557,753	45,974,403	6,583,350	17,529,000	9,235,000	2,051,000	- -	6,901,912	1,835,000	2,785,000	498,000	702,000	497,000	242,000	402,000
1816	81,924,452	64,781,548	17,138,556	24,106,000	12,493,000	2,231,000	- -	7,230,580	4,004,000	3,555,000	719,000	1,156,000	786,000	223,000	563,000
1817	87,671,960	68,313,500	19,358,060	22,628,000	9,320,000	2,551,000	- -	17,751,376	3,196,000	2,378,480	537,000	1,326,000	845,000	213,000	689,000
1818	93,281,133	73,854,437	19,426,696	31,334,256	9,867,429	2,777,000	- -	11,576,970	2,598,000	3,262,697	754,009	1,389,000	648,000	195,000	809,000
1819	70,142,521	50,976,838	19,165,683	21,081,679	7,636,970	2,245,000	- -	6,005,250	2,466,000	2,142,644	1,009,000	1,461,000	586,000	297,000	481,000
1820	69,691,669	54,683,640	15,008,029	22,308,667	7,966,800	2,443,000	- -	5,296,684	2,403,000	1,714,925	1,179,000	1,502,000	869,000	302,000	575,000
1821	61,974,362	45,671,894	16,302,468	20,157,494	5,644,962	2,752,331	10,478,059	4,296,045	1,512,805	1,494,307	1,354,116	973,591	696,323	190,287	798,205
1822	72,160,397	49,874,155	22,286,202	24,035,056	6,222,338	3,121,030	10,510,180	5,100,280	1,307,670	1,563,482	1,357,899	915,838	844,534	321,041	501,302
1823	74,699,030	47,155,409	27,543,622	20,445,570	6,242,672	3,139,598	6,372,987	4,962,573	1,335,600	1,930,965	1,291,322	1,004,900	739,461	192,778	672,917
1824	75,986,657	50,649,500	25,337,157	21,947,491	4,955,568	4,841,383	7,014,522	5,759,176	1,734,586	1,892,982	1,488,051	1,136,704	707,259	204,205	681,455
1825	99,535,398	68,944,745	32,590,653	36,846,648	6,115,623	5,729,797	8,797,055	4,912,127	1,717,571	1,925,245	1,832,679	1,078,773	930,465	247,787	684,692
1826	77,595,322	53,025,710	24,569,612	25,025,214	5,317,806	5,495,130	4,883,785	4,121,466	2,011,694	1,917,445	1,892,439	824,982	733,450	207,765	568,473
1827	82,324,827	56,921,691	25,403,136	29,594,545	6,816,146	6,596,651	8,614,980	4,454,981	1,697,170	2,343,908	1,555,698	987,447	772,636	184,049	441,690
1828	72,264,686	50,669,669	21,595,017	22,487,229	5,480,707	5,548,354	8,243,476	4,283,689	1,821,906	2,630,696	1,495,830	1,066,663	719,961	176,354	626,235
1829	72,358,671	55,700,193	16,658,478	26,575,311	5,145,370	5,412,320	4,924,020	5,000,023	1,660,403	2,514,370	1,493,629	968,068	674,955	176,205	626,507
1830	73,849,508	59,462,029	14,387,479	29,674,863	5,833,112	5,320,980	2,178,773	6,132,129	1,836,014	1,996,824	1,315,245	756,677	717,683	142,370	641,760
1831	81,310,583	61,277,057	20,033,526	25,289,492	4,892,286	5,848,880	3,014,234	10,461,729	1,964,195	2,016,287	1,501,644	920,454	838,362	264,796	750,338
1832	87,176,943	63,137,470	24,039,473	31,724,982	5,999,788	5,050,633	5,656,340	4,974,121	2,096,707	2,152,361	1,828,196	1,056,721	774,087	290,820	691,909
1833	90,140,133	70,317,698	19,822,735	36,191,105	6,755,968	6,557,090	2,611,701	5,842,802	2,569,493	2,774,418	2,151,558	990,290	958,076	258,452	841,533
1834	104,336,973	81,034,162	23,312,811	49,448,402	6,595,305	6,247,893	2,076,758	4,580,579	2,435,314	2,122,292	1,796,001	863,674	755,219	190,199	797,444
1835	121,693,577	101,149,082	20,504,495	64,661,302	8,250,577	7,694,073	6,477,775	4,384,777	3,323,057	3,210,331	1,776,732	1,006,584	838,761	164,809	758,853
1836	128,623,049	106,916,690	21,746,359	71,284,925	10,058,640	8,107,528	4,324,396	3,572,598	3,160,681	2,544,750	1,983,344	987,880	986,166	114,093	653,092
1837	117,419,376	95,564,414	21,854,962	63,240,102	8,795,647	7,136,997	5,978,249	2,987,209	3,155,982	2,209,279	1,259,796	789,540	886,146	96,176	651,918
1838	108,486,616	96,033,821	12,452,795	61,556,811	7,392,029	8,397,078	3,513,565	3,603,299	3,116,196	1,721,819	1,312,346	819,003	528,231	148,191	636,945

* Not till 1803 were exports regularly distinguished in the returns as to the quantity and value of the different articles.

† Tobacco exports, before the Revolution, reached nearly 100,000,000 pounds, and the average since is about the same. The hogshead has increased in weight from 500 pounds to 1,000 and 1,200 pounds. The price per pound has averaged from 5 to 7 cents, though sometimes as high as 15 cents. About one-fourth of exports to Holland one-fifth to England, one-sixth to Hanse Towns. More tobacco has since been grown elsewhere, and especially in Europe, when supplies from here were interrupted by the Revolution, and cotton here took extra labour and capital.

Exports of the United States, commencing on the 1st of October, 1789, and ending on the 30th of September, 1838.—*continued.*

Years.	EXPORTED FROM*																			
	Maine.	New Hampshire.	Vermont.	Massachusetts.	Rhode Island.	Connecticut.	New York.	New Jersey.	Pennsylvania.	Delaware.	Maryland.	District of Columbia.	Virginia.	North Carolina.	South Carolina.	Georgia.	Ohio.	Alabama.	Michigan.	Mississippi.	Louisiana.	Florida.
	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.
1791	- -	142,958	- -	2,518,651	478,131	710,353	2,505,465	26,988	3,436,093	119,579	2,239,681	- -	3,130,865	644,548	2,605,268	491,250						
1792	- -	191,413	- -	2,498,104	495,109	679,753	2,535,780	23,406	3,820,662	133,972	2,623,808	- -	3,562,425	627,900	2,425,230	459,106						
1793	- -	196,304	- -	3,755,347	616,432	770,256	2,932,370	54,179	6,958,836	93,559	3 865,046	- -	2,987,098	365,414	3,191,967	620,955						
1794	- -	153,980	- -	5,292,441	954,599	812,765	5,442,183	56,154	6,643,092	207,995	5,686,191	- -	3,321,606	321,567	3,987,908	993,432						
1795	- -	229,427	- -	7,117,997	1,222,917	819,465	10,304,581	130 - 14	11,516,289	158,041	5,811,289	- -	5,268,665	671,457	7,620,049	950,159						
1796	- -	378,161	- -	9,949,545	1,589,572	1,452,793	12,205,027	50,227	17,513,268	201,142	9,201,315	- -	4,908,713	640,301	6,503,115	644,307						
1797	- -	314,694	- -	8,043,278	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1798	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1799	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1800	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1801	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1802	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1803	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1804	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1805	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1806	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1807	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1808	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1809	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1810	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1811	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1812	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1813	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1814	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1815	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1816	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1817	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1818	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1819	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1820	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1821	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1822	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1823	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1824	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1825	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1826	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1827	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1828	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1829	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1830	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1831	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1832	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1833	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1834	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1835	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1836	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1837	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							
1838	- -	284,574	- -	7,158,503	1,211,012	1,204,636	10,181	11,446,891	88,939	8,911,799	- -	4,804,755	1,000,373	6,610,449	1,115,442							

Exports of the United States, commencing on the 1st of October, 1789, and ending on the 30th of September, 1838.—*continued.*

Years.	EXPORTED FROM*																					
	Maine.	New Hampshire.	Vermont.	Massachusetts†	Rhode Island.	Connecticut.	New York.	New Jersey.	Pennsylvania.	Delaware.	Maryland.	District of Columbia.	Virginia.	North Carolina.	South Carolina.	Georgia.	Ohio.	Alabama.	Michigan.	Mississippi.	Louisiana.	Florida.
	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.
1791	- -	142,870	- -	2,519,651	478,131	704,353	2,505,485	96,399	3,436,093	119,579	2,279,691	- -	3,130,965	594,548	2,695,398	491,250						
1792	- -	191,413	- -	2,466,104	685,109	879,753	3,585,790	23,406	3,820,662	133,072	2,623,808	- -	3,552,125	627,900	2,425,250	459,108						
1793	- -	198,204	- -	3,755,347	616,432	770,256	2,932,370	54,179	6,958,836	93,559	3 065,0 6	- -	2,987,098	365,414	3,191,987	630,933						
1794	- -	153,980	- -	5,282,441	954,589	812,765	5,442,183	58,154	6,643,092	207,985	5,686,191	- -	3,321,636	521,567	3,967,908	983,432						
1795	- -	229,427	- -	7,117,997	1,222,917	819,465	10,304,581	130,- 14	11,518,280	156,041	5,811,380	- -	3,450,041	682,161	5,998,492	695,946						
1796	- -	378,161	- -	9,949,345	1,589,972	1,452,708	12,209,087	59,227	17,513,956	201,142	9,201,315	- -	5,268,965	671,457	7,620,049	950,159						
1797	- -	275,540	- -	7,582,047	975,230	814,508	13,309,084	18,161	11,446,291	98,928	9,911,799	- -	4,903,713	540,301	6,505,119	644,307						
1798	- -	361,453	- -	8,699,252	947,827	763,128	14,300,936	61,877	8,915,463	153,727	12,746,190	- -	6,113,451	537,810	6,994,179	961,848						
1799	- -	361,780	20,480	11,621,591	1,055,273	1,143,818	18,719,527	9,722	12,431,987	297,065	16,399,609	- -	6,292,985	486,291	8,729,015	1,396,759						
1800	- -	431,926	57,041	11,326,976	1,362,945	1,114,743	14,045,079	2,288	11,949,679	418,695	12,284,531	- -	4,430,649	782,799	10,663,510	2,174,289						
1801	- -	555,055	97,267	14,970,555	1,832,775	1,448,216	19,351,138	25,406	17,38,193	682,042	12,767,550	894,427	5,855,574	974,964	14,304,045	1,754,999	- -	- -	- -	- -	1,095,412	
1802	- -	565,304	91,470	13,492,692	2,455,365	1,606,809	13,792,276	29,227	12,677,475	440,504	7,914,285	774,063	3,978,368	956,300	10,639,365	1,854,951	- -	- -	- -	- -	636,016	
1803	- -	494,630	117,450	9,768,586	1,975,586	1,248,571	10,818,387	21,311	7,525,710	428,153	5,078,862	1,444,994	6,100,708	952,614	7,811,108	2,370,875	- -	- -	- -	210,392	1,668,702	
1804	- -	716,091	191,725	16,994,379	1,735,671	1,516,110	16,081,281	24,829	11,030,157	687,396	9,151,989	1,452,198	5,790,0 8	928,687	7,451,618	2,077,572	- -	- -	- -	276,964	64,777	1,676,382
1805	- -	638,408	169,402	18,435,657	2,572,049	1,443,727	23,492,943	20,743	15,782,252	579,383	10,559,480	1,320,215	5,956,620	779,803	9,066,625	2,291,946	- -	- -	- -	321,260	- -	3,371,545
1806	- -	795,388	193,775	21,199,243	2,084,885	1,715,629	21,762,845	33,95-	17,574,702	500,105	14,540,982	1,216,146	5,955,386	768,105	9,745,798	82,764	62,518	- -	- -	311,947	701	3,987,323
1807	- -	690,042	204,265	28,112,125	1,697,564	1,824,727	26,257,963	41,186	16,864,744	548,275	14,298,964	1,446,378	4,761,296	745,162	10,912,564	3,744,945	25,880	- -	- -	50,848	- -	4,920,555
1808	- -	125,079	106,772	5,139,392	242,034	413,694	5,606,056	20,799	4,013,330	108,735	2,721,106	286,317	526,473	117,129	1,864,445	24,626	13,115	- -	- -	126,114	- -	1,261,101
1809	- -	296,595	175,782	12,142,293	1,284,532	885,513	12,581,582	319,175	9,049,241	130,036	6,627,326	703,415	2,984,125	392,984	3,247,341	1,092,108	3,850	- -	- -	3 615	2,956	1,980,592
1810	- -	234,670	432,631	13,013,048	1,331,576	765,643	17,242,330	430,987	10,983,398	130,342	6,489,018	1,038,163	4,822,611	403,949	5,260,614	2,236,696	10,585	- -	- -	21,829	1,441	2,640,050
1811	- -	268,883	971,104	11,235,485	1,571,434	1,032,554	12,398,215	1,- 86	9,599,117	88,632	6,433,987	2,083,251	4,322,307	797,576	4,961,278	2,568,466	- -	- -	- -	7,111	3,107	1,460,471
1812	- -	308,401	139,647	6,589,339	755,197	780,091	8,961,522	4,186	5,973,750	29,744	5,985,979	1,606,409	3,011,112	498,219	2,036,195	1,066,703	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1,045,153
1813	- -	29,986	- -	1,897,923	286,802	574,303	8,195,494	10,960	3,577,117	133,432	3,787,865	1,287,493	1,819,722	797,358	2,965,484	1,094,595	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1,065,155
1814	- -	37,347	- -	1,133,798	472,134	1,043,136	909,870	- -	- -	14,914	246,434	2,400	17,581	262,446	737,988	2,183,121	- -	- -	- -	78,985	- -	397,191
1815	- -	109,782	161,092	6,389,093	561,198	363,135	10,675,373	5,279	4,588,919	105,192	5,036,801	1,965,626	6,676 976	1,013,942	6,675,129	4,172,319	- -	- -	- -	37,119	8,573	5,102,810
1816	- -	140,298	882,984	10,156,439	612,794	563,898	19,690,031	8,746	7,196,245	56,217	7,238,767	1,980,811	8,212,980	1,389,735	10,949,409	7,511,329	1,305	- -	- -	87,730	9,232	5,602,948
1817	- -	187,426	913,201	11,387,397	958,467	804,139	18,707,432	5,849	8,735,582	41,954	7,333,350	1,768,658	5,821,422	956,580	10,372,613	8,790,714	7,749	- -	- -	108,115	- -	9,124,512
1818	- -	230,649	960,089	11,998,156	1,037,291	577,564	17,872,281	25,857	8,758,492	31,525	7,570,734	1,405,451	7,016,246	948,253	11,440,982	11,132,096	- -	36,657	- -	85,352	- -	12,924,309
1819	- -	157,919	985,586	11,389,913	1,281,434	439,584	13,597,373	1,474	6,993,7-8	29,928	5,926,216	991,351	4,392,391	647,736	8,240,790	6,310,434	410	80,906	- -	27,745	- -	9,788,753
1820	1,109,091	240,809	995,959	11,009,922	1,072,762	421 981	13,163,241	20,531	5,743,549	19,453	6,009,364	1,204,915	4,557,967	660,319	8,824,695	6,584,623	2,215	96,636	- -	73,406	- -	7,796,157
1821	1,048,948	260,765	985,320	12,454,691	956,825	376,197	13,162,917	25,415	3,850,984	998,103	5,078,209	406,944	7,200,511	6,014,310	- -	109,980	105	209,745	694	- -	- -	7,979,645	1,777
1822	1,098,648	289,630	957,881	12,586,485	885,389	405,372	11,701,490	59,551	3,047,802	197,582	4,536,788	1,043,430	3,217,369	585,951	7,380,320	5,484,870	- -	200,367	1,010	- -	- -	7,779,072	1,518
1823	895,501	237,765	836,140	13,093,238	893,114	482,051	13,039,980	26,764	3,617,192	53,857	5,030,229	801,295	4,006,788	492,417	6,698,814	4,293,668	- -	200,367	1,010	- -	- -	7,779,072	1,518
1824	980,195	195,393	894,259	10,434,526	872,899	575,922	12,897,134	29,989	3,364,899	18 964	4,985,253	782,405	3,977,564	688,783	8,034,092	4,623,962	- -	480,727	- -	- -	- -	7,928,520	216
1825	1,081,127	192,699	995,165	11,432,987	978,467	699,270	25,258,261	47,313	11,389,991	31,656	4,501,304	758,367	4,129,530	533,260	11,054,742	5,554,086	- -	692,035	- -	- -	- -	12,562,980	2,865
1826	1,072,575	167,077	984,202	10,099,482	781,549	709,668	21,947,791	37,871	8,231,722	35,186	4,010,749	694,231	4,586,732	561,749	7,554,086	4,366,504	- -	1,527,112	- -	- -	- -	10,784,390	209
1827	1,070,194	177,286	1,259,441	10,474,993	846,187	680,275	23,934,187	25,577	7,775,533	9,406	4,516,468	1,192,142	4,657,986	449,237	6,322,481	4,951,555	- -	1,576,364	1,930	- -	- -	11,728,997	57,498
1828	1,019,547	124,429	938,610	9,925,785	722,126	521,545	22,777,649	1,892	6,051,489	29,385	4,334,622	707,443	3,340,185	523,747	6,550,712	3,104,425	- -	1,182,549	- -	- -	- -	11,947,400	60,921
1829	737 982	105,749	886,679	8,254,937	599,364	457 970	20,119,011	5,822	4,089,955	7,195	4,304,467	928,797	2,797,431	564,586	8,175,546	4,981,376	2,004	1,083,958	- -	- -	- -	12,396,000	56,058
1830	672,522	96,154	656,256	7,213,194	578,940	399,541	19,697,993	8,324	4,294,793	52,256	3,791,492	753,973	4,791,844	399,333	7,827,681	5,396,695	- -	2 734,594	1,580	- -	- -	15,488,642	7,170
1831	895 573	111,222	925,127	7,733,703	567,465	462,983	25,535,144	11,430	5,513,713	34,514	4,308,547	1,230,975	4,150,475	341,149	6,575,201	3,959,515	14,728	2,- 3,894	12,9-8	- -	- -	16,761,968	30,495
1832	961,443	115,542	949,939	11,953,708	534,459	630,499	26,600,365	61,794	5,116,086	16,242	4,399,918	1,154,474	4,510,650	342,041	7,752,731	5,515,883	58,394	2,73-,387	9,234	- -	- -	16,530,950	65,716
1833	1,019,431	155,356	877,309	9,963,122	685,881	627,805	25,395,177	22,753	4,978,854	45,311	4,082,467	1,092,816	4,467,587	438,095	8,434,525	6,270,040	325,544	4,527,981	9,054	- -	- -	18,911,373	64,905
1834	834,167	99,570	914,972	10,148,839	581,638	632,416	25,512,015	8,131	3,999,746	51,945	4,169,245	820,394	5,493,089	471,406	11,207,778	7,467,327	541,451	5,670,797	26,021	- -	- -	98,557,324	98,825
1835	1,069,767	81,484	826,151	10,043,739	596,039	619,270	30,345,364	74,041	3,799,275	66,888	3,925,234	517,639	6,064,063	319,327	11,338,016	8,990,674	97,301	7,571,692	64,630	- -	- -	36,270,825	61,710
1836	950,965	15,620	198,165	10,9 4,346	525,429	634,199	28,953,438	62,809	3,971,555	74,994	3,675,475	826,574	6,192,(sic)	429,851	13,684,576	10,722,200	3,719	11,184,166	61,231	- -	- -	37,179,828	71,662
1837	995,952	24,541	156,085	9,725,199	498,258	532,490	27,378,419	44,271	3,541,389	49,333	3,798,917	488,208	3,702,714	551,795	11,220,161	9,935,041	132,844	9,671,,05	69,750	304,631	35,9-8,697	90,784
1838	935,538	74,670	132,650	8,104,982	291,357	543,610	23,008,471	28,010	3,477,151	36,944	4,584,525	378,113	3,946,225	545,223	11,042,070	8,903,499	139,827	9,078,344	125,650	- -	31,502,245	122,552

* The exports from Kentucky were, in 1802, *D.*686,623; from Tennessee, in 1802, *D.*443,955; from Indiana, in 1831, *D.*29,430; in 1835, *D.*33,224; and in 1836, *D.*17,320.

† The largest exports from most of the northern States formerly consisted of foreign goods, lumber, fish, &c.

Exports of the United States, commencing on the 1st of October, 1789, and ending on the 30th of September, 1838.—*continued.*

Years.	EXPORTED TO																	
	Great Britain and dependencies.	France and dependencies.	Spain and dependencies.	Netherlands and dependencies.	Sweden and dependencies.	Denmark and dependencies.	Portugal and dependencies.	China.	Hans Towns.	Russia.	West Indies generally.	Texas.	Mexico.	Columbia.	Central America.	Brazil.	Argentine Republic.	Chili.
	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.
1790	9,306,582	4,898,902	1,968,421	1,925,981	47,240	224,415	1,253,462	- -	478,050	- -	3,570	59,454						
1791	7,953,418	4,286,782	1,201,288	1,854,833	21,366	277,273	1,088,646	- -	426,389	- -	4,889	329,496						
1792	8,192,325	5,674,690	1,788,618	2,402,180	165,148	278,262	1,018,643	- -	116,071	- -	- -	399,559						
1793	8,631,239	7,050,498	2,237,950	3,169,538	310,427	870,586	897,560	- -	1,805,884	- -	- -	994,118						
17...	8,175,211	5,253,681	4,055,705	5,585,515	381,764	1,328,909	1,024,241	- -	2,892,942	- -	- -	- -						
1795	9,219,548	12,653,635	4,714,954	2,984,817	994,832	1,962,261	764,395	1,023,242	2,955,524	90,221	1,543,348							
1796	23,164,542	11,823,314	3,850,678	7,875,384	1,098,407	2,075,468	858,448	1,326,293	2,207,447	47,381	2,867,946							
1797	8,212,335	12,440,076	6,655,262	9,284,886	986,315	2,257,308	474,014	387,316	3,588,868	8,450	1,546,044							
1798	17,098,189	6,941,486	8,740,553	7,420,888	733,462	2,901,511	729,089	281,785	14,563,243	30,738	948,121							
1799	26,546,987	2,780,504	77,421,402	5,851,508	783,597	4,548,538	857,751	585,219	17,144,400	46,030	92,020							
1800	27,310,289	5,163,836	18,460,038	6,689,016	692,595	2,114,442	1,995,944	1,047,385	8,012,546	- -	115,831							
1801	42,132,032	11,261,751	13,610,816	6,922,372	232,308	1,581,186	1,718,758	1,274,506	10,616,197	9,126	972,203							
1802	28,925,091	14,475,597	11,227,350	5,966,956	575,258	1,721,495	2,152,701	677,287	6,229,498	78,121	1,281,128							
1803	25,369,073	8,945,053	4,383,530	5,923,425	385,476	1,892,895	2,205,548	172,495	3,378,732	- -	1,704,404							
1804	21,928,908	12,776,111	6,726,135	16,447,417	691,975	3,346,623	2,496,856	198,501	4,475,807	- -	2,234,294							
1805	22,047,346	21,072,747	12,672,768	17,935,216	406,043	4,037,454	2,185,408	222,078	5,292,508	71,372	3,496,947							
1806	23,229,976	15,575,912	14,995,972	20,496,519	357,030	4,250,935	2,581,295	387,116	6,424,234	12,407	1,754,268							
1807	31,015,023	19,138,548	18,234,780	17,620,043	1,022,393	4,549,317	1,867,154	197,290	5,190,346	445,217	1,566,501							
1808	5,158,297	4,841,435	5,949,903	5,758,587	234,455	415,566	939,647	- -	229,915	- -	469,005							
1809	8,103,709	15,043	16,319,034	1,913,270	2,095,517	4,317,394	3,212,987	219,022	2,582,643	942,261	124,450							
1810	16,555,488	187,439	14,941,962	174,078	7,912,001	10,546,506	7,878,210	319,479	1,186,362	3,575,698	960,201							
1811	21,881,555	2,317,576	12,572,988	- -	1,054,178	444,886	11,466,150	631,060	- -	6,137,697	1,239,276							
1812	10,270,982	3,164,884	5,277,950	20,747	2,153,995	127,250	9,259,520	134,527	- -	1,745,597	1,042,565							
1813	2,422	4,277,630	10,113,498	23,180	2,205,573	- -	10,897,223	- -	13,866	51,150	45,259							
1814	10,710	494,626	4,374,772	21,581	1,857,198	- -	691,889	61,228	- -	460	9,456							
1815	21,588,988	8,727,637	6,230,980	4,640,956	1,021,695	982,762	2,231,101	486,826	2,236,873	874,549	1,903,485							
1816	26,154,558	12,138,135	8,585,718	6,009,581	780,352	1,940,652	2,270,389	1,034,764	3,534,500	705,943	2,591,297							
1817	43,468,242	12,434,918	6,755,316	5,745,772	2,080,534	1,854,983	3,345,251	548,693	640,396	5,513,788								
1818	46,717,852	14,490,589	7,305,913	7,215,477	685,316	1,739,348	2,295,177	1,758,896	3,333,518	441,019	2,567,018							
1819	29,741,738	11,042,301	5,108,270	4,880,114	554,135	2,040,732	2,268,560	1,686,972	3,568,172	629,521	2,208,708							
1820	26,283,948	9,111,215	5,640,024	7,088,336	646,856	2,489,638	1,925,751	1,479,701	2,591,275	1,362,321	2,508,956							
1821	26,522,572	6,474,718	7,218,985	6,022,681	777,407	2,267,868	435,700	4,290,580	2,132,544	628,994	460,513	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1,281,780	
1822	30,041,397	7,075,332	6,435,212	6,901,999	881,454	2,424,048	427,491	5,695,788	2,505,915	629,091	540,020	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1,498,529	
1823	27,571,048	9,568,924	10,963,390	7,767,075	695,291	1,955,071	966,545	4,836,061	3,169,430	648,734	613,690	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1,341,980	
1824	28,027,945	10,552,304	15,367,278	8,617,380	649,428	2,133,258	518,836	5,301,171	1,983,273	231,981	599,884	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	2,301,904	
1825	44,217,525	11,491,326	5,940,720	5,985,499	569,550	2,701,098	406,160	5,570,518	3,121,023	287,401	669,698	- -	6,470,144	2,229,365	98,582	2,368,754	873,520	891,428
1826	28,980,020	12,101,429	6,687,351	4,794,070	366,380	2,412,575	313,553	2,968,644	2,116,697	174,846	617,288	- -	6,281,050	1,362,682	119,774	2,203,348	279,340	1,847,498
1827	32,870,465	13,767,358	7,231,991	3,826,974	380,977	2,624,328	267,370	3,864,402	3,013,193	262,246	486,980	- -	4,173,257	944,584	224,732	1,968,903	181,204	1,702,601
1828	31,032,208	12,084,541	7,294,627	3,063,359	1,105,954	3,348,107	251,614	1,492,208	2,995,251	450,498	480,797	- -	2,886,484	884,594	159,272	1,968,705	154,228	2,089,402
1829	29,071,094	12,958,304	6,889,094	4,622,130	957,948	2,311,174	322,911	1,254,362	2,277,160	396,228	569,679	- -	2,831,151	767,348	239,854	1,929,927	686,052	1,421,134
1830	31,647,581	11,806,236	6,049,051	4,562,437	961,729	2,014,065	279,780	742,193	2,274,880	416,575	647,121	- -	4,637,468	496,920	250,118	1,843,238	629,887	1,536,114
1831	39,901,379	9,992,679	6,661,420	3,048,609	840,078	2,000,798	294,393	1,190,936	2,592,172	462,766	635,871	- -	6,178,218	656,149	306,497	2,076,185	659,779	1,968,155
1832	37,268,566	13,244,688	6,986,198	6,035,462	846,160	2,207,551	298,318	1,260,423	4,098,219	682,862	682,854	- -	3,467,541	1,177,034	335,307	2,054,794	923,040	1,921,119
1833	33,792,249	14,424,539	6,506,041	5,466,391	420,069	1,598,634	442,561	1,433,759	2,943,296	718,905	867,773	- -	5,408,091	957,243	575,616	2,272,101	699,738	1,463,940
1834	39,797,650	16,111,442	6,296,598	4,578,739	481,741	1,857,114	322,496	1,010,483	4,656,874	330,894	408,643	- -	5,365,053	795,567	154,149	2,059,351	971,837	1,476,355
1835	60,167,698	20,335,068	7,069,279	4,411,053	602,593	1,780,496	521,413	1,888,580	3,628,276	826,447	450,516	- -	9,029,221	1,064,016	183,793	2,608,656	708,918	941,894
1836	64,487,560	21,441,270	8,0n1,668	4,799,157	700,386	2,122,469	191,007	1,194,284	4,363,892	911,013	543,986	- -	6,041,635	829,355	149,518	3,084,996	3-4,688	987,917
1837	61,217,485	20,255,346	7,604,002	4,295,767	507,523	1,640,173	423,705	630,591	3,754,949	1,308,732	467,257	1,077,998	3,880,523	1,080,119	157,663	1,743,309	286,008	1,497,789
1838	56,843,392	16,252,413	7 604,386	3,772,206	266,892	1,280,987	282,181	1,516,602	3,391,545	1,048,239	538,852	1,347,980	2,164,097	724,739	945,940	2,287,194	236,665	1,370,964

Summary Statement of the Quantity and Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, imported into the United States in American and Foreign Vessels, commencing on the 1st of October, 1834, and ending on the 30th of September, 1838.

Species of Merchandise.	1834-1835.				1835-1836.				1836-1837.				1837-1838.			
	In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Merchandise free of Duty.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.
Articles imported for the use of the United States	- -	810	- -	- -	- -	2,399	- -	- -	- -	375	- -	- -	- -	3,218	- -	- -
Specially imported for incorporated philosophical societies, seminaries, &c., viz.:																
Philosophical apparatus, instruments, &c.	- -	5,324	- -	475	- -	2,696	- -	2,966	- -	12,699	- -	1,013	- -	8,617	- -	2,112
Books, maps, and charts	- -	25,085	- -	1,273	- -	31,654	- -		- -	25,714	- -	6,360	- -	20,137	- -	1,367
Statuary, busts, casts, and specimens of																

Summary Statement of the Quantity and Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, imported into the United States in American and Foreign Vessels, commencing on the 1st of October, 1834, and ending on the 30th of September, 1838.

Species of Merchandise.		1834-1835.				1835-1836.				1836-1837.				1837-1838.			
		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Merchandise free of Duty.			D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.
Articles imported for the use of the United States			853				2,989				325				2,316		
Specially imported for incorporated philosophical societies, seminaries, &c., viz.:																	
Philosophical apparatus, instruments, &c.		5,324		475			5,680				13,292		1,018		9,517		2,118
Books, maps, and charts		25,093		1,874			21,804		2,598		25,714		6,260		20,427		1,567
Statuary, busts, casts, and specimens of sculpture		2,629		448			128		78		1,218				2,505		551
Paintings, drawings, etchings, & engravings		2,497		2,169			6,415		478		4,807		367		1,680		109
Cabinets of coins and gems											6						
models and collections of antiquity							844						2,078				
Specimens of botany		16,686		269			15,589		616		9,128		80		6,976		467
Models of inventions and machinery		69					654				30						
Anatomical preparations		2,161		280			194		20		1,103						
Antimony, regulus of		17,310		645			92,626		6,243		15,398		115		2,643		697
Lapis calaminaris, tutenague, spelter or zinc		82,467		13,450			240,333		60,000		97,575		28,566		60,501		17,079
Burr stones, unwrought		46,082		1,775			30,795		618		18,803		1,914		34,980		1,078
Brimstone and sulphur		133,694		23,471			86,588		43,451		44,870		27,651		20,349		12,985
Bark of the cork tree		4,145		562			5,009		2,641		2,494		1,051		2,530		257
Clay, unwrought		2,455		2,630			1,134		7,691		2,131		2,208		1,615		2,805
Rags of any kind of cloth		443,899		128,944			552,697		154,394		270,698		68,567		295,620		79,543
Undressed furs		80,162		482,074			599,545		77,077		416,270		96,207		574,943		38,195
Hides and skins, raw		2,179,594		180,504			3,856,737		254,735		3,629,852		276,800		1,998,184		140,505
Plaster of Paris		6,118		23,874			6,015		116,089		9,998		163,851		6,642		125,234
Brilla		84,606		9,210			127,127		7,228		97,366		18,247		80,175		2,021
Wood, dye		601,202		47,974			896,134		20,755		847,208		49,625		288,020		45,134
Mahogany, Spanish		432,382		21,585			527,254		68,655		566,572		30,498		511,180		21,779
Animals for breed		11,049		4,886			30,975		20,568		25,714		48,564		15,349		11,023
All other		121,807		4,709			143,103		6,125		85,412		7,699		140,389		2,260
Pewter, old		1,607		416			2,421		42		1,651		1,304		923		
Tin, in pigs and bars		182,584		21,940			319,255				270,496		41,666		227,450		6,467
in plates and sheets		778,089		47,574			1,214,284		199,299		794,985		85,647		648,546		32,189
Brass, in pigs and bars		1,731					2,934		189		147,257				30,006		
old		2,389		327			3,709		201		18,908		430		2,563		
Copper, in pigs and bars		668,680		145			733,734		2,254		861,743		26,046		836,510		103
in plates suited to the sheathing of ships		480,548		50,281			886,884		147,638		481,360		106,119		432,037		129,754
for the use of the Mint		7					12,605				12,507						
old, fit only for remanufacture		76,975		13,936			100,841		31,262		149,787		121,179		30,582		20,268
Bullion, Gold		658,949		3,208			1,908,131		4,006		664,979		1,970		824,419		6,775
Silver		762,199		2,094			214,687		5,517		686,862		6,480		398,778		3,967
Specie, Gold		1,801,498		67,543			3,247,550		71,175		1,671,224		224,041		10,451,886		279,908
Silver		7,594,025		2,446,963			5,424,513		435,316		6,582,256		548,053		6,050,854		643,536
Teas from India, China, &c.	pounds	14,410,480	4,580,719	1,980	11	16,381,195	5,241,502			16,999,194	5,899,000	4,648	2,095	14,414,048	3,495,151		
Coffee	—	89,924,607	9,963,296	13,975,170	1,452,170	86,899,953	9,984,022	6,880,554	719,031	74,904,329	7,367,303	13,246,074	1,290,367	82,105,735	7,092,016	6,085,988	548,901
Cocoa	—	5,734,018	391,218	73,199	7,629	2,778,445	200,183	726,614	43,033	3,616,008	234,234	14,304	1,162	2,585,110	170,718	151,145	18,011
Fruits—Almonds	—	1,037,427	90,996	430,535	36,168	3,704,513	288,343	1,538,905	121,786	2,112,006	166,350	846,257	72,971	430,767	38,752	166,440	11,806
Currants	—	129,296	13,174	92,559	7,471	556,572	67,277	202,504	23,519	404,198	31,615	145 627	13,546	251,716	17,942	52,021	4,595
Prunes	—	198,792	16,629	52,604	2,927	817,703	58,074	57,447	5,050	678,333	68,219	61,687	4,991	85,714	8,642	2,771	105
Figs	—	2,182,735	81,753	8,158	469	2,589,198	119,646	302,690	15,436	1,246,610	76,932	98,915	6,035	884,101	32,536	33,070	1,749
Raisins, in jars and boxes	—	4,573,916	305,974	284,400	19,563	7,830,382	604,276	945,742	75,763	10,904,860	849,199	1,426,952	122,012	5,627,781	336,710	980,185	58,289
All other	—	3,258,540	225,893	287,585	9,606	7,981,023	441,657	656,616	27,317	6,078,702	291,972	726,614	45,657	2,962,967	79,754	185,358	6,104

Summary Statement of the Quantity and Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, imported into the United States in American and Foreign Vessels, commencing on the 1st of October, 1834, and ending on the 30th of September, 1838.—*continued.*

Species of Merchandise.	1834-1835.				1835-1836.				1836-1837.				1837-1838.			
	In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Merchandise free of Duty.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.
Spices—Mace, pounds	9,972	11,971	-	-	20,986	24,108	5,586	5,856	14,523	18,924	4,961	4,221	5,906	5,905	1,400	1,197
Nutmegs, —	143,410	174,973	23,175	29,700	169,598	172,298	89,606	108,975	72,405	76,391	21,360	20,777	49,958	50,456	1,600	1,693
Cinnamon, —	19,737	25,750	-	-	15,208	17,054	-	-	52,298	59,833	-	-	61,122	65,707	400	633
Cloves, —	107,808	21,519	-	-	102,861	92,573	7,485	1,807	140,992	94,912	2,971	712	147,696	99,545	4,725	1,520
Pepper, —	4,013,337	778,954	-	-	4,804,517	818,947	12,485	1,460	6,315,116	998,674	56,776	4,976	3,562,068	466,677	7,000	644
Pimento, —	1,490,276	98,891	1,091,024	76,646	2,497,573	177,019	2,141,262	137,956	1,647,547	107,578	1,949,402	134,886	827,456	47,677	624,389	36,456
Cassia, —	1,178,515	83,861	250	25	1,381,589	105,193	200	20	1,313,538	98,096	12,432	1,165	474,920	36,657	-	-
Ginger, —	64,964	4,979	571	507	678,491	27,291	240	24	810,131	38,107	307,175	4,509	64,632	3,465	-	-
Camphor, —	64,099	18,017	8,035	4,699	187,186	52,602	4,086	2,407	894,536	104,821	-	-	12,353	3,000	-	-
Silks, other than India, lace veils, shawls, shades, &c.	-	551,082	-	11,164	-	971,526	-	3,331	-	297,405	-	18,056	-	142,547	-	28,183
other manufactures of	-	14,283,086	-	128,695	-	13,833,856	-	523,181	-	10,350,222	-	425,486	-	7,989,551	-	257,134
Manufactures of silk and worsted	-	986,503	-	6,874	-	3,115,730	-	58,998	-	1,779,230	-	31,717	-	1,476,408	-	43,469
Camlets of goats' or camels' hair, or imitations of Tibet	-	891,516	-	32,675	-	870,351	-	16,668	-	98,744	-	5,389	-	87,148	-	5,104
Worsted and stuff goods	-	6,447,083	-	105,196	-	6,277,597	-	282,015	-	3,101,554	-	248,703	-	2,677,592	-	264,695
Linens, bleached and unbleached	-	5,255,156	-	677,412	-	6,985,417	-	1,408,306	-	4,188,267	-	686,480	-	2,985,138	-	545,998
Teklenburgs, osnaburgs, and burlaps	-	188,898	-	148,139	-	259,016	-	133,178	-	226,362	-	156,364	-	227,902	-	184,623
Sheeting, brown and white	-	366,208	-	69,696	-	495,492	-	88,649	-	511,765	-	80,008	-	515,444	-	8,201
Bolting cloths	-	67,296	-	1,951	-	68,951	-	13,544	-	25,589	-	998	-	29,978	-	-
Wool, not exceeding 8 cents per pound, pounds	5,288,468	879,980	150,169	5,964	5,257,980	977,456	2,775,717	199,914	4,672,506	494,518	2,977,689	209,455	5,988,913	466,897	682,818	39,611
Quicksilver	-	738,285	-	-	-	118,883	-	21,672	-	18,670	-	1,468	-	115,534	-	-
Opium	-	164,857	-	7,730	-	418,774	-	61,192	-	50,600	-	6,461	-	83,017	-	709
Crude sulpetre	-	332,048	-	-	-	518,605	-	-	-	563,564	-	-	-	142,389	-	-
All other articles	-	6,031,540	-	1,918,398	-	6,248,768	-	1,411,041	-	6,364,226	-	2,059,388	-	4,914,737	-	818,870
Total	-	69,951,407	-	7,989,066	-	54,756,506	-	7,399,975	-	61,628,384	-	7,699,547	-	55,897,114	-	5,350,991
Merchandise paying duties ad valorem.																
Manufactures of wool—Cloths and cassimeres	-	6,975,693	-	73,250	-	8,711,916	-	214,464	-	2,985,996	-	127,524	-	5,099,593	-	90,366
Merino shawls	-	1,578	-	-	-	18,918	-	215	-	2,323	-	-	-	146,737	-	6,226
Blankets, not above 75 cts. each	-	964,774	-	27,798	-	935,863	-	45,189	-	432,265	-	13,226	-	387,826	-	14,240
above 75 cts. each	-	780,375	-	32,436	-	1,273,510	-	140,680	-	452,059	-	54,528	-	455,491	-	119,680
Hosiery, gloves, mitts, & bindings	-	628,071	-	24,609	-	681,938	-	18,598	-	134,219	-	42,873	-	204,501	-	52,464
Other articles	-	458,200	-	15,304	-	675,641	-	36,116	-	86,261	-	5,264	-	313,417	-	1,568
Woollen yarn, pounds	-	641	-	68	406	675	54	157	695	824	-	-	288	86	-	-
Worsted yarn	-	257,425	-	4,998	-	293,020	-	9,285	-	161,709	-	10,569	-	121,888	-	5,605
Manufactures of cotton—Dyed, printed, or coloured	-	10,164,307	-	448,415	-	11,605,475	-	587,505	-	6,658,429	-	424,842	-	3,925,618	-	208,033
White	-	2,558,198	-	182,295	-	2,588,481	-	177,306	-	1,486,452	-	144,946	-	936,588	-	43,554
Hosiery, gloves, mitts, & bindings	-	894,498	-	311,881	-	787,080	-	570,928	-	643,992	-	603,285	-	399,268	-	366,598
Twist, yarn, and thread	-	812,605	-	31,588	-	807,239	-	48,051	-	375,525	-	28,074	-	209,187	-	12,927
Nankeens	-	9,021	-	-	-	23,348	-	-	-	35,980	-	-	-	27,049	-	-
Other articles	-	493,089	-	62,449	-	998,150	-	107,924	-	678,849	-	85,465	-	363,962	-	20,668
Silks from India, China, &c.—Piece goods	-	1,932,587	-	1,276	-	1,746,869	-	237	-	2,282,340	-	256	-	1,173,107	-	3,343
Sewing silk	-	39,227	-	-	-	68,542	-	-	-	251,787	-	-	-	34,277	-	-
Other manufactures of	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	59	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sewing, from Europe, &c.	-	249,941	-	980	-	657,081	-	42,812	-	294,092	-	51,123	-	218,362	-	6,578
Lace of thread and cotton	-	1,400,362	-	48,945	-	1,261,898	-	76,411	-	760,788	-	46,407	-	512,136	-	64,782
Manufactures of flax—dyed and colo'd linens, checks, &c.	-	115,389	-	9,213	-	611,997	-	80,956	-	308,652	-	16,870	-	38,273	-	19,046
Other articles	-	261,823	-	54,052	-	452,820	-	60,917	-	422,358	-	45,023	-	279,937	-	8,921
Manufactures of hemp—Sail-duck	-	781,653	-	47,173	-	624,982	-	37,698	-	512,965	-	27,456	-	640,759	-	32,311
Other articles	-	37,798	-	1,254	-	49,572	-	4,747	-	-	-	6,754	-	38,479	-	5,875
Hats, caps, and bonnets—Leghorn, chip, straw, &c.	-	329,103	-	2,564	-	585,624	-	36,399	-	514,037	-	26,755	-	287,627	-	11,102
Fur, wool, and leather	-	19,919	-	2,252	-	23,477	-	1,752	-	3,286	-	3,264	-	25,314	-	468

Manufactures of iron and steel, viz.:—Sidearms	-	20,945	-	2,497	-	31,900	-	3,256	-	26,695	-	2,972	-	15,471	-	1,700
Firearms not specified	-	280,966	-	36,738	-	581,963	-	41,767	-	485,729	-	63,258	-	156,704	-	20,411
Drawing-knives	-	17,465	-	208	-	20,270	-	2,130	-	19,695	-	1,255	-	14,747	-	641
Cutting-knives	-	2,170	-	288	-	5,987	-	1,434	-	6,305	-	2,564	-	1,252	-	49
Hatchets, axes, and adzes	-	10,150	-	576	-	15,696	-	1,231	-	15,022	-	1,643	-	10,535	-	786
Socket chisels	-	19,088	-	327	-	36,509	-	2,671	-	22,745	-	2,018	-	19,049	-	771
Shed-yards and scaleboams	-	24,695	-	541	-	40,197	-	1,995	-	28,630	-	2,009	-	12,169	-	277
Vices	-	39,649	-	810	-	47,764	-	2,122	-	35,729	-	3,698	-	13,561	-	454
Scythes	-	5,827	-	220	-	9,345	-	823	-	8,578	-	917	-	3,614	-	30
Spades and shovels	-	67,041	-	6,577	-	78,404	-	17,427	-	67,434	-	8,397	-	29,471	-	4,178
Squares of iron	-	13,589	-	1,756	-	22,229	-	2,120	-	16,582	-	2,285	-	10,366	-	1,648
Wood-screws	-	6,299	-	95	-	12,927	-	334	-	5,233	-	695	-	4,364	-	-
Other articles	-	146,813	-	4,458	-	156,985	-	2,544	-	143,389	-	2,226	-	106,791	-	866
Manufactures of—Copper	-	3,076,295	-	229,909	-	5,431,725	-	436,507	-	4,054,913	-	441,349	-	2,466,228	-	149,465
Brass	-	73,402	-	2,310	-	140,765	-	13,940	-	87,293	-	16,435	-	53,645	-	3,521
Tin	-	386,057	-	30,777	-	563,786	-	64,586	-	453,565	-	64,262	-	214,278	-	27,758
Pewter	-	24,866	-	1,831	-	47,228	-	2,248	-	37,390	-	4,966	-	20,156	-	1,628
Lead	-	32,555	-	680	-	61,814	-	888	-	43,944	-	771	-	24,288	-	148
Wood—Cabinet-ware	-	3,541	-	-	-	4,215	-	-	-	6,027	-	-	-	1,468	-	140

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Summary Statement of the Quantity and Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, imported into the United States in American and Foreign Vessels, commencing on the 1st of October, 1834, and ending on the 30th of September, 1839.—*continued.*

Species of Merchandise.	1834–1835.				1835–1836.				1836–1837.				1837–1838.			
	In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Merchandise paying specific duties.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.
Woollens—Flannels . . square yards	560,918	251,759	36,748	18,582	545,544	254,653	88,772	42,399	117,305	61,701	43,983	22,411	191,058	94,473	8,681	3,526
Bockings and baizes . . —	329,988	129,454	-	-	435,156	169,347	913	413	62,963	26,734	494	419	179,903	61,988	-	-
Carpeting—																
Brussels, Turkey, Wilton, and treble ingrained —	199,899	311,098	7,990	10,146	289,984	491,388	27,416	39,995	211,990	362,239	11,674	17,067	136,196	189,600	4,918	6,889
Other ingrain and Venetian . . —	382,821	256,230	32,990	23,052	541,236	395,794	73,049	51,198	301,267	228,797	32,067	24,396	163,740	115,982	7,473	4,490
Floor-cloth, patent, printed or painted . —	10,165	10,943	11,828	12,809	12,353	11,843	13,534	14,191	12,434	12,825	13,062	14,744	10,048	10,853	5,080	5,933
Oil-cloth, other than patent floor-cloth . —	9,731	3,607	36,367	7,988	14,246	5,305	42,868	11,600	12,743	4,628	51,056	14,093	10,700	4,096	73,383	19,445
Cotton bagging . . —	2,950,348	266,537	4,304,441	527,480	3,281,282	413,381	3,921,813	1,386,070	612,984	77,458	2,918,691	351,819	787,294	87,656	873,042	85,000
Wines—Madeira, in casks and bottles . gallons	396,809	291,245	25,019	27,902	325,977	239,141	19,130	21,880	277,895	210,979	40,160	42,259	309,995	271,979	521	1,056
Sherry . . —	188,261	227,703	-	-	230,264	267,254	44,274	46,591	202,213	226,977	1,210	1,360	91,492	104,925	1,800	1,980
Sicily . . —	84,149	82,369	16,651	4,429	69,716	161,204	108,691	46,426	190,263	82,566	66,977	30,079	285,578	105,687	34,806	14,258
Red, of France, in casks . —	917,409	381,997	495,111	210,052	1,119,742	570,658	754,203	316,911	453,080	115,056	902,837	218,880	515,736	116,046	680,364	161,284
Other of France . —	756,986	292,946	405,657	159,236	477,591	188,543	646,534	191,712	411,748	116,949	640,311	154,886	248,577	60,776	235,436	54,198
Of France, in bottles and cases —	265,438	276,577	66,577	44,426	494,912	1,034,414	187,454	180,000	223,160	223,721	221,202	242,564	209,723	209,874	52,765	52,765
Red, of Spain and Austria, in casks —	282,545	49,305	37,000	7,250	82,546	32,218	87,756	32,160	223,940	89,719	76,316	30,526	76,643	30,796	162,564	57,564
Other, of Spain, Austria, Germany, and the Mediterranean, in casks —	1,465,209	488,736	542,989	63,666	1,755,224	615,736	336,971	123,576	1,548,763	488,956	231,286	84,168	815,519	288,488	84,209	30,472
Of other countries, in casks —	696,259	275,288	142,418	50,220	444,732	163,215	60,908	27,000	464,491	208,272	160,264	70,488	446,688	195,760	178,223	113,982
in bottles —	15,389	27,012	20,045	4,411	15,586	25,072	7,286	14,511	23,566	65,160	21,741	60,041	14,224	32,105	5,957	16,654
Spirits from grain —	625,410	252,251	312,235	126,564	475,624	200,716	420,749	167,696	497,347	206,288	231,577	136,948	254,446	98,261	417,181	165,668
other materials —	2,275,709	1,005,253	230,192	101,722	1,577,598	1,180,096	707,764	488,884	1,210,824	777,263	642,999	436,999	1,558,229	725,196	494,794	307,640
Molasses . . —	13,853,989	2,945,988	717,658	165,241	17,886,177	3,965,947	3,413,813	91,465	16,089,804	3,569,993	369,278	81,710	21,033,578	3,951,944	182,855	33,588
Wines . . —	45,457	5,765	35,158	6,790	62,676	9,650	49,945	11,488	32,345	6,660	69,418	11,863	33,017	6,837	32,837	4,726
Beer, ale, or if porter, in casks —	3,665	1,784	1,930	988	2,218	1,099	198	107	2,794	1,254	1,548	978	3,924	2,000	4,736	2,368
in bottles —	55,719	63,540	47,198	49,998	36,530	39,758	49,198	51,000	24,198	28,068	69,399	69,399	71,744	78,778	49,498	49,498
Oil of foreign fishing—	1,000	1,000	-	-	200	200	100	100	14,795	7,000	-	-	2,000	2,000	-	-
of spermaceti —	1,000	400	2,500	1,000	1,000	400	527	211	2,000	800	-	-	1,000	400	-	-
Whale and other fish —	185,749	88,000	10,657	5,051	188,658	148,924	41,758	32,969	156,943	123,965	47,548	34,661	64,500	49,711	10,000	7,700
Olive, in casks —	414	1,242	17	51	514	1,542	-	-	11	33	-	-	11	33	24	72
Castor —	467,000	233,500	35,000	17,500	466,170	233,085	154,120	77,060	427,000	213,500	200,000	100,000	288,000	144,000	154,000	77,000
Linseed —	26	26	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	140	140	200	200
Hyperbolic —	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,750	1,750	-	-
Essential —	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,000	2,000	-	-
Teas, from other places than China and India . lbs.	2,145	1,073	400	154	220	110	1,000	400	2,000	1,000	12	6	1,000	500	-	-
Chocolate . . —	2,230	1,150	2,470	654	1,000	500	2,000	1,000	2,700	1,350	711	195	1,000	500	615	185
Spices—Brown . . —	397,260,259	5,555,765	4,416,000	286,000	178,252,400	11,220,212	7,295,042	534,000	114,672,270	5,853,450	5,945,760	304,000	188,800,000	4,720,000	2,200,000	100,000
White . . —	13,011,672	975,875	1,217,831	91,336	9,811,500	695,000	231,000	20,000	15,620,370	1,205,000	385,000	30,000	14,562,224	1,211,000	116,941	9,000
Leaf . . —	1,000	171	400	67	200	6	-	-	1,000	77	12	2	2,000	154	-	-
Cloves . . —	-	-	-	-	572	1,144	70	140	2,700	5,400	200	400	200	400	200	400
Other refined —	136	16	20	7	570	71	-	-	65	8	-	-	1,000	125	-	-
Syrup of sugar-cane . . —	-	-	-	-	200	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	162	41	-	-
Cayenne pepper . . —	14	2	20	3	200	30	-	-	20	3	20	3	200	30	-	-
Candles—Wax and spermaceti —	1,104	552	62	31	2,270	1,135	200	100	1,966	983	138	69	530	265	20	10
Tallow . . —	38,527	3,085	2,463	295	44,004	3,960	18,718	1,685	9,050	814	-	-	182,456	16,421	16	1
Cheese . . —	102,140	11,178	42,335	6,085	115,980	15,980	71,738	9,966	150,187	16,516	49,278	6,255	75,300	9,000	49,665	5,959
Soap . . —	206,723	29,765	81,250	6,512	221,006	34,286	251,731	19,000	220,470	32,766	6,107	915	245,104	36,765	196,100	9,795
Tallow . . —	327,602	21,154	21,942	1,559	122,252	8,417	2,730	217	230,238	14,899	21,568	1,598	1,304,716	91,340	1,015	100
Lard . . —	-	-	-	-	207,258	27,445	2,695	185	52,261	5,225	111	9	11	1	-	-
Beef and pork . . —	1,333,132	40,265	1,586	55	33,318	2,066	41,968	2,160	39,764	7,656	59,575	4,186	617,774	19,274	272,994	12,982
Bacon . . —	12,311	1,108	53,314	4,893	46,001	4,502	127,944	11,742	33,587	2,583	200,047	15,495	44,487	4,648	170,781	14,849
Butter . . —	1,941	387	1,136	136	94,062	11,027	73,951	9,000	33,581	5,597	45,009	6,148	6,224	731	6,500	867
Saltpetre . . —	12	6	236	24	1,130	60	-	-	1,180	62	-	-	630	31	-	-

Whiting, blue or Roman . lbs.	471	47	-	-	-	-	404	42	-	-	4,727	240	-	-	156	4
all of . . —	109	9	4,667	233	9	1	-	-	-	-	5,894	1,155	20	1	-	-
Salts, Epsom . . —	554	57	-	-	2,556	383	-	-	-	-	-	-	110	11	-	-
Glauber . . —	757	45	1,825	44	3,799	193	-	-	-	-	-	-	49	2	-	-
Tobacco, manufactured—Snuff . . —	830	208	451	188	5,562	4,715	672	995	5,772	4,238	444	208	4,689	4,721	695	513
Cigars . . thousands	69,562	864,251	16,779	172,394	86,495	986,595	6,469	66,972	105,150	1,176,188	5,000	47,541	76,885	801,127	4,648	39,916
other than snuff and cigars lbs.	641	52	2,934	330	946	60	702	215	306	101	1,954	315	617	68	1,798	572
Cotton . . —	1,750,127	207,297	9,975	1,004	1,496,645	226,514	120,745	19,796	1,109,940	168,104	188,445	32,988	1,451,360	182,148	78,398	9,844
Gunpowder . . —	39,240	11,919	230	132	65,970	19,726	3,988	1,362	22,256	6,011	13,641	5,057	23,440	6,815	5,000	925
Brimstone . . —	97,547	32,956	940	451	345,455	207,299	16,714	8,135	218,408	123,433	32,198	19,302	114,363	20,018	527	286
Glue . . —	29,849	6,264	-	-	4,210	440	1,469	151	27,523	2,877	3,891	495	185	18	998	103
Ochre, dry . . —	585,190	8,279	360,180	5,444	909,039	15,175	651,252	9,641	697,414	12,321	441,059	7,900	957,145	13,426	285,158	4,810
in oil . . —	6,775	337	5,686	400	4,656	236	9,376	486	-	-	51	12	2,019	134	486	37
Red and white lead . . —	615,531	26,798	216,914	18,627	647,745	44,541	260,257	17,886	328,071	25,804	271,909	21,712	295,106	20,791	234,575	17,002
Whiting and Paris white-	69,699	421	180,154	1,047	19,250	215	114,218	726	95,635	540	445,542	1,986	781	30	180,804	626
	4,201	252	1,193	60	1,250	124	25	2	1,700	118	17	2	3,952	181	50	4

Vitriol, blue or Roman	lbs	471	48	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
oil of	"	108	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Salts, Epsom	"	554	27	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Glauber	"	757	48	1,925	-	44	5,792	163	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	-
Tobacco, manufactured—Snuff	"	830	806	451	189	-	5,552	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	-	-	-	-	-
Cigars	thousands	59,562	664,351	16,779	172,252	2,556	85,498	2,566	6,469	98,572	105,150	1,170,189	5,000	47,541	76,665	801,147	4,622	10,276	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
other than snuff and cigars	lbs.	641	52	2,334	330	246	60	702	215	305	101	1,454	315	617	88	1,798	572	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cotton	"	1,750,127	297,297	5,975	1,004	1,496,645	235,514	120,745	18,798	1,109,940	166,104	188,445	22,286	1,451,269	182,148	78,268	8,844	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gunpowder	"	30,540	11,019	330	132	25,970	10,726	3,085	1,362	22,536	8,011	13,641	5,057	23,440	6,613	2,030	935	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bristles	"	97,547	32,506	940	481	345,455	107,899	16,714	5,195	218,409	123,432	32,196	19,302	114,263	20,018	527	205	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Glue	"	79,649	6,984	-	-	4,310	440	1,469	151	27,523	2,977	3,981	495	165	18	2,987	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ochre, dry	"	885,190	8,279	360,180	5,444	908,039	15,175	651,252	9,641	897,414	12,821	441,050	7,909	867,145	13,436	885,158	4,810	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
in oil	"	5,775	397	5,686	400	4,656	286	9,376	493	-	-	51	12	2,019	194	488	37	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Red and white lead	"	618,581	36,799	216,864	12,427	647,748	44,541	260,357	17,686	228,071	-	275,909	21,712	286,106	20,781	224,575	17,966	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Whiting and Paris white	"	69,689	421	190,154	1,047	19,230	315	114,218	720	96,635	540	465,542	1,966	781	20	180,804	956	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Litharge	"	5,421	253	1,198	60	2,059	124	25	7	1,790	116	17	3	3,362	181	56	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sugar of lead	"	297,894	27,207	31,430	3,166	164,501	14,791	100,560	10,091	108,963	10,783	246,085	25,287	107,326	9,821	95,706	8,655	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Lead, pig, bar, and sheet	"	363,325	34,944	23,647	719	201,336	24,426	17,749	787	223,911	13,434	11,811	437	108,344	4,364	59,800	2,219	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Shot	"	77,099	2,660	56	2	11,014	545	1,764	90	11,665	589	-	-	12	3	1,295	55	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pipes	"	4,559	615	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,261	115	-	-	7,435	486	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Old and scrap	"	574,016	9,324	138,419	5,099	40,699	1,010	21,298	599	100,340	2,945	27,611	714	48,790	1,431	10,796	268	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cordage, tarred, and cables	"	2,080,856	76,518	76,413	3,078	1,738,816	75,699	66,957	3,872	702,380	31,808	52,192	2,500	1,439,753	74,807	1,711	235	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
untarred, and yarn	"	151,268	5,589	1,163	196	142,501	5,486	5,112	486	256,547	11,088	6,108	466	185,718	8,789	3,196	1,134	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Twine, packthread, and nettes	"	545,472	32,310	185,105	26,251	584,382	207,297	267,334	61,452	605,071	164,739	212,221	39,079	295,440	73,464	57,261	14,674	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Corks	"	149,488	22,004	66,530	13,094	160,532	40,263	118,949	27,267	165,488	37,745	60,446	14,687	92,972	16,982	40,561	8,311	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Copper, rods and bolts	"	2,101	422	5,280	1,172	4,294	931	82	18	223	34	-	-	2,654	567	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
nails and spikes	"	6,292	1,218	1,088	334	4,962	806	-	-	4,445	1,057	-	-	2,411	762	178	46	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Firearms, muskets	No.	14,238	84,895	2,972	5,168	14,166	41,076	4,643	12,541	1,633	6,324	1,951	7,019	5,302	16,963	1,107	4,564	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
rifles	"	165	870	69	498	143	1,925	5	143	104	2,064	128	1,445	87	1,113	99	630	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wire—cap and bonnet	lbs.	23,906	2,910	208	21	9,786	1,349	275	46	1,532	273	-	-	1,977	1,004	122	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
iron and steel, not above No. 14	"	120,192	5,013	-	-	242,872	14,886	107,046	6,714	488,308	25,329	26,988	1,737	110,140	7,292	645	71	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
above No. 14	"	128,500	26,841	1,696	339	182,252	31,148	985	124	134,403	25,400	117	63	72,117	13,042	627	81	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Tacks, brads, and sprigs, not exceeding 16 oz. per 1,000	M.	8,810	1,593	30	7	9,764	2,171	242	45	3,240	693	255	34	3,908	826	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
exceeding 16 oz. per 1,000	lbs.	3,060	349	275	66	3,746	653	-	-	2,780	459	-	-	555	77	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Iron, nails	"	1,018,451	73,883	50,282	3,654	1,152,490	100,150	108,055	6,138	554,878	32,776	24,998	3,530	895,731	69,232	10,993	827	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spikes	"	151,907	5,747	28,087	1,138	227,386	12,089	67,929	3,715	702,333	36,389	272,116	12,624	193,753	9,696	159,320	8,266	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cables and chains	"	1,504,809	63,923	518,523	23,283	2,274,757	111,474	550,800	28,257	1,696,388	94,781	636,495	32,084	1,536,435	65,749	490,494	22,949	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mill cranks	No.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	235	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mill saws	"	2,946	5,492	109	214	3,382	12,972	270	864	2,946	9,702	167	589	1,619	5,199	133	574	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Anchors	lbs.	119,597	6,315	102,555	5,393	144,497	7,436	20,932	1,056	20,920	4,286	20,919	1,064	164,462	9,630	20,790	2,111	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Anvils	"	1,304,018	72,036	162,575	11,079	1,442,289	91,640	131,089	7,643	982,957	67,913	214,778	15,628	611,582	39,267	12,621	771	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Blacksmiths' hammers and sledges	"	112,822	5,227	8,109	397	161,385	8,534	19,064	948	20,563	4,393	13,988	860	68,908	3,234	832	49	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Castings, vessels of	"	389,601	12,799	172,695	6,736	485,486	22,736	314,994	10,686	389,719	18,998	117,643	4,186	300,982	10,188	447,100	10,130	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
all other	"	1,462,980	44,178	98,808	2,048	1,197,308	40,497	87,286	3,714	1,648,531	52,990	549,833	18,694	1,261,164	46,455	81,332	2,917	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Round, as brasiers' rods, of 3-16 to 8-16 in. diam.	"	185,594	8,675	62,071	1,769	497,767	23,269	40,050	1,505	428,234	21,032	17,895	770	317,234	16,008	2,240	45	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Nail or spike rods, or nail plates, slit, rolled, or hammered	"	5,702	244	-	-	14,469	529	10,456	772	1,054	33	-	-	3,191	94	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Band iron, scroll iron, or casement rods	"	85	5	-	-	127	6	-	-	488	26	-	-	109,703	2,379	12,295	283	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sheet and hoop	"	4,170,691	195,738	307,314	7,896	7,857,239	304,736	557,961	20,948	10,845,685	497,574	448,018	16,569	5,428,021	201,844	211,775	6,349	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pipe	"	207,594	244,886	84,383	44,670	184,552	197,005	46,370	25,273	214,912	224,881	67,650	68,088	203,752	207,241	40,106	31,778	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Old and scrap	"	9,189	8,072	3,637	3,537	17,810	17,395	7,243	6,529	11,040	13,168	4,295	5,223	4,980	4,470	2,726	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bar, manufactured by rolling	"	482,945	915,357	85,959	154,795	739,424	1,373,581	191,080	458,247	716,611	1,389,020	240,181	694,347	623,629	1,579,240	93,857	245,862	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
otherwise	"	880,252	1,008,549	260,362	634,810	491,974	1,329,475	226,778	661,789	404,963	1,204,204	221,549	713,042	294,606	787,987	141,763	378,940	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Steel	"	36,045	468,822	14,071	168,165	45,083	573,171	12,477	152,970	54,295	737,457	6,889	87,860	32,261	432,076	5,884	66,256	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hemp	"	83,809	456,744	13,254	72,237	152,017	787,943	15,173	87,715	78,250	442,178	6,715	41,630	31,271	518,373	20	136	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Alum	"	-	-	-	-	2	-	262	1,077	216	900	1,169	2,837	600	2,852	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Copperas	"	105	142	-	-	32	39	181	150	-	-	-	-	25	25	88	44	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wheat flour	cwt.	18,349	44,090	10,134	25,948	63,522	53,055	9,209	9,276	22,864	25,022	7,825	27,629	5,989	23,150	6,742	21,118	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Salt	bushels	3,761,186	430,852	1,614,176	224,245	3,300,500	456,319	1,798,166	268,209	4,977,351	647,211	1,398,455	215,406	5,859,614	826,956	1,243,533	201,463	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Coal	"	1,045,170	97,495	633,949	65,962	2,148,074	194,917	890,009	80,079	3,435,290	297,605	842,308	76,474	3,047,835	255,647	566,495	52,944	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Wheat	"	12,846	26,629	115,923	100,018	263,884	208,428	220,014	186,677	1,586,389	1,329,954	2,234,270	2,324,261	464,769	484,995	422,767	411,576	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Oats	"	2,777	910	4,683	1,511	134,369	55,833	27,388	7,513	5,638	2,256	401	245	4,718	1,899	1,197	795	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Potatoes	"	44,621	15 987	161,565	42,434	17,229	5,545	63,052	22,089	11,493	5,075	25,379	15,148	14,656	6,731	39,544	13,790	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Summary Statement of the Quantity and Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, imported into the United States in American and Foreign Vessels, commencing on the 1st of October, 1834, and ending on the 30th of September, 1838 —*continued.*

Species of Merchandise.		1834-1835.				1835-1836.				1836-1837.				1837-1838.			
		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.		In American Vessels.		In Foreign Vessels.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Merchandise paying specific duties.			D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.
Paper—Folio and quarto post	lbs.	36,295	16,145	2,290	1,290	50,084	20,985	2,622	808	26,596	15,841	3,111	1,042	23,449	11,315	1,977	375
Foolscap, drawing and writing	—	346,294	82,590	7,178	1,284	488,282	80,755	168,234	24,170	218,522	34,801	40,777	6,405	133,929	19,656	612,191	76,319
Printing, copperplate, and stainers'	—	13,326	3,009	6,638	1,271	1,010	539	-	-	2,676	649	2,367	677	4,629	1,136	227	52
Sheathing, binders', wrapping, &c.	—	2,153	1,353	2,919	1,326	4,635	736	10,751	850	8,911	2,074	740	91	29,312	2,814	32,464	2,050
All other	—	92,726	24,844	6,414	1,949	54,733	22,104	5,330	1,752	31,418	14,118	5,920	1,484	24,377	10,907	2,662	638
Books, printed prior to 1775	vols.	7,137	10,112	191	237	9,903	11,896	37	43	2,400	3,071	45	40	2,080	2,085	-	-
in other languages than Eng., Latin, & Greek	—	65,731	35,581	8,084	4,035	116,070	78,231	29,011	18,979	108,420	72,153	23,946	25,493	76,124	58,107	25,929	19,598
in Greek and Latin, bound	lbs.	2,262	2,145	706	665	4,164	4,262	644	970	2,262	1,928	1,086	1,464	708	881	340	410
unbound	—	6,154	5,978	1,104	638	4,499	4,034	1,356	702	6,490	4,338	1,237	780	2,229	1,577	345	254
All other, bound	—	23,685	36,406	583	504	32,196	51,855	305	240	25,622	46,836	113	87	15,169	19,573	630	574
unbound	—	75,196	78,823	1,959	1,652	87,364	92,089	918	681	56,149	59,701	547	501	64,182	72,963	1,018	1,091
Apothecaries' vials, &c., not exceeding 6 oz. each	gross	169	317	360	543	184	1,012	30	93	169	769	36	111	116	599	34	80
above 6, and not above 16 oz.	—	19	143	30	55	28	163	1	23	14	102	6	12	100	599	-	-
Perfumery and fancy vials and bottles—																	
Not exceeding 4 oz. each	—	65	314	30	206	75	1,613	19	241	60	325	47	293	46	286	12	9
Exceeding 4, and not exceeding 16 oz. each	—	1	2	-	-	1	52	-	-	8	88	-	-	10	194	-	-
Demijohns	No.	25,792	11,637	34,219	9,670	40,341	13,531	33,604	9,787	43,332	13,610	26,136	10,371	31,812	10,306	17,542	4,695
Glass bottles, black, not above 1 quart	gross	16,590	31,456	7,349	14,891	29,833	165,594	18,269	98,960	25,162	152,760	22,864	114,091	14,672	84,299	12,810	63,894
above 1 quart	—	99	605	76	1,239	34	225	-	292	25	158	49	292	8	78	2	12
Window glass, not exceeding 8 by 10 inches	100 sq. ft.	756	3,377	204	979	1,949	9,295	634	3,198	678	2,594	1,034	4,288	316	1,257	541	2,232
Exceeding 8 by 10, and not exceeding 10 by 12 in.	—	2,873	12,280	619	2,783	2,389	15,221	305	2,712	1,510	6,295	1,568	6,978	382	1,727	649	2,663
Exceeding 10 by 12 inches	—	11,741	68,489	5,063	49,111	15,602	91,208	5,980	60,186	5,086	37,363	3,426	33,895	2,230	23,659	2,212	23,270
Fish, dried or smoked	quintals	589	6,411	760	7,014	682	3,580	1,180	8,618	1,348	9,086	895	4,482	1,257	8,756	748	4,355
Salmon	barrels	975	10,211	1,571	18,385	957	11,074	2,019	24,810	2,172	20,851	1,371	19,574	2,498	40,565	1,352	18,908
Mackerel	—	4,494	17,079	3,089	12,287	2,714	17,234	2,323	19,246	606	5,257	650	3,832	25	172	157	1,423
All other	—	983	6,927	2,151	8,508	1,904	14,175	3,180	16,589	1,849	12,513	1,982	12,315	1,090	7,818	2,431	13,957
Shoes and slippers—Silk	pairs	9,853	6,352	1,004	519	8,541	6,910	2,374	1,132	6,362	5,719	677	353	3,708	2,030	1,691	1,031
Prunella, morocco, &c.	—	683	395	72	26	1,089	804	-	-	563	388	-	-	548	456	695	546
Leather, kid, and morocco	—	70,295	41,674	633	347	62,408	40,754	10,532	6,942	69,152	46,488	11,361	5,986	27,296	19,016	7,440	4,895
Children's	—	5,235	1,203	56	43	3,533	1,319	2,191	676	6,986	2,050	2,989	713	3,861	1,367	148	41
Boots and bootees—	—	2,408	7,802	372	607	3,474	9,321	282	548	8,316	25,157	667	2,104	9,008	25,305	1,185	2,330
Playing cards	packs	528	45	2,440	95	31	19	364	44	3,107	257	7	4	16,194	778	2,451	39
Felts, or hat bodies of wool, &c.	No.	24	9	302	54	1,908	360	361	45	416	398	160	14	200	80	660	432
Total value of merchandise paying specific duties		-	22,110,086	-	4,027,428	-	82,058,362	-	6,541,804	-	26,505,083	-	7,517,149	-	22,470,135	-	3,396,784
Do. do. ad valorem duties		-	43,227,372	-	2,580,368	-	54,861,574	-	4,481,814	-	34,048,146	-	3,088,828	-	25,016,199	-	2,040,281
Do. do. free of duty		-	69,951,407	-	7,998,086	-	84,756,508	-	7,299,975	-	51,623,364	-	7,636,647	-	55,607,114	-	5,842,291
Total		-	135,288,865	-	14,605,877	-	171,666,443	-	18,323,593	-	122,177,193	-	18,242,624	-	103,087,448	-	10,429,356

Value of Merchandise, the Produce of Foreign Countries, imported during the Four Years commencing on the 1st of October, 1834, and ending on the 30th of September, 1838.

Whence imported.	Free of duty.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.	Free of duty.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.	Free of duty.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.	Free of duty.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total
	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.
Russia	703,850	883,382	922,013	2,509,245	771,848	751,617	1,255,089	2,778,554	872,242	676,264	1,267,510	2,816,116	432,251	701,034	765,111	1,898,396
Prussia	18,422	12,189	7,522	38,543	21,180	33,749	26,267	81,201	239,791	6,833	249,105	497,829	6,697	-	-	6,699
Sweden and Norway	613	6,738	1,277,827	1,285,178	1,536	1,338	2,239,921	1,243,199	2,973	4,853	1,392,075	1,399,901	11,727	941	842,102	854,771
Swedish West Indies	26,607	35	4,668	31,330	16,263	54	40,087	56,414	30,134	31	38,812	68,977	20,394	101	15,524	46,019
Denmark	48,549	38,090	34,361	121,000	22,116	3,451	20,404	48,971	40,005	13,559	49,354	102,918	12,750	823	13,561	27,134
Danish West Indies	992,977	40,425	912,660	1,926,062	249,758	79,610	1,436,861	1,766,229	257,903	20,326	785,966	1,164,087	349,529	69,305	1,228,908	1,647,742
Holland	891,074	136,910	662,586	1,690,570	950,457	177,091	700,683	1,828,231	659,254	147,916	1,073,736	1,880,976	374,167	122,843	691,987	1,190,997
Dutch East Indies	644,178	87,507	68,705	800,388	1,014,259	885	462,762	1,477,906	608,342	2,389	406,436	1,017,759	320,475	7,353	248,668	576,396
Dutch West Indies	295,725	2,483	183,132	481,340	293,339	7,303	231,264	531,906	275,910	1,953	141,244	419,107	210,916	1,489	170,206	382,561
Dutch Guiana	4,727	-	26,683	31,420	310	-	33,161	33,471	939	-	44,037	44,976	1,477	-	53,177	54,654
Belgium	123,030	141,306	77,731	341,967	205,800	164,746	108,463	480,009	241,805	147,709	159,495	549,009	104,236	74,421	61,271	239,928
England	18,783,943	34,325,013	5,556,033	58,665,989	24,250,154	43,196,094	5,313,465	72,759,713	11,758,068	23,823,893	5,178,102	40,760,063	19,513,302	18,784,497	5,883,956	44,181,755
Scotland	636,503	369,151	611,994	1,617,648	745,663	265,336	1,341,998	2,375,899	405,712	245,271	523,497	1,198,110	257,014	185,841	301,310	744,165
Ireland	444,121	44,323	54,448	542,880	366,998	26,342	55,016	508,356	78,423	10,338	43,015	131,776	33,516	4,912	36,734	75,162
Gibraltar	50,587	2,298	107,365	160,200	102,437	3,005	80,536	245,978	123,613	2,842	80,818	207,173	733	310	24,521	25,564
Malta	31,491	258	118	31,867	25,104	783	8,504	34,390	24,872	379	11,210	35,961	5,636	10	11,220	16,866
British East Indies	1,003,223	642,745	51,025	1,697,043	1,405,021	1,267,712	181,143	2,854,476	1,730,654	1,094,323	226,968	3,041,945	512,673	187,576	5,338	975,431
British West Indies	822,935	12,134	317,286	1,152,347	695,013	41,779	556,495	1,293,287	1,102,182	27,871	321,469	1,451,572	1,450,516	31,155	154,177	1,635,848
British North American colonies	511,548	83,326	540,252	1,135,168	1,640,175	143,585	843,831	2,627,671	1,431,608	162,516	625,241	2,219,263	1,071,894	189,280	374,897	1,635,570
Honduras	135,230	39,611	119	174,960	193,585	21,777	30	215,392	180,340	22,178	108	202,624	198,827	1,610	11	201,448
British Guiana	2,429	87	2,079	5,595	8,446	-	83,574	92,019	6,074	71	99	6,244	23,156	198	12,701	36,043

Danish West Indies	226,277	6,423	232,700	1,292,902	249,795	79,610	1,495,961	1,525,269	257,803	20,326	765,994	1,164,087	349,639	29,303	1,223,805	1,617,747
Holland	891,074	136,810	562,646	1,590,570	950,457	177,091	700,648	1,828,231	695,354	147,916	1,078,706	1,926,976	374,167	125,943	681,987	1,180,097
Dutch East Indies	644,176	87,507	68,705	800,388	1,014,259	885	462,762	1,477,906	606,342	2,989	408,436	1,018,768	320,475	7,353	548,569	876,396
Dutch West Indies	295,725	2,483	183,132	481,340	293,339	7,303	221,264	521,906	275,910	-1,953	141,244	419,107	210,916	1,468	170,206	382,591
Dutch Guiana	4,727	-	26,693	31,420	310	-	33,161	33,471	939	-	44,037	44,976	1,477	-	53,177	54,354
Belgium	123,000	141,206	77,731	341,937	205,909	164,746	109,463	480,009	241,805	147,709	159,495	549,009	104,236	74,421	91,271	270,928
England	18,783,943	34,225,013	5,556,033	58,565,989	24,250,154	43,196,094	5,315,465	75,761,713	11,758,068	23,889,869	5,178,909	40,826,757	12,513,809	18,784,987	5,863,856	44,191,251
Scotland	638,503	389,151	511,994	1,539,648	745,563	295,336	1,341,998	2,375,899	403,712	255,271	529,427	1,188,110	287,014	166,541	201,810	654,365
Ireland	444,121	44,323	54,448	542,890	366,096	96,342	55,016	508,356	78,423	10,338	43,015	131,776	33,516	4,912	36,734	75,162
Gibraltar	50,587	2,298	107,365	160,200	102,437	3,005	90,536	245,978	193,513	2,842	80,916	307,173	793	310	24,521	25,624
Malta	31,491	258	418	31,967	25,104	732	8,104	34,390	24,572	378	11,210	35,961	5,836	10	11,320	16,866
British East Indies	1,003,923	642,745	51,925	1,697,593	1,405,521	1,367,712	151,143	2,924,376	1,720,653	1,094,281	226,989	3,041,942	512,873	187,578	5,338	675,531
British West Indies	822,935	12,124	317,288	1,152,347	685,013	41,779	558,436	1,285,227	1,102,122	27,671	321,469	1,451,262	1,450,516	31,156	154,177	1,635,848
British North American colonies	511,548	83,369	540,272	1,435,189	1,640,175	143,565	643,831	2,427,571	1,431,506	162,516	325,241	2,269,263	1,071,894	189,289	374,887	1,635,570
Honduras	135,230	39,611	119	174,960	193,695	21,777	30	215,502	180,340	22,178	106	202,624	199,827	1,610	11	201,448
British Guiana	2,439	87	3,079	5,525	8,445	-	83,574	92,019	6,074	71	93	6,244	23,156	186	12,701	36,043
Cape of Good Hope	20,628	-	21,127	41,755	23,267	-	498	24,765	91,829	230	1,340	93,399	3,948	-	3,086	12,034
Other British colonies	-	-	-	-	13,913	79,046	190	93,079	2,286	2,190	-	4,476	-	-	-	-
Hanse Towns, and other ports of Germany	2,091,973	1,578,101	171,989	3,841,943	2,244,186	1,258,801	481,882	4,984,870	1,866,482	2,027,994	1,697,745	5,642,221	1,272,409	1,084,199	481,758	2,847,358
French Atlantic ports	15,117,636	4,396,146	1,942,596	21,446,378	24,961,531	6,769,498	2,917,292	34,648,321	12,851,986	5,922,057	2,447,443	20,521,486	11,713,175	3,287,367	1,722,976	16,823,118
French Mediterranean ports	686,765	232,246	643,966	1,468,998	822,658	305,269	749,209	1,967,136	447,884	410,616	703,618	1,562,118	393,940	293,196	251,819	948,955
French West Indies	184,618	256	252,340	447,208	136,349	688	280,318	417,355	163,938	2,252	247,413	414,003	104,856	103	205,091	310,050
French Guiana	-	-	-	-	1,713	-	1,770	3,483	-	-	-	-	2,024	-	3,278	5,302
Spanish Atlantic ports	138,932	14,723	315,314	468,969	151,618	54,987	567,203	773,708	55,063	82,647	277,157	415,467	91,652	634	141,914	234,200
Spanish Mediterranean ports	448,735	9,141	368,833	826,709	1,041,057	81,931	567,793	1,690,781	1,335,922	28,507	567,200	1,931,629	538,923	7,603	321,805	868,336
Teneriffe and other Canaries	72,130	11	124,721	196,862	100,189	6	103,758	203,953	109,541	-	145,735	255,276	65,524	17	85,895	151,436
Manilla and Philippine Islands	232,207	20,596	161,013	413,815	294,139	30,128	470,063	803,330	553,751	129,603	454,091	1,136,435	223,415	33,493	119,680	376,588
Cuba	4,311,046	277,261	6,758,308	11,346,615	3,066,794	419,871	9,248,210	12,734,875	5,286,635	282,834	6,927,083	12,447,923	3,923,303	261,259	7,509,551	11,694,813
Other Spanish West Indies	351,620	36,090	1,976,460	2,364,170	48,087	53,516	3,127,440	3,229,043	340,123	24,790	2,116,169	2,481,082	204,033	1,695	2,430,494	2,636,152
Portugal	73,292	286	474,417	547,974	10,205	3	265,065	275,273	22,183	177	155,303	187,643	27,250	80	269,534	296,864
Madeira	3,838	1,980	626,167	631,266	14,980	1,923	349,908	366,810	2,227	323	688,782	677,782	11,763	711	253,800	266,274
Fayal and other Azores	12,998	43	14,337	26,678	10,439	27	6,908	17,374	11,115	51	17,857	29,023	7,665	1,085	24,088	32,746
Cape de Verd Islands	18,908	-	989	19,795	13,618	-	195	13,813	37,823	73	947	38,843	26,043	89	3,042	29,174
Italy	1,037,961	296,961	124,055	1,457,977	1,221,776	664,110	184,360	1,870,246	1,141,806	325,950	358,325	1,827,181	578,936	178,756	188,546	944,238
Sicily	211,423	29,461	33,684	274,548	431,335	50,431	160,324	642,090	323,653	2,581	85,515	411,249	254,698	27,708	62,956	345,362
Sardinia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	533	698	3,588	4,514	220	631	-	851
Trieste, and other Austrian Adriatic ports	234,540	59,931	98,098	392,567	698,558	196,720	124,426	1,020,098	253,478	89,491	236,496	579,465	253,295	7,168	11,851	272,314
Turkey, Levant, &c.	358,495	30,018	18,040	387,553	927,092	30,116	25,193	975,371	490,980	187,498	44,683	683,161	263,197	18,949	14,490	296,636
Morocco and Barbary States	-	-	-	-	39,221	-	-	39,221	26,759	1,294	13,698	110,751	10,150	-	24	10,174
Greece	20,190	6,723	7,736	34,651	23,507	231	2,243	32,981	10,616	-	-	10,616	-	-	-	-
Hayti	2,574,553	68,949	4,074	2,347,556	1,712,657	111,578	8,754	1,888,019	1,389,888	41,231	9,709	1,440,858	1,310,323	60,727	4,702	1,375,752
Texas	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15,515	-	168,384	183,894	5,695	1,059	158,964	165,718
Mexico	9,229,096	22,474	236,876	9,490,446	5,338,762	38,927	238,130	5,615,819	5,629,737	19,568	13,709	5,654,002	2,448,823	24,397	2,800,709	5,300,029
Central Republic	200,283	15,067	100	215,450	173,761	30,543	1,000	195,304	109,401	64,258	43	163,402	149,064	6,064	486	155,614
Colombia	1,321,078	325,084	16,608	1,662,764	1,290,279	306,595	97,786	1,696,660	1,292,712	182,376	92,257	1,567,345	1,403,621	107,706	14,128	1,515,249
Brazil	5,150,365	3,994	620,107	5,774,466	5,596,042	3,389	1,608,759	7,210,190	4,730,078	2,304	259,608	4,991,993	2,754,786	2,747	433,708	3,191,236
Argentine Republic	818,701	5,388	54,532	878,618	1,041,782	6,480	6,291	1,053,503	968,212	3,568	17,711	989,492	936,148	4,521	69,339	1,010,008
Cisplatine Republic	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,160	-	359	10,510	17,295	-	1,348	18,831
Chili	912,882	2,408	1,825	917,095	799,124	12,360	23	811,497	1,173,088	5,976	1,062	1,180,156	929,418	2,194	9,782	942,095
Peru	1,108,410	1,298	7,970	1,116,278	154,730	-	1,101	155,831	906,355	1,673	1,390	909,418	632,140	1,297	-	633,437
China	4,784,838	1,094,941	107,408	5,987,187	5,877,526	1,523,930	123,370	7,524,816	6,360,866	2,491,960	122,811	8,975,337	3,636,623	1,102,749	25,164	4,764,536
Sandwich Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6,601	6,601	-	-	-	-
Australasia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16,832	31,823	-	48,655	5,369	25,145	-	30,536
South America, generally	79	-	16	95	-	-	-	-	139	-	-	139	-	-	-	-
Africa, generally	678,640	973	1,926	680,821	677,428	3,427	5,484	686,339	956,220	6,850	16,007	709,077	537,556	4,926	169	541,931
Asia, generally	94,339	2	483	94,824	245,918	-	30	245,948	165,060	-	20,781	96,841	184,819	30	27,242	212,091
West Indies, generally	-	-	-	-	-	-	4,460	4,460	2,183	-	-	2,183	120	-	97	217
North-west coast of America	-	-	-	-	17,939	36	-	17,975	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
South Seas	55,963	12,752	5,268	74,003	1,090	-	36	1,126	40,345	1,197	63	41,605	53,401	295	1,975	55,681
Uncertain places	2,351	7,701	221	10,273	103	539	257	1,899	2,570	620	2,071	5,261	19,280	72,073	5,533	97,186
Total	77,940,493	45,817,740	36,157,500	149,915,743	92,056,481	59,243,286	32,690,166	183,990,035	69,950,031	37,716,274	34,023,812	140,989,217	63,990,005	27,090,490	25,768,918	116,777,404

Summary Statement of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, of the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of Foreign Countries, exported from the United States, commencing on the 1st day of October, 1834, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1838.

Species of Merchandise.	Quantity. [1834-5.]	Value.	Quantity. [1835-6.]	Value.	Quantity. [1836-7.]	Value.	Quantity. [1837-8.]	Value.
Merchandise free of Duty.		D.		D.		D.		D.
Specimens of botany		-		-		-		30
Lapis calaminaris, bitumen, spelter or zinc		2,282		2,405		2,405		2,944
Burr stones, unwrought		320		320				
Brimstone and sulphur		4,141		77,468		5,806		7,748
Bark of the cork tree		60		147				
Bags of any kind of cloth		-		2,620		824		
Unmanufactured furs		6,280		20,526		23,780		12,980
Hides and skins, raw		25,594		302,295		527,174		26,504
Marble		60		1,072				
Wood, dye		469,547		547,728		547,988		288,680
Unenumerated mahogany, and other		107,480		87,280		111,806		110,207
Animals		-		2,000		1,830		
Tin, in pigs and bars		-		1,272		80,132		84,972
in plates and sheets		280		2,052		24,547		27,080
Brass, in pigs and bars		-		-		10,164		
Oil		-		60		6		1,172
Copper, in pigs and bars		10,284		2,200		41,585		22,746
in plates suited to the sheathing of ships only, fit only to be manufactured		22,518		15,622		52,480		24,260
		7,272		224		15,262		12,286
Bullion, Gold		-		26,777		101,545		
Silver		-		52,625		5,260		2,580
Specie, Gold		625,670		275,940		1,285,883		740,980
Silver		5,132,625		2,484,186		5,756,514		3,882,348
Teas, originally imported from China, &c. lbs.	2,880,746	826,540	1,886,240	660,184	3,630,020	995,284	2,485,202	885,202
Coffee lbs.	11,446,775	1,283,777	16,143,207	1,845,178	22,696,202	1,922,254	5,807,027	802,207
Cocoa	2,573,568	370,585	2,867,080	380,722	5,252,416	705,581	2,052,260	241,075
Fruits—Almonds	82,036	8,280	121,815	16,825	123,079	13,894	21,220	3,051
Currants	4,428	454	6,752	784	1,768	180	4,288	460
Prunes	6,613	1,015	18,062	2,260	19,708	1,720	4,248	722
Figs	128,252	8,280	21,227	2,400	23,050	2,284	5,542	838
Raisins, Muscatel	126,105	16,280	206,550	26,247	620,076	46,286	226,720	17,216
All other	2,220	342	24,788	2,401	208,086	10,756	28,210	1,288
Spices—Mace	2,220	2,446	215	220	13,625	11,242		
Nutmegs	20,057	25,286	20,642	27,426	726	982	227	282
Cinnamon	42,727	15,121	21,727	24,260	64,966	44,460	25,226	20,284
Cloves	62,288	13,148	12,720	2,280	23,194	5,288	21,264	6,776
Black pepper	1,467,881	118,178	2,246,414	180,944	2,287,722	206,520	2,448,241	177,215
Pimento	1,124,080	87,284	2,183,478	169,291	2,140,212	126,817	871,258	65,478
Cassia	434,281	60,095	480,226	62,510	701,040	98,727	153,022	13,420
Ginger	8,481	728	272,118	26,218	142,252	12,442	32,212	2,120
Camphor	46	38	-	-	125,570	46,756	45,240	18,128
Silks other than India, lace veils, shawls, shades, &c.		1,470		20,784		52,822		14,286
Other manufactures of		227,285		245,281		256,512		220,288
Manufactures of silk and worsted		-		822		7,284		2,118
Camlets of goats' or camels' hair, as exclusive of Thibet		-		720		4,770		4,260
Worsted and stuff goods		12,845		26,207		30,209		54,514
Linens, bleached and unbleached		255,618		270,262		226,709		227,444
Ticklenburgs, osnaburgs, and burlaps		204,655		91,185		19,280		20,791
Sheeting, brown and white		216,200		228,028		260,284		176,791
Wool, unmanufactured, costing 8 cts. or less per lb. lbs.		-	127,680	21,275		-	27,270	5,280
Quicksilver		-		249,276		184,510		68,760
Opium		22,272		205,512		105,720		16,618
Crude saltpetre		47,580		178,101		144,225		22,760
All other articles		2,256,280		1,051,760		1,856,210		1,181,286
Total	-	12,760,240	-	12,515,498	-	12,448,210	-	7,208,411

Summary Statement of the Quantity and Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, of the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of Foreign Countries, exported from the United States, commencing on the 1st day of October, 1834, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1838.

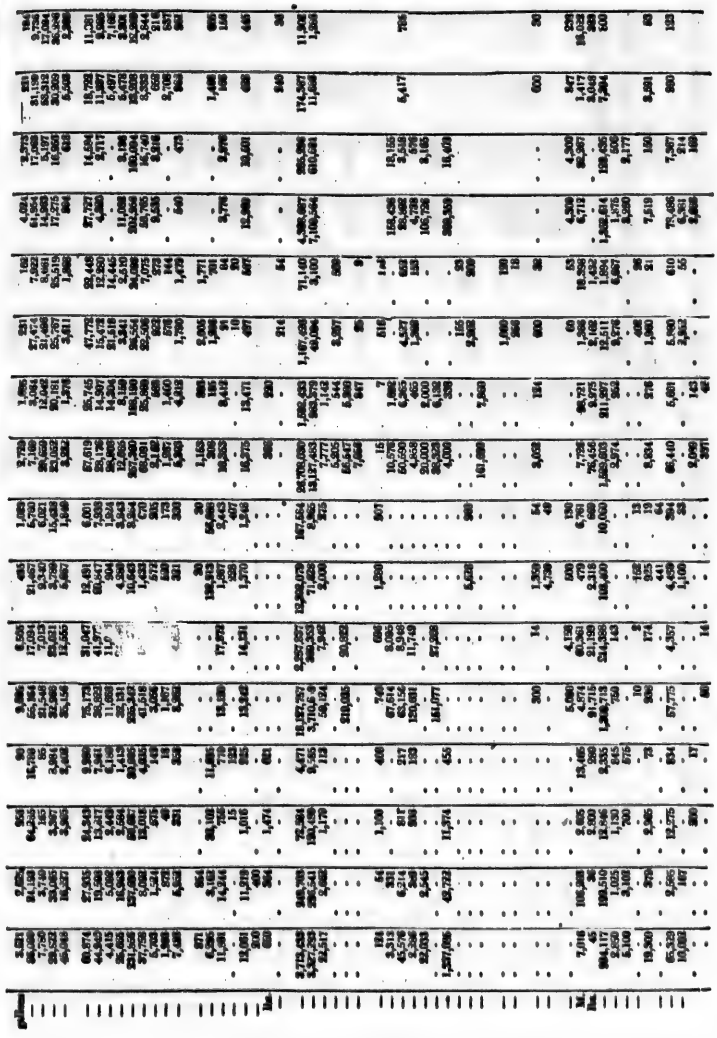
Species of Merchandise.	1834-1835.				1835-1836.				1836-1837.				1837-1838.			
	Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.		Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.		Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.		Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Merchandise paying duties ad val vem.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.
Manufactures of wool—Cloths and cassimeres	- -	193,921	- -	30,970	- -	249,424	- -	5,261	- -	287,960	- -	14,445	- -	146,791	- -	6,105
Merinos shawls	- -	1,200	- -	-	- -	8,511	- -	5,554	- -	-	- -	208	- -	1,200	- -	754
Blankets, not above 75 cents each	- -	-	- -	-	- -	1,274	- -	970	- -	2,541	- -	1,282	- -	2,072	- -	2,000
above 75 cents each	- -	21,198	- -	5,714	- -	10,562	- -	2,280	- -	15,781	- -	5,766	- -	4,072	- -	4,640
Hosiery, gloves, mitts, and bindings	- -	1,577	- -	155	- -	888	- -	-	- -	715	- -	-	- -	258	- -	150
	- -	2,474	- -	126												

Summary Statement of the Quantity and Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, of the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of Foreign Countries, exported from the United States, commencing on the 1st day of October, 1834, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1838.

Species of Merchandise.	1834-1835.				1835-1836.				1836-1837.				1837-1838.			
	Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.		Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.		Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.		Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Merchandise paying duties ad val ores.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.
Manufactures of wool—Cloths and cassimeres		193,981		30,970		249,424		5,261		287,998		14,445		146,791		6,105
Merino shawls		1,200				2,511		2,554				308		1,200		754
Blankets, not above 75 cents each						1,274		970		2,641		1,008		2,078		2,026
above 75 cents each		21,198		5,714		10,582		2,289		14,338		4,708		8,972		4,640
Hosiery, gloves, mitts, and bindings		137		156		882				715				288		160
Worsted and stuff goods		2,474		198												
Other manufactures of		24,880		5,709		36,788		1,880		77,200		1,891		1,276		1,116
Woollen yarn lbs.						1,730		52	45,095	20,131	2,000	1,000				
Worsted yarn						585		113						850		255
Manufactures of cotton—Dyed, printed, or coloured		2,011,993		286,649		1,598,072		72,093		1,974,171		139,256		774,671		52,040
White		891,594		201,797		607,486		52,376		304,719		47,872		202,169		44,394
Hosiery, gloves, mitts, and bindings		23,033		10,051		15,754		985		37,731		3,629		10,834		2,912
Twist, yarn, or thread, &c.		75,884		11,305		77,068		1,108		84,956		1,800		27,981		1,777
Nankeens, direct from China		49,147		15,054		14,733		1,733		21,647		3,057		20,814		4,562
Other manufactures of		16,169		3,596		11,768		640		41,449		20,961		9,327		1,852
Sewing silk from Europe, &c.		2,625		157		819		242		1,050				6,377		675
Silks from India, China, &c.—Piece goods		344,710		98,488		413,455		25,085		677,985		72,884		351,789		16,585
Hosiery, gloves, mitts, and bindings		1,251		185						4,850		5,010				
Sewing silk		2,976		288		2,448				12,698				7,947		
Other manufactures of		22,194		12,994		24,969		1,240		6,711		788				
Lace veils, &c.						1,795		113								
of thread and cotton		30,678		11,581		61,541		9,886		15,088		4,146		25,589		4,546
Flaxen goods—Dyed and coloured linens, checks, &c.		14,548		686		6,146		403		27,598		11,289		20,049		5,411
Linens, bleached and unbleached		67,496		2,043		14,951		151		1,419						
Ticklenburgs, osnaburgs, and burlaps		913														
Other manufactures of		11,491		2,745		50,198		6,206		5,873		6,161		2,558		922
Hempen goods—Sail-duck		110,897		2,451		156,300		4,814		75,208		10,187		42,191		3,500
Russia sheetings		3,114		3,420						250		684				
Other manufactures of		10,285		1,733		5,276		2,242		6,584		23,286		2,580		4,228
Hats and bonnets—Leghorn, chip, straw, grass flats, &c.		28,979		20,472		19,758		3,433		20,977		4,060		15,687		15,146
Fur, wool, and leather		268		1,193		1,812		326		1,190		640		1,506		430
Manufactures of iron and steel—Sidearms		6,562		268		4,177		1,249		4,705		1,451		949		92
Firearms, not specified		14,084		4,277		12,647		697		19,228		1,729		405		268
Cutting-knives		1,224				2,344		276		1,358		286		125		
Socket chisels																268
Hatchets, axes, and adzes		444				180		187		100						
Steelyards and scalebeams		28						268								
Vices												15				
Scythes										1,948		9				
Spades and shovels		1,313						275		1,115				797		197
Other articles		87,118		88,977		53,110		97,261		64,196		47,466		23,682		24,141
Manufactures of—Copper		4,853		30		1,277		268		3,269		4,453				1,863
Brass		1,134		792		5,526		2,670		7,176		2,470		1,647		19,927
Tin				71		1,510		2,288		1,045		200				268
Pewter														527		169
Lead						4,882				2,529		40				120
Wood—cabinet ware		1,253		464		1,250		1,614		295		1,301		1,770		1,531
other articles		5,573		7,446		5,946		3,408		2,278		1,357		985		7,025
Leather		8,173		5,137		2,981		119		6,271		1,558		6,590		1,571
Marble		250				173				5,295				295		95
Gold and silver, and precious stones, not or otherwise		35,677		1,523		5,808		11,307		30,348		33,375		18,288		12,198

Summary Statement of the Quantity and Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, of the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of Foreign Countries, exported from the United States, commencing on the 1st day of October, 1834, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1838.

Species of Merchandise.		1834–1835.				1835–1836.				1836–1837.				1837–1838.			
		Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.		Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.		Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.		Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Paying duties ad valorem.			D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.
Watches, and parts of		- -	1,442	- -	1,206	- -	2,676	- -	655	- -	250	- -	2,600	- -	1,284	- -	2,142
Glassware—																	
Cut and not specified	lbs.	2,410	722	2,800	2,825	21,947	7,056	60	200	6,147	2,498	200	95	5,992	1,419		
Plain and other	—	74,610	12,672	82,662	11,201	36,537	5,008	1,340	1,540	16,068	4,569	7,822	946	14,480	3,960	2,230	644
Other articles of, pa:	a duty of 20 per cent.	- -	10,572	- -	6,617	- -	21,805	- -	7,108	- -	17,514	- -	8,360	- -	4,668	- -	4,940
Wares—																	
China and porcelain		- -	2,800	- -	1,728	- -	2,506	- -	667	- -	2,256	- -	1,013	- -	77	- -	437
Earthen and stone		- -	62,482	- -	43,881	- -	27,072	- -	23,040	- -	26,167	- -	19,111	- -	24,888	- -	12,686
Plated, not specified		- -	1,737	- -	77	- -	1,456	- -	670	- -	1,246	- -	675	- -	226	- -	217
Gilt		- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	4,004	- -	478	- -	836	- -	505	- -	2,205	- -	224
Japanned		- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	42	- -	- -	- -	60
Saddlery—																	
Carosin, tinsel, and japanned		- -	487	- -	- -	- -	498										
Plated, brass, and polished steel		- -	600	- -	- -	- -	100	- -	107	- -	200	- -	148				
Coach and harness furniture		- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	600	- -	- -	- -	245	- -	- -				
Carriages, and parts of		- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	200	- -	- -	- -	- -				
Slates of all kinds		- -	125	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	224	- -	600	- -	225	- -	105
Quills, prepared		- -	2,400	- -	2,514	- -	213	- -	200	- -	- -	- -	247	- -	400	- -	66
Black-lead pencils		- -	- -	- -	4	- -	25	- -	24	- -	- -	- -	274				
Paper-hangings		- -	485	- -	440	- -	- -	- -	720	- -	3,760	- -	686	- -	- -	- -	969
Hair-cloth and hair-seating		- -	- -	- -	25	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	305	- -	- -	- -	71
Brushes of all kinds		- -	600	- -	1,600	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	116	- -	- -	- -	44
Raw silk		- -	3,564	- -	500	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	107,277	- -	11,007	- -	76,103	- -	2,059
Indigo	lbs.	77,857	26,035	451	584	137,152	209,048	14,419	19,668	243,964	285,986	2,560	7,654	15,195	21,497	2,586	3,474
Wool, unmanufactured, exceeding 8 cents per lb.	—	23,852	16,017	130	144	4,604	6,021	250,129	40,393	134,698	79,785	15,114	7,544	75,530	14,098	9,250	2,791
Value of merchandise not enumerated, at 5 per cent.		- -	432	- -	9,804	- -	504	- -	2,787	- -	64	- -	8,475	- -	816	- -	2,028
Do.	do. 10 do.	- -	568	- -	96	- -	1,691	- -	5,993	- -	- -	- -	1,746				
Do.	do. 12 do.	- -	2,205	- -	1,430	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	430
Do.	do. 12½ do.	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	19,162	- -	1,909	- -	7,383	- -	10,166	- -	2,161	- -	339
Do.	do. 15 do.	- -	145,151	- -	160,485	- -	201,998	- -	71,558	- -	161,895	- -	83,450	- -	166,359	- -	23,364
Do.	do. 20 do.	- -	24,309	- -	19,134	- -	7,199	- -	1,070	- -	6,115	- -	1,157	- -	844	- -	40
Do.	do. 25 do.	- -	36,686	- -	10,781	- -	57,114	- -	27,253	- -	60,319	- -	37,089	- -	63,175	- -	23,515
Do.	do. 30 do.	- -	7,163	- -	5,161	- -	19,782	- -	749	- -	5,725	- -	5,830	- -	- -	- -	441
Do.	do. 40 do.	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	642						
Do.	do. 50 do.	- -	36,575	- -	12,504	- -	13,995	- -	4,935	- -	23,971	- -	7,139	- -	10,109	- -	7,735
Total		- -	4,568,154	- -	1,215,477	- -	4,411,208	- -	502,192	- -	4,750,671	- -	694,215	- -	2,168,756	- -	349,579
Paying specific duties.																	
Woollens—																	
Flannels	sq. yds.	66,022	69,649	1,240	641	262,307	149,994	- -	- -	178,080	103,681	800	350	47,294	28,250		
Bockings and baize	—	18,536	17,172	- -	- -	1,801	1,111										
Carpetings—																	
Brussels, Wilton, and treble ingrained	—	4,211	8,545	- -	- -	549	888	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	80	130
Other ingrained and Venetian	—	917	964	- -	- -	1,750	2,000	- -	- -	814	410						
Floor-cloth, patent, printed, or painted	—	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	31	46	143	305						
Oil-cloth, other than patent floor-cloth	—	2,500	2,500	150	100	1,939	969	160	190	1,697	1,695	- -	- -	6,400	1,725		
Cotton bagging	—	69,112	7,471	3,316	975	80,785	9,570	1,980	370	15,417	3,128	6,489	927	132,986	15,397	11,286	1,917
Wines—																	
Madeira, in casks and bottles	gallons	27,948	13,923	2,449	2,736	1,966	1,755	5,699	11,281	1,296	1,964	4,974	9,440	- -	- -	5,025	10,544
Sherry do.	—	2,995	2,326	61	202	30	44	4,000	2,749	1,173	1,900	7,202	5,881	4,954	4,000	6,523	9,846
Sicily, in casks not bottles	gallons	3,521	2,825	956	90	9,986	6,505	495	1,029	2,730	1,985	231	152	4,024	2,973	231	194
Rot. of France, in casks	—	36,060	24,199	64,240	16,768	55,364	17,094	21,467	5,760	7,189	3,064	27,474	7,922	54,954	17,063	31,198	9,736
Other of France do.	—	7,750	3,740	165	85	21,548	7,013	9,340	6,031	29,259	12,042	21,498	8,661	14,963	5,197	53,313	12,094
Of France, in bottles and cases	—	29,532	20,085	3,267	3,964	32,982	23,021	3,799	15,498	23,052	20,181	25,787	25,519	17,275	16,953	30,909	26,248
Rot. of Spain and Austria, in casks	—	45,069	18,527	2,805	2,602	35,156	12,555	5,667	1,849	9,282	1,276	3,611	1,092	804	618	6,548	2,289
Other, of Spain, Austria, Germany, and the Mediterranean, in casks	—	69,874	27,935	24,343	9,980	75,173	31,047	12,431	6,001	57,619	25,745	47,772	22,443	27,727	14,584	18,722	11,281
Of other countries, in casks	—	44,923	19,598	13,247	7,961	36,522	41,972	60,547	7,938	23,126	14,907	15,472	12,250	4,885	2,717	11,897	9,095
in bottles	—	4,415	5,092	2,049	6,158	11,982	24,021	110	804	26,998	14,304	21,518	14,445	- -	- -	5,497	7,168
Spirits from grain	—	25,895	16,963	5,564	1,413	32,131	[illegible]	4,990	3,943	12,995	8,159	3,241	2,510	11,088	8,136	5,478	3,308
Of other materials	—	231,556	137,690	56,687	30,005	225,342	[illegible]	10,643	8,264	257,380	168,190	36,554	24,088	202,956	160,094	15,906	12,289
Molasses	—	37,758	6,092	13,018	4,635	41,518	[illegible]	1,433	670	68,081	25,808	32,506	7,075	58,765	16,740	9,333	2,944
Vinegar	—	5,703	1,524	575	149	3,056	[illegible]	572	205	2,182	588	922	279	2,635	8,216	658	216
Beer, ale, and porter, in casks	—	1,993	573	49	18	1,877	[illegible]	580	173	1,887	1,460	578	144	- -	- -	2,708	577
in bottles	—	7,486	5,852	231	358	8,262	4,863	321	230	4,868	4,218	1,780	1,479	540	475	963	361
Oil, of foreign fishing—																	



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Species of Merchandise.		1834–1835.				1835–1836.				1836–1837.				1837–1838.			
		Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.		Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.		Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.		Entitled to drawback.		Not entitled to drawb'k.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Paying specific duties.			D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.		D.
Lead—																	
Pig, bar, and sheet	lbs.	274,234	11,005	- -	- -	678,253	24,722	90,513	4,501	29,107	1,720	2,700	128	818,319	15,372		
Shot	—	1,288	191	- -	- -	1,413	70	- -	- -	1,117	100	- -	- -	11,200	560		
Pipes	—	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	360	16	- -	- -		
Cordage—Tarred, and cables	—	2,158,052	108,130	119,448	6,515	1,843,091	97,606	61,322	3,639	1,054,187	60,037	4,027	459	810,965	58,743	14,236	2,033
Untarred, and yarn	—	67,113	4,142	- -	- -	63,041	3,564	26,160	970	32,851	2,116	700	84	13,144	1,008	26,273	3,050
Twine, packthread, &c.	—	29,279	11,750	2,640	949	49,696	5,944	1,310	262	19,798	3,250	7,436	1,216	22,416	3,149	1,229	265
Corks	—	436	216	650	325	65	29	280	123	4,979	1,725	425	195	4,923	2,010	425	46
Copper—																	
Rods and bolts	—	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	200,077	24,012				
Nails and spikes	—	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	742	208	370	120	1,050	231	- -	- -	2,421	689
Firearms—																	
Muskets	No.	12,978	41,367	927	2,223	10,979	33,155	- -	- -	12,194	42,682	300	713	6,335	21,436	59	273
Rifles	—	17	204	- -	- -	326	1,310	- -	- -	- -	- -	4	55	- -	- -	12	75
Iron and steel wire, not above No. 14	lbs.	548	63	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	218	34	1,375	137		
above No. 14	—	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1,952	175	616	86		
Tacks, brads, and sprigs, not exceeding 16 ounces per 1,000	M.	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	21	20	220	13		
Iron—																	
Nails	lbs.	38,159	3,160	1,528	255	45,300	3,716	4,502	375	27,326	2,709	14,580	1,276	1,170	89	209	31
Spikes	—	1,665	130	- -	- -	1,000	70	- -	- -	1,000	104	- -	- -	311,159	18,674	5,147	178
Cables and chains, or parts thereof	—	- -	- -	5,758	437	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	130	19	- -	- -	12,163	1,947
Anchors	—	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	600	75
Spikes	—	494	55	- -	- -	495	50	1,150	115	- -	- -	180	18	- -	- -		
Castings, vessels of	—	60,120	2,450	2,240	628	96,300	5,087	100,000	4,134	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -		
other	—	2,150	400	64,200	6,305	128,993	2,494	- -	- -	56,705	735	1,120	54	36,000	1,980	2,500	460
Round iron, as broiers' rods, &c.	—	26,572	727	- -	- -	556	15	- -	- -	4,572	118	- -	- -	7,062	1,851		
Nail or spike rods	—	- -	- -	- -	- -	444	12	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -		
Sheet and hoop	—	52,696	2,005	1,317	44	51,565	1,931	3,760	230	168,458	8,559	4,480	230	309,413	23,118	2,240	179
Rod iron, scroll iron, &c.	—	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1,120	56
Fig	cwt.	2,480	4,233	200	801	577	715	95	198	380	1,165	- -	- -	1,142	1,985	170	370
Old and scrap	—	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	1,240	1,250	- -	- -	140	200		
Bar, manufactured by rolling	—	10,698	26,099	1,460	3,096	13,942	19,796	1,616	994	4,749	17,197	150	1,100	6,300	23,200	760	2,481
otherwise	—	906	4,537	161	879	1,331	6,437	261	157	1,610	7,514	335	1,979	447	1,726		
Steel	—	3,816	24,746	744	6,205	7,193	29,854	5,423	4,997	2,924	25,542	41	494	4,012	23,234	173	1,551
Hemp	—	4,550	24,707	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	300	3,420	9	103				
Copperas	—	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	2	21	80	200		
Wheat flour	—	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	884	1,642	- -	- -	476	2,122		
Alum	—	- -	- -	3	30	2	14	2	12	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	960	710
Salt	bushels	79,343	14,900	13,006	5,582	28,165	7,741	916	457	33,010	10,462	3,168	2,260	30,698	13,045	8,574	3,775
Coal	—	6,334	1,429	708	45	9,697	2,913	7,443	2,454	5,108	1,801	488	164	52,873	13,842	21,466	5,913
Wheat	—	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	6,800	5,212	1,000	1,304	5,257	3,087		
Potatoes	—	50	15	30	15	- -	- -	- -	- -	30	60	- -	- -	- -	- -	110	220
Paper—																	
Folio and quarto post	lbs.	44,954	7,923	2,152	332	60,230	11,122	950	400	2,514	1,017	- -	- -	- -	- -	960	710
Foolscap, drawing and writing	—	69,242	16,672	19,940	5,834	290,200	51,805	7,000	960	353,513	46,947	2,600	215	65,490	13,188	3,138	726
Printing, copperplate, and stainers'	—	30,260	6,358	- -	- -	61,856	12,861	20,071	3,630	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Sheathing, binders', wrapping, and box-boards	—	122,194	10,128	- -	- -	31,830	2,488	- -	- -	71,435	8,032	2,075	540	64,440	7,544	17,100	1,210
All other	—	86,282	11,780	490	416	45,814	7,243	236	365	7,164	1,562	851	425	5,019	700		
Books, printed in other languages than English,																	
Latin and Greek	vols.	86	180	- -	- -	98,470	19,707	- -	- -	1,941	1,065	1,982	2,000	1,576	1,088	4,187	4,876
Books, all other, bound	lbs.	4,694	4,951	4,689	5,019	1,154	1,200	1,247	1,250	19,511	9,270	5,888	4,644	1,261	1,000	2,010	2,010
Apothecaries' vials and bottles, not exceeding 6 ounces each	gross	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	20	42	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Perfumery and fancy bottles, not exceeding 4 ounces each	—	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	3	30	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Demijohns	No.	21,000	11,400	4,240	2,110	13,171	7,237	340	190	6,200	3,019	200	220	12,174	5,772	648	374
Glass bottles, Black, not above 1 quart	gross	207	3,042	200	900	1,200	7,845	21	378	1,127	6,681	361	2,053	740	4,197	135	688
Window glass, not exceeding 8 by 10 inches 100 sq. ft		20	120	- -	- -	28	200	60	134	716	2,935	- -	- -	705	3,188		
exceeding 8 by 10, and not exceeding 10 by 12 inches	—	121	302	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	208	2,154	50	350
exceeding 10 by 12 inches	—	388	4,000	9	135	587	11,094	- -	- -	983	5,514	97	707	344	2,902		
Fish—																	
Dried and smoked	quintals	- -	- -	615	978	180	682	600	1,995	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	14	45
Salmon	barrels	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	6	60				
Mackerel	—	- -	- -	800	3,431	782	4,278	185	667	800	5,000	- -	- -				
All other	—	- -	- -	720	2,009	400	1,203	- -	- -	748	2,389	76	410	- -	- -	9	180
Shoes and slippers—																	
Silk	pairs	940	938	- -	- -	36	102	- -	- -	230	190	- -	- -	1,482	880		
Prunella, seaskins, &c.	—	658	276	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	21	40						

Books, all other, bound	lbs.	4,894	4,951	4,600	5,013	1,154	1,200	1,047	1,000	10,511	5,570	5,000	4,044	1,951	1,000	2,010	2,000		
Apothecaries' vials and bottles, not exceeding 6 ounces each	gross	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	20	43								
Perfumery and fancy bottles, not exceeding 4 ounces each	—	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	86								
Demijohns	No.	31,800	11,400	4,240	2,110	13,171	7,287	240	120	6,200	2,010	200	220	13,174	5,772	640	274		
Glass bottles, Black, not above 1 quart	gross	207	3,043	253	200	1,203	7,245	21	270	1,157	6,611	261	2,050	740	4,197	135	288		
Window glass, not exceeding 5 by 10 inches	100 sq. ft.	20	120	-	-	20	200	50	151	710	2,000	-	-	705	2,120				
exceeding 8 by 10, and not exceeding 10 by 12 inches	—	121	202	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	200	2,154	50	260		
exceeding 10 by 12 inches	—	200	4,000	9	135	597	11,094	-	-	-	200	2,054	97	707	244	2,032			
Fish—																			
Dried and smoked	quintals	-	-	-	612	570	100	602	600	1,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	45	
Salmon	barrels	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6	65				
Mackerel	—	-	-	-	200	2,421	202	4,270	125	427	200	2,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	
All other	—	-	-	-	720	2,000	600	1,201	-	-	740	2,000	70	410	-	-	9	150	
Shoes and slippers—																			
Silk	pairs	240	200	-	-	96	102	-	-	-	200	150	-	-	1,420	600			
Prunella, morocco, &c.	—	650	270	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	21	40	-	-	-	-			
Leather, kid, morocco, &c.	—	2,947	2,727	40	40	4,432	5,026	-	-	-	710	400	-	-	2,772	1,552	220	121	
Boots and hoozes	—	404	1,200	-	-	164	477	-	-	-	70	200	-	-	-	-			
Playing cards	packs	300	72	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17,424	4,272			
Felts or hat bodies, wholly or partly of wool	No.	97	60	-	-	300	59												
Total value of merchandise paying specific duties	- -	- -	1,749,337	- -	195,697	- -	5,254,491	- -	284,799	- -	3,880,031	- -	211,156	- -	1,749,300	- -	188,992		
Do. do. duties ad valorem	- -	- -	4,685,154	- -	1,519,477	- -	4,611,380	- -	802,192	- -	4,756,971	- -	664,316	- -	5,186,756	- -	349,573		
Do. do. free of duty	- -	- -	-	- -	12,760,840	- -	-	- -	12,513,480	- -	-	- -	12,448,919	- -	-	- -	7,986,411		
Total value	- -	- -	6,388,491	- -	14,176,014	- -	9,865,880	- -	13,380,471	- -	8,630,972	- -	13,424,390	- -	6,917,056	- -	8,524,976		

Summary Statement of the Value . . . oods, Wares, and Merchandise, of the Produce and Manufacture of Foreign Countries, exported from the United States during the Four Years commencing on the 1st of October, 1834, and ending on the 30th of September, 1838.

Whither exported.	1834-1835.				1835-1836.				1836-1837.				1837-1838.			
	Free of duty.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.	Free of duty.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.	Free of duty.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.	Free of duty.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.
	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.
Russia	133,000	16,995	288,916	438,940	151,295	16,000	347,373	514,730	125,361	81,056	996,826	1,162,658	75,258	6,770	607,504	689,532
Prussia	2,000	-	-	2,000	-	-	-	-	24,000	270	2,215	26,427	13,000	-	-	13,000
Sweden and Norway	12,000	400	91,000	103,400	26,000	0	61,000	89,000	20,000	3,000	154,794	202,794	24,911	-	41,775	66,686
Swedish West Indies	6,000	6,000	1,000	13,041	664	61	800	1,525	583	80	2,402	3,065	800	640	3,200	4,291
Denmark	25,277	2,944	12,718	110,939	102,510	25,200	143,830	271,717	27,115	14,000	57,000	103,431	19,500	941	4,470	24,750
Danish West Indies	20,753	78,304	28,360	121,218	79,004	28,410	26,152	210,062	25,000	105,207	42,554	226,950	142,207	61,500	28,492	227,417
Holland	104,157	6,005	14,044	127,020	206,205	27,200	202,914	436,479	275,455	24,279	208,503	1,202,235	264,227	17,500	15,400	296,028
Dutch East Indies	1,149,241	47,613	16,220	1,212,082	205,174	29,297	11,560	246,231	282,413	10,503	5,070	295,224	282,556	3,500	3,000	289,747
Dutch West Indies	71,500	5,500	6,954	84,110	55,100	14,205	17,895	87,427	15,205	10,577	6,400	28,570	36,540	1,000	9,700	46,945
Dutch Guiana	-	-	-	-	754	-	1,000	2,360	50	324	1,501	1,525	455	200	1,200	2,073
Belgium	75,015	5,753	63,741	144,542	270,857	3,156	303,122	577,135	279,870	1,226	113,524	393,620	187,620	17,921	68,104	274,051
France	465,970	174,454	305,205	945,629	1,157,406	314,800	402,002	1,874,727	2,231,141	1,114,535	430,254	4,534,720	864,000	404,000	180,324	1,545,124
Scotland	2,041	7,000	-	10,050	-	744	-	744	-	-	12,500	12,500	-	1,500	8,277	10,776
Ireland	-	-	-	-	3,954	-	-	3,954								
Cape of Good Hope	-	-	-	-	-	1,000	3,400	4,577								
Gibraltar	200,000	42,000	21,000	263,000	104,000	61,155	60,000	225,177	127,000	20,000	24,000	223,000	112,000	20,000	16,000	152,373
Malta	22,000	12,000	2,041	121,041	25,000	5,000	20,000	100,000	24,000	411	20,000	172,000	2,742	-	1,200	4,000

Summary Statement of the Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, of the Produce and Manufacture of Foreign Countries, exported from the United States during the Four Years commencing on the 1st of October, 1834, and ending on the 30th of September, 1838.

Whither exported.	1834-1835.				1835-1836.				1836-1837.				1837-1838.			
	Free of duty.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.	Free of duty.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.	Free of duty.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.	Free of duty.	Paying duties ad valorem.	Paying specific duties.	Total.
	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.
British East Indies	376,077	1,389	12,194	389,641	405,886	6,783	21,792	435,461	73,014	-	3,253	82,887	254,710	847	2,845	258,402
British West Indies	36,020	20,451	16,369	82,840	44,559	34,466	19,606	97,631	53,244	6,318	14,304	43,866	95,023	3,160	31,095	130,218
British North American colonies	129,569	6,542	11,302	147,343	163,804	3,920	37,127	194,851	203,643	6,345	66,641	296,512	162,980	5,892	66,952	236,504
Honduras, Campeachy, &c.	13,089	22,077	2,456	37,561	6,775	21,123	5,117	36,015	4,102	3,567	4,489	12,156	8,105	5,695	5,552	19,300
British Guiana	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	522	-	-	522
Hanse Towns, and other ports of Germany	685,498	134,998	86,405	756,996	707,970	128,763	374,731	1,211,464	727,998	192,699	212,077	1,132,598	435,937	112,990	116,978	665,843
French Atlantic ports	1,068,108	75,194	19,738	1,163,039	808,398	47,792	48,516	904,675	1,494,557	165,130	30,418	1,690,114	849,304	98,231	23,432	976,967
French Mediterranean ports	538,411	5,454	10,297	554,192	625,893	4,469	196,629	725,991	476,149	26,592	135,009	649,550	264,743	10,233	8,160	283,135
French West Indies	34,733	3,206	6,328	34,389	19,494	137	10,548	30,179	18,824	2,580	36,321	58,705	21,772	1,190	15,918	38,889
Spanish Atlantic ports	76,505	700	8,085	87,290	65,905	375	-	66,280	35,115	175	11,460	46,750	12,470	-	-	12,470
Spanish Mediterranean ports	42,075	-	1,723	43,798	-	-	-	-	26,026	536	3,664	30,226	1,295	-	723	2,566
Teneriffe and other Canaries	3,723	1,529	1,459	12,710	3 136	530	306	4,264	7,286	-	360	7,646	13,475	1,186	4,035	18,696
Manilla and Philippine Islands	48,000	1,705	447	50,152	15,000	36,973	699	52,672	-	-	-	-	148,585	564	154	149,303
Cuba	916,697	660,713	111,972	1,569,372	1,139,513	582,357	101,902	1,803,772	1,102,296	982,196	95,328	2,083,820	755,286	809,776	189,293	1,654,325
Other Spanish West Indies	84,267	5,111	2,224	91,622	57,673	6,345	1,931	65,889	47,682	1,055	3,401	52,138	25,132	4,096	1,256	30,484
Portugal	85,422	10,048	2,131	97,602	12,852	565	-	13,247	9,867	232	7,163	17,072	7,956	137	-	8,093
Madeira	20,962	2,253	5,450	28,665	16,956	87	700	17,993	16,083	1,899	991	18,582	3,778	816	647	5,241
Fayal and other Azores	5,547	-	853	6,400	100	-	350	450	838	1,134	1,564	3,531	668	73	941	1,681
Cape de Verd Islands	10,537	2,827	7,383	27,747	6,308	1,236	804	8,246	14,212	6,632	7,043	27,887	2,276	1,607	4,890	8,933
Italy	82,479	2,102	22,824	107,396	259,696	5,627	259,263	524,586	195,670	24,997	197,742	418,409	108,363	5,010	24,994	141,367
Sicily	7,078	-	3,812	10,884	27,404	-	22,310	49,714	4,056	-	1,822	5,877	15,519	602	5,692	21,813
Trieste, and other Austrian Adriatic ports	251,411	5,617	27,040	284,068	428,032	-	401,642	829,674	142,239	263,594	262,378	668,211	91,020	2,530	43,192	136,742
Turkey, Levant, &c.	181,095	-	35,727	216,822	413,470	2,317	119,162	534,949	54,518	1,185	18,950	74,653	113,944	-	2,217	116,161
Greece	4,692	-	248	4,940	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,590	-	-	1,590
Hayti	125,857	124,982	26,498	277,337	89,121	74,759	21,185	185,065	72,149	55,287	12,627	140,063	66,393	20,873	16,778	95,334
Texas	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50,712	88,708	76,196	215,616	66,002	84,994	78,066	219,062
Mexico	1,920,588	3,681,139	410,884	6,012,609	1,512,275	2,541,931	486,780	4,540,986	982,476	1,726,350	235,982	2,945,710	471,713	546,389	105,009	1,123,101
Central Republic	33,390	23,799	14,980	72,169	44,944	50,078	8,147	103,169	22,676	36,300	16,374	75,349	49,752	66,313	23,044	131,139
Colombia	267,249	223,280	56,309	605,949	248,136	126,305	64,127	435,568	242,500	230,375	58,184	530,959	202,356	79,193	28,538	310,087
Venezuela	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7,092	-	1,006	8,098
Brazil	536,647	124,739	77,479	737,865	1,103,045	196,080	64,120	1,362,195	217,138	165,810	59,250	441,998	263,273	108,309	35,565	562,237
Argentine Republic	180,694	80,936	53,853	334,783	41,513	46,708	27,998	115,115	60,367	33,196	34,815	128,398	31,614	-	6,554	38,168
Chilian Republic	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16,642	8,660	265	21,567
Chili	145,150	136,646	53,900	355,696	124,001	131,053	109,997	365,051	95,049	155,976	144,421	395,449	130,494	147,143	45,055	322,692
Peru	-	-	-	-	-	-	918	918	3,165	4,672	3,764	11,601	28,756	2,800	975	32,531
China	1,600,694	89,008	13,009	1,682,712	705,589	130,054	27,056	862,708	257,257	22,976	36,905	317,218	797,355	39,474	23,782	861,021
Sandwich Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,500	6,648	8,292	15,220	-	-	-	-
Australasia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	110	-	1,219	1,329	-	-	816	816
South America, generally	165	18,023	4,924	21,110	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Asia, generally	627,950	11,314	8,782	648,046	296,716	3,898	4,998	305,600	246,528	5,667	1,036	253,225	75,325	213	21	75,559
Africa, generally	27,393	51,597	26,054	104,994	123,863	67,122	20,315	211,320	22,804	67,778	39,461	129,943	42,193	27,955	21,400	101,548
West Indies, generally	27,263	250	303	27,816	103,499	239	319	109,051	19,468	80	2,235	21,777	4,123	-	291	4,414
North west coast of America	5,631	4,043	4,963	14,637	6,647	18,884	10,000	35,531	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
South Seas and Pacific Ocean	1,430	10,354	7,832	19,616	1,765	20,400	37,140	59,305	55	1,585	1,088	2,626	6,334	6,616	10,803	22,153
Mocha, Aden, &c.	-	-	2,250	2,250	21,000	-	-	21,000	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	12,760,540	5,807,631	1,936,024	20,504,495	12,513,493	4,913,590	4,919,277	21,746,360	12,448,919	5,414,586	3,991,157	21,854,662	7,986,411	2,518,329	1,948,055	12,452,795
Entitled to drawback	-	4,568,154	1,744,586	6,332,740	-	4,411,398	3,954,491	8,365,889	-	4,750,671	3,680,001	8,430,672	-	2,169,756	1,749,903	3,917,659
Not entitled to drawback	12,760,540	1,219,477	191,438	14,171,755	12,513,493	502,192	964,786	13,380,471	12,448,919	664,215	311,156	13,424,290	7,986,411	348,573	198,152	8,534,896

Summary Statement of the Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, of the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of the United States, exported during the Four Years commencing on the 1st day of October, 1834, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1838.

Whither exported.	1834-1835.			1835-1836.			1836-1837.			1837-1838.		
	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.
	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.
Russia	217,405	14,202	231,607	271,218	55,085	326,303	141,571	2,509	144,080	358,047	-	358,047
Prussia	17,850	35,213	53,063	-	65,410	65,410	-	108,668	108,668	18,068	47,593	65,661
Sweden and Norway	175,898	240,188	416,078	223,411	305,572	528,983	4,695	187,005	211,700	102,690	108,055	210,745
Swedish West Indies	65,445	7,269	72,714	80,225	-	80,225	80,542	3,473	84,114	74,140	-	74,140
Denmark	193,298	73,163	212,461	225,145	89,123	314,268	22,355	149,905	172,260	52,952	45,229	98,081
Danish West Indies	1,242,714	13,198	1,255,980	1,198,745	127,547	1,326,292	1,009,217	115,425	1,124,642	893,945	55,734	949,679
Holland	1,966,903	374,078	2,345,980	4,777,870	720,226	5,498,096	631,075	1,904,514	2,035,589	1,788,102	788,977	2,555,979
Dutch East Indies	220,608	-	220,608	171,648	1,043	172,691	261,803	1,647	263,250	166,214	-	166,214
Dutch West Indies	819,433	-	819,433	403,218	3,262	406,458	284,301	7,478	291,779	189,207	15,067	204,274

Summary Statement of the Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, of the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of the United States, exported during the Four Years commencing on the 1st day of October, 1834, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1838.

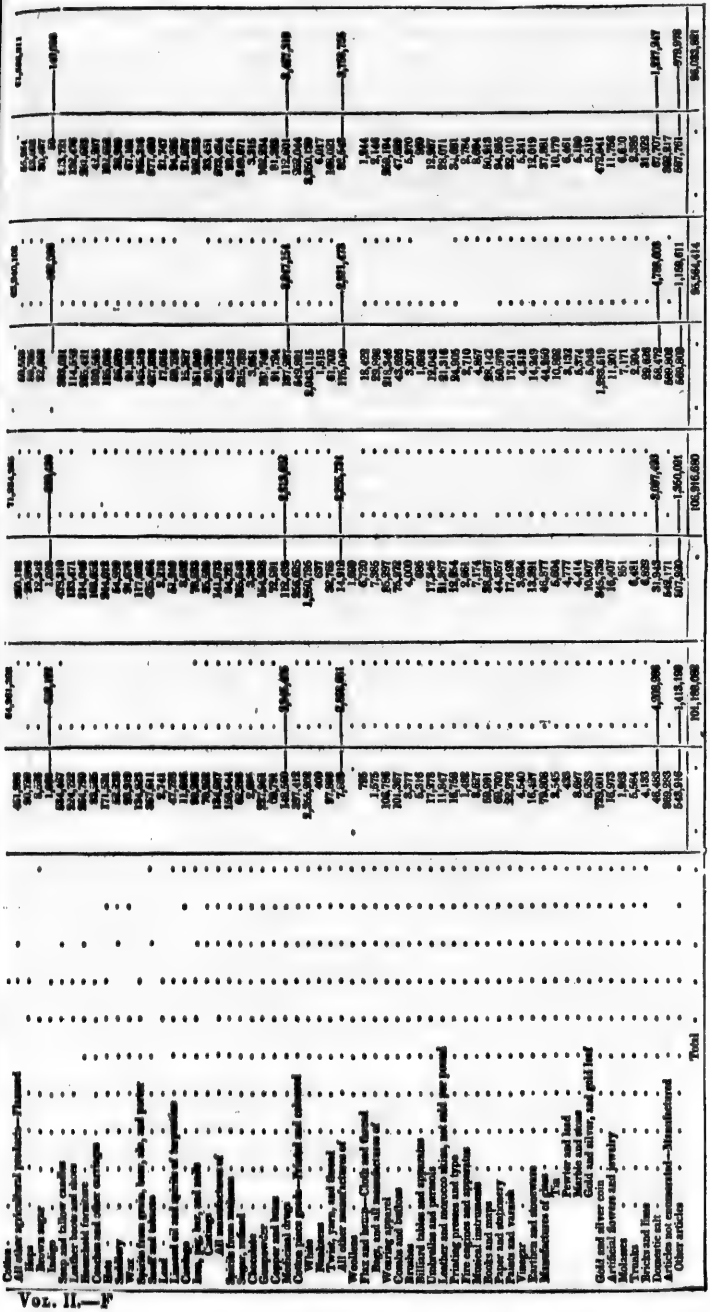
Whither exported.	1834-1835.			1835-1836.			1836-1837.			1837-1838.		
	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.
	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.
Russia	$17,405	14,202	$31,607	$71,218	$5,085	$76,293	$141,571	$2,509	144,080	$52,047	-	$52,047
Prussia	17,550	35,213	52,763	-	65,410	65,410	-	106,568	106,568	15,087	47,598	62,685
Sweden and Norway	175,896	240,182	416,078	223,411	305,572	528,983	54,696	187,005	241,700	102,680	108,065	210,745
Swedish West Indies	65,445	7,269	72,714	80,225	-	80,225	80,642	3,472	84,114	74,140	-	74,140
Denmark	133,208	79,163	212,461	228,145	86,125	314,268	32,355	140,905	172,260	52,858	45,229	98,081
Danish West Indies	1,242,714	15,166	1,255,880	1,198,745	127,647	1,326,392	1,009,217	115,425	1,124,642	893,945	55,734	949,679
Holland	1,966,903	379,078	2,345,980	1,777,540	720,296	2,496,036	931,075	1,804,514	2,735,589	1,788,102	788,877	2,576,979
Dutch East Indies	230,608	-	230,608	171,648	1,043	172,691	981,803	1,647	983,250	166,214	-	166,214
Dutch West Indies	319,432	-	319,432	403,216	3,262	406,478	284,301	7,478	291,779	189,207	15,087	204,294
Dutch Guiana	29,203	1,002	30,205	59,315	-	59,315	54,518	-	54,518	68,775	-	68,775
Belgium	195,497	418,182	613,680	592,568	294,577	1,886,945	114,159	602,459	716 618	943,928	396,972	1,340,900
Hanse Towns, and other ports of Germany	1,145,149	1,623,201	2,771,350	988,464	2,284,014	3,152,418	683,789	1,978,568	2,662,357	641,116	1,984,286	2,625,402
England	25,698,513	12,291,080	47,990,592	28,140,227	15,162,456	53,302,485	27,587,573	8,697,529	46,285,102	40,960,397	7,900,591	48,859,988
Scotland	1,120,070	1,710,009	2,830,079	586,979	1,750,571	2,349,560	2,149,425	1,291,786	3,441,211	985,566	291,617	1,895,203
Ireland	304,779	98,925	403,604	303,698	40,147	343,845	8,182	1,711	9,893	24,193	14,342	38,535
Gibraltar	533,135	20,447	553,588	634,673	595	635,198	309,272	61,759	361,031	534,092	75,726	609,518
Malta	109,655	-	109,655	36,038	2,781	38,817	88,143	7,062	100,205	81,955	-	81,955
British East Indies	364,417	-	364,417	296,903	2,412	299,315	190,591	-	190,591	330,506	-	330,506
British West Indies	1,449,193	326,294	1,755,487	1,373,427	370,428	1,743,855	1,710,183	1,815	2,074,798	1,680,676	399,958	2,080,634
Cape of Good Hope	60,565	-	60,565	86,218	-	86,218	27,118	-	27,118	22,718	-	22,718
British African ports	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,780	-	1780	-	-	-
British Guiana	65,146	9,697	64,843	105,076	-	105,076	42,885	-	42,885	131,336	14,197	145,532
Australasia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	33,546	-	33,546
British North American colonies	2,771,544	1,129,001	3,900,545	1,542,859	913,756	2,456,415	2,071,089	76	2,982,474	1,706,088	778,889	2,484,987
Guernsey, Jersey, &c.	-	-	-	-	9,077	9,077	-	-	-	-	-	-
French Atlantic ports	15,298,758	905,438	16,013,185	16,999,481	1,297,231	17,656,698	14,313,902	65	13,154,567	11,268,212	1,231,437	12,099,649
French Mediterranean ports	1,268,452	164,377	2,025,829	1,678,916	271,985	1,951,743	1,016,498	149,358	1,196,347	1,297,996	145,779	1,433,768
French West Indies	479,661	69,792	549,453	434,393	36,934	471,927	448,208	56,858	505,063	369,917	56,191	430,008
Hayti	1,508,780	31,695	1,538,475	1,027,780	27,194	1,054,974	822,004	49,934	871,938	743,305	71,116	814,421
Spanish Atlantic ports	255,254	175,730	430,984	391,442	213,487	604,929	92,232	140,897	230,099	89,890	47,506	137,405
Spanish Mediterranean ports	60,168	25,783	85,949	121,949	156,579	278,528	52,908	271,281	324,187	73,878	263,032	336,904
Teneriffe and other Canaries	40,195	-	40,195	21,687	-	21,687	27,553	-	27,553	34,619	-	34,619
Manilla	36,947	-	36,947	7,261	-	7,261	-	-	-	83,214	-	83,214
Cuba	2,572,774	1,044,682	3,917,436	4,389,788	231,919	4,801,717	4,076,759	227,024	4,303,783	4,424,994	296,439	4,721,433
Other Spanish West Indies	575,909	10,126	586,035	594,559	-	594,559	495,413	32,365	517,778	614,139	78,439	692,588
Portugal	134,854	27,849	162,703	31,687	-	38,336	77,983	46,354	124,337	40,193	27,777	67,970
Madeira	72,546	5,247	73,493	38,945	6,648	38,945	32,747	-	32,747	30,019	4,423	34,422
Fayal and other Azores	12,033	-	12,033	7,181	-	7,181	13,408	-	13,408	6,544	1,012	7,556
Cape de Verd Islands	99,192	3,248	102,440	61,241	5,969	67,210	125,193	11,008	136,201	96,381	560	96,941
Italy	162,777	15,768	178,545	125,378	14,095	139,473	95,206	180,063	305,268	162,758	155,783	318,536
Sicily	4,188	13,185	17,373	7,943	136,240	146,183	9,349	9,272	18,620	10,295	15,147	25,532
Minorca	86,949	-	86,949	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Greece	-	9,793	9,793	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7,440	7,440
Trieste, and other Austrian Adriatic ports	814,943	303,432	818,375	367,904	270,527	1,138,431	441,772	782,338	1,233,370	491,587	151,636	643,223
Turkey, Levant, &c.	63,202	-	63,202	99,085	-	99,085	26,411	40,248	36,659	142,448	-	142,448
China	335,868	-	335,868	341,563	-	341,563	318,973	-	318,973	655,581	-	655,581
Texas	-	-	-	-	-	-	744,080	53,232	797,312	1,024,451	4,267	1,028,518
Mexico	2,113,861	992,751	3,016,612	1,382,021	118,618	1,500,639	879,123	60,490	939,613	992,875	43,031	1,046,974
Honduras	103,503	31,200	134,703	85,800	24,233	109,823	64,240	35,454	99,694	25,965	63,033	89,986
Central Republic	111,624	-	111,624	86 349	-	86,349	82,314	-	82.314	111,901	-	111,901
Colombia	455,991	4,077	458,068	373,345	19,542	393,687	479,122	61,028	540,150	258,156	50,450	308,606
Brazil	1,707 270	103,821	1,810,791	1,656,509	76,232	1,732,741	1,217,260	73,867	1,291,217	2,077,248	17,709	2,094,957

Summary Statement of the Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, of the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of the United States, exported.—*continued.*

Whither exported.	1834–1835.			1835–1836.			1836–1837.			1837–1838.		
	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.	In American Vessels.	In Foreign Vessels.	To each Country.
	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.	D.
Gaulstine Republic							7,986		7,986	32,959	2,903	35,762
Venezuela										96,084	1,854	97,938
Argentine Republic	272,116	11,079	284,195	289,818		289,818	130,551	7,120	137,710	160,362		160,362
Chili	695,189		695,189	852,995		852,995	1,038,259		1,038,259	1,047,572		1,047,572
Peru							98,757		98,757	163,963		163,963
South America, generally	212,142		212,142	8,538		8,538				1,375		1,375
West Indies, generally	315,448	107,154	422,602	627,006	77,937	404,945	221,482	154,359	475,780	336,054	98,884	394,038
Europe, generally				172,860	76,139	249,999	92,807	82,186	174,993	24,920	6,839	31,759
Asia, generally	78,118		78,118	41,927		41,927	70,171		70,171	105,672		105,672
Africa, generally	215,503	18,682	234,185	243,453	41,625	285,078	278,656	19,967	298,622	685,762	64,572	850,334
South Seas	43,588		43,588	77,988		77,988	19,857		19,857	60,894		60,894
North-west coast of America	25,000		25,000	25,930		25,930						
Sandwich Islands							20,930		20,930			
Total	75,982,749	32,106,336	101,189,082	90,845,443	26,071,237	106,916,680	75,492,521	80,051,995	95,544,514	73,955,580	16,178,352	90,033,931

Summary Statement of the Value of the Exports of the Growth, Produce, and Manufacture of the United States, commencing 1st October, 1834, and ending 30th September, 1838.

	1834–1835.		1835–1836.		1836–1837.		1837–1838.	
Fisheries—Dried fish, or cod fisheries	D.763,985		D.746,464		D.568,506		D.688,245	
Pickled fish, or river fisheries (herring, shad, salmon, mackerel)	224,639		231,426		181,334		193,738	
Whale and other fish oil	773,486		1,048,408		1,271,545		1,445,775	
Spermaceti oil	52,531		119,757		151,375		127,500	
Whalebone	55,854		107,086		323,992		281,438	
Spermaceti candles	284,019	D.2,174,534	341,207	D.2,696,068	394,540	D.3,711,467	340,531	D.3,175,976
Skins and furs		759,068		653,032		651,909		638,945
Ginseng		94,980		211,405		166,018		96,622
Products of wood—Staves, shingles, boards, hewn timber	2,895,056		3,158,699		2,933,693		2,932,059	
Other lumber	247,036		195,189		251,089		227,134	
Masts and spars	28,457		22,108		20,854		26,150	
Oak bark, and other dye	73,977		68,756		96,443		161,694	
All manufactures of wood	417,592		471,016		444,149		548,165	
Naval stores, tar, pitch, resin, and turpentine	567,598		912,379		823,419		702,209	
Ashes, pot and pearl	671,291	4,542,291	723,609	4,468,673	791,586	3,711,697	710,542	4,088,993
Products of animals—Beef, tallow, hides, horned cattle	638,761		699,116		595,146		628,231	
Butter and cheese	164,809		114,038		96,176		148,191	
Pork, (pickled,) beacon, lard, live hogs	1,776,782		1,393,344		1,326,796		1,212,548	
Horses and mules	285,028		346,699		365,084		281,820	
Sheep	38,595	2,901,896	18,549	2,861,730	16,952	2,996,054	20,462	2,340,993
Vegetable food—Wheat	51,405		2,062		27,208		8,125	
Flour	4,304,777		3,572,589		2,987,389		3,803,298	
Indian corn	869,270		103,702		147,992		141,992	
Indian meal	639,580		621,580		703,852		722,589	
Rye meal	128,140		172,978		165,457		116,796	
Rye, oats, and other small grain and pulse	96,478		80,498		90,795		94,558	
Biscuit, or shipbread	221,899		244,760		244,292		263,686	
Potatoes	41,543		43,830		53,630		58,198	
Apples	30,958		30,653		40,920		41,181	
Beer	2,210,331	6,365,997	2,548,750	7,431,199	2,208,279	6,980,543	1,721,919	6,764,654
Tobacco		3,250,677		10,058,849		6,796,647		7,566,198



IMPRESSMENT, the forcible taking away of seamen from their ordinary employment and compelling them to serve, against their will, in his Majesty's ships.

1. ***Regulations as to Impressment.***—This practice is not expressly sanctioned by any act of parliament; but it is so indirectly by the numerous statutes that have been passed, granting exemptions from it. According to Lord Mansfield, it is "a power founded upon immemorial usage," and is understood to make a part of the common law. All *sea-faring* men are liable to impressment specially protected by custom or statute. Seamen executing particular services for government, not unfrequently get protections from the Admiralty, Navy Board, &c. Some are exempted by *local custom*: and *ferrymen* are every where privileged from impressment. The statutory exemptions are numerous.

1. *Every ship in the coal trade* has the following persons protected, viz. 2 able seamen (such as the master shall nominate) for every ship of 100 tons; and 1 for every 50 tons for every ship of 100 tons and upwards; and any officer who presumes to impress any of the above, shall forfeit, to the master or owner of such vessel, 10*l.* for every man so impressed; and such officer shall be incapable of holding any place, office, or employment in any of his Majesty's ships of war. (6 & 7 *Will.* 3. c. 18. sect. 19.)*

2. *No parish apprentice* shall be compelled or permitted to enter into his Majesty's sea service till he arrives at the age of 18 years.—(2 & 3 *Anne*, c. 6. sect. 4.)

3. Persons *voluntarily* binding themselves apprentices to sea service, shall not be impressed for 3 years from the date of their indentures. But no persons above 18 years of age . . . have any exemption or protection from his Majesty's service, if they have been at sea before they became apprentices.—(2 & 3 *Anne*, c. 6. sect. 15.; 4 *Anne*, c. 19. sect. 17.; and 13 Geo. 2. c. 17. sect. 2.)

4. *Apprentices.*—The act 4 Geo. 4. c. 25. enacts some new regulations with respect to the number of apprentices that ships must have on board according to their tonnage, and grants protection to such apprentices till they have attained the age of 21 years.—(For the regulations of this act, see *Apprentices.*)

5. *Persons employed in the Fisheries.*—The act 50 Geo. 3. c. 108. grants the following exemptions from impressment, viz.:—

1st, *Masters of fishing vessels* or boats, who, either themselves or their owners, have, or within 6 months before applying for a protection shall have had, 1 apprentice or more under 16 years of age, bound for 5 years, and employed in the business of fishing.

2dly, All such *apprentices*, not exceeding *eight* to every master or owner of any fishing vessel of 50 tons or upwards; not exceeding *seven* to every vessel or boat of 35 tons and under 50; not exceeding *six* to every vessel of 30 tons and under 35 tons; and not exceeding *four* to every vessel or boat under 30 tons burden, during the time of their apprenticeship, and till the age of 20 years; they continuing for the time, in the business of fishing only.

3dly, *One mariner*, besides the master and apprentices, to every fishing vessel of 10 tons or upwards, employed on the sea coast, during his continuance in such service.

4thly, *Any landsman* above the age of 18, entering and employed on board such vessel, for 2 years from his first going to sea; and to the end of the voyage then engaged in, if he so long continue in such service.

An affidavit sworn before a justice of the peace, containing the tonnage of such fishing vessel or boat, the port or place to which she belongs, the name and description of the master, the age of every apprentice, the term for which he is bound, and the date of his indenture, and the name, age, and description of every such mariner and landsman respectively, and the time of such landsman's first going to sea, is to be transmitted to the Admiralty; who, upon finding the facts correctly stated, grant a separate protection to every individual. In case, however, "*of an actual invasion of these kingdoms*, or extraordinary *danger thereof*," such protected persons may be impressed; but except upon such an emergency, any officer or officers impressing such protected person shall respectively forfeit 20*l.* to the party impressed, if not an apprentice, or to his master if he be an apprentice. —Sects. 3, 5, 4.

6. *General Exemptions.*—All persons 55 years of age and upwards, and under 18 years. Every person being a foreigner, who shall serve in any merchant ship, or other trading vessel, or privateer, belonging to a subject of the Crown of Great Britain; and all persons, of what age soever, who shall use the sea, shall be protected for 3 years, to be computed from the time of their first using it.—(13 *Geo.* 2. c. 17.)

7. *Harpooners*, line managers, or boat steerers, engaged in the southern whale fishery, are also protected.—(26 *Geo.* 3. c. 50.)

8. *Mariners employed in the herring fishery* are exempted while actually employed.—(49 *Geo.* 3. c. 110.)

2. ***Policy of Impressment.***—This practice, so subversive of every principle of justice, is vindicated on the alleged ground of its being absolutely necessary to the manning of the fleet. But this position, notwithstanding the confidence with which it has been taken up, is not quite so tenable as has been supposed. The difficulties experienced in procuring sailors for the fleet at the breaking out of a war, are not natural but artificial, and might be got rid of by a very simple arrangement. During peace, not more than a fourth or a fifth part of the seamen are retained in his Majesty's service that are commonly required during war; and if peace continue for a few years, the total number of sailors in the king's and the merchant service is limited to that which is merely adequate to supply the reduced demand of the former, and the ordinary demand of the latter. When, therefore, war is declared, and 30,000 or 40,000 additional seamen are wanted for the fleet, they cannot be obtained, unless by withdrawing them from the merchant service, which has not more than its proper complement of hands. But to do this by offering the seamen higher wages would be next to impossible, and would, supposing it were practicable, impose such a sacrifice upon the public as could hardly be borne. And hence, it is said, the necessity of impressment, a practice which every one admits can be justified on no other ground than that of its being absolutely essential to the public safety.

It is plain, however, that a necessity of this sort may be easily obviated. All, in fact, that is necessary for this purpose, is merely to keep such a number of sailors in his Majesty's service during peace as may suffice, with the ordinary proportion of landsmen and boys, to man the fleet at the breaking out of a war. Were this done, there would not be the shadow of a pretence for resorting to impressment; and the practice, with the cruelty and injustice inseparable from it, might be entirely abolished.

But it is said that, though desirable in many respects, the *expense* of such a plan will always prevent it from being adopted. It admits, however, of demonstration, that instead of being dearer, this plan would be actually cheaper than that which is now followed. Not more than 1,000,000*l.* or 1,200,000*l.* a year would be required to be added to the navy estimates, and that would not be a real, but merely a nominal advance. The violence and injustice to which the practice of impressment exposes sailors, operates at all times to raise their wages, by creating a disinclination on the part of many young men to enter the sea service; and this disinclination is vastly increased during war, when wages *usually rise to four or five times their previous amount*, imposing a burden on the commerce of the country, exclusive of other equally mischievous consequences, many times greater than the tax that would be required to keep up the peace establishment of the navy to its proper level. It is really, therefore, a vulgar error to suppose that impressment has the recommendation of cheapness in its favour; and, though it had, no reasonable man would contend that it is the only, or even the principal, circumstance to be attended to. In point of fact, however, it is as costly as it is oppressive and unjust.— (The reader is referred, for a fuller discussion of this interesting question, to the note on *Impressment* in the 4th volume of the *Wealth of Nations.*)

INDEMNITY, is where one person secures another from responsibility against any particular event; thus, a policy of insurance is a contract of indemnity against any particular loss. Where one person also becomes bail for another, a bond of indemnity is frequently executed; and where a bond or bill of exchange has been lost or mislaid, the acceptor or obligee would not act prudently in paying it, without being secured by a bond of indemnity

INDIAN RUBBER. See CAOUTCHOUC.

INDIGO (Fr. *Indigo*; Ger. *Indigo*; Sans. *Nili*; Arab. *Neel*; Malay, *Tarcom*), the drug

* In order that these men shall be thus protected, it is necessary for the master *to name them, before they are impressed:* this is to be done by going before the mayor or other chief magistrate of the place, who is to give the master a certificate, in which is contained the names of the particular men whom he thus nominates; and this certificate will be their protection.

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which yields the beautiful blue dye known by that name. It is obtained by the maceration in water of certain tropical plants; but the indigo of commerce is almost entirely obtained from leguminous plants of the genus *Indigofera*: that cultivated in India being the *Indigofera tinctoria*; and that in America the *Indigofera anil*. The Indian plant has pinnate leaves and a slender ligneous stem; and when successfully cultivated, rises to the height of 5, and even 6 feet.

It appears pretty certain that the culture of the indigo plant, and the preparation of the drug, have been practised in India from a very remote epoch. It has been questioned, indeed, whether the *indicum* mentioned by Pliny (*Hist. Nat.* lib. xxxv. c. 6.) was indigo, but, as it would seem, without any good reason. Pliny states that it was brought from India; that when diluted it produced an admirable mixture of blue and purple colours (*in diluendo misturam purpuræ cæruleique mirabilem reddit*); and he gives tests by which the genuine drug might be discriminated with sufficient precision. It is true that Pliny is egregiously mistaken as to the mode in which the drug was produced; but there are many examples in modern as well as ancient times, to prove that the possession of an article brought from a distance implies no accurate knowledge of its nature, or of the processes followed in its manufacture. Beckmann (*Hist. of Inventions*, vol. iv. art. *Indigo*) and Dr. Bancroft (*Permanent Colours*, vol. i. pp. 241—252.) have each investigated this subject with great learning and sagacity; and agree in the conclusion that the *indicum* of Pliny was real indigo, and not, as has been supposed, a drug prepared from the *isatis* or woad. At all events, there can be no question that indigo was imported into modern Europe, by way of Alexandria, previously to the discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope. When first introduced, it was customary to mix a little of it with woad to heighten and improve the colour of the latter; but, by degrees, the quantity of indigo was increased; and woad was, at last, entirely superseded. It is worth while, however, to remark, that indigo did not make its way into general use without encountering much opposition. The *growers of woad* prevailed on several governments to prohibit the use of indigo! In Germany, an Imperial edict was published in 1654, prohibiting the use of indigo, or "*devil's dye*," and directing great care to be taken to prevent its clandestine importation, "because," says the edict, "the trade in woad is lessened, dyed articles injured, and money carried out of the country!" The magistrates of Nuremburg went further, and compelled the dyers of that city to take an oath once a year not to use indigo; which practice was continued down to a late period. In 1598, upon an urgent representation of the states of Languedoc, at the solicitation of the woad growers, the use of indigo was prohibited in that province; and it was not till 1737, that the dyers of France were left at liberty to dye with such articles, and in such a way, as they pleased.—(*Beckmann*, vol. iv. p. 142.) Let not those who may happen to throw their eyes over this paragraph, smile at the ignorance of our ancestors—*Mutato nomine, de te fabula narratur*. How much opposition is made at this moment to the importation of many important articles, for no better reasons than were alleged, in the sixteenth century, against the importation of indigo!

Indigo is at present produced in Bengal, and the other provinces subject to the presidency of that name, from the 20th to the 30th degree of north latitude; in the province of Tinnevelly, under the Madras government; in Java; in Luconia, the principal of the Philippine Islands; and Guatemala, and the Caraccas, in Central America. Bengal is, however, the great mart for indigo; and the quantity produced in the other places is comparatively inconsiderable.

Raynal was of opinion that the culture of indigo had been introduced into America by the Spaniards; but this is undoubtedly an error. Several species of *indigofera* belong to the New World; and the Spaniards used it as a substitute for ink very soon after the conquest.—(*Humboldt, Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, tom. iii. p. 54. 2d ed.)

For the first 20 years after the English became masters of Bengal, the culture and manufacture of indigo, now of such importance, was unknown as a branch of British industry; and the exports were but trifling. The European markets were, at this period, principally supplied from America. In 1783, however, the attention of the English began to be directed to this business; and though the processes pursued by them be nearly the same as those followed by the natives, their greater skill, intelligence, and capital, give them iminense advantages. In their hands, the growth and preparation of indigo has become the most important employment, at least in a commercial point of view, carried on in the country. The indigo made by the natives supplies the internal demand; so that all that is raised by Europeans is exported.

In the Delta of the Ganges, where the best and largest quantity of indigo is produced, the plant lasts only for a single season, being destroyed by the periodical inundation; but in the dry central and western provinces, one or two *rattoon* crops are obtained: and owing to this circumstance, the latter are enabled to furnish a large supply of seed to the former.

The fixed capital required in the manufacture of indigo consists of a few vats of common masonry for steeping the plant, and precipitating the colouring matter; a boiling and drying house; and a dwelling house for the planter. These, for a factory of 10 pair of vats, capable of producing, at an average, 12,500 lbs. of indigo, worth on the spot about 2,500*l*., will not cost above 1,500*l*. sterling. The buildings and machinery necessary to produce an equal value in sugar and rum, would probably cost about 4,000*l*. This fact, therefore, without any reference to municipal regulations, affords a ready answer to the question which has been frequently put, why the British planters in India have never engaged in the manufacture of sugar.

During the 9 years which preceded the opening of the trade with India, in 1814, the annual average produce of indigo in Bengal, for exportation, was nearly 5,600,000 lbs.; but the average produce of the 4 last years of this period scarcely equalled that of the preceding 5. But since the ports were opened, indigo produced for exportation has increased fully a *third*; the exports during the 16 years ending with 1829-30, being above 7,400,000 lbs. a year. The following brief statement shows the rate of this increase, taking the average produce of each 4 years:—

1814, 1815, 1816, 1817	Lbs. 7,040,000	1818, 1819, 1820, 1821	Lbs. 6,000,000	1822, 1823, 1824, 1825	Lbs. 6,000,000	1826, 1827, 1828, 1829	Lbs. 9,000,000

and it has continued about the same since.

It deserves to be remarked, that since the opening of the trade, Indian capitalists have betaken themselves to the manufacture of indigo on the European method, and that at present about a fifth part of the whole annual produce is prepared by them.

The culture of indigo is very precarious, not only in so far as respects the growth of the plant from year to year, but also as regards the quantity and quality of the drug which the same amount of plant will afford even in the same season. Thus, the produce of 1825–26 was 41,000 chests, while the produce of the following year was but 25,900 chests; the produce of 1827–28 was about 42,000 chests, and that of 1828–29 only 26,500 chests! The average of these years, that is, about 9,000,000 lbs., may be considered as the present annual produce of Bengal. The price of indigo in India increased, for a while, in a far greater ratio than the quantity. In 1813-14 the real value of that exported from Calcutta was 1,461,000*l.*; but in 1827-28, although the quantity had increased but 20 per cent., the value rose to 2,920,000*l.*, or was about doubled. There was no corresponding rise in the price in Europe, but, on the contrary, a decline; and the circumstance is to be accounted for by the restraints placed on the investment of capital in the production of colonial articles suited to the European market, the consequent difficulty of making remittances from India, and an unnatural flow of capital to the only great article of Indian produce and export that is supposed capable of bearing its application.

But the effects of the profuse advances made by the Calcutta capitalists to those engaged in the indigo culture, coupled with the increasing imports from Madras, and the stationary demand for the drug in this country, have at length manifested themselves in the most distressing manner. Prices have been so much reduced that a ruinous reaction has taken place; most of the Calcutta merchants engaged in the trade having been obliged to stop payment, involving in their fall several opulent houses in this country. It remains to be seen whether this will occasion any diminution in the supplies of indigo, or whether the supply may not be maintained even at the reduced prices by increased economy. The subjoined Table shows that prices advanced considerably in 1833; but it is doubtful whether this advance will be sustained.

The consumption of indigo has varied but little in this country during the last dozen years, having been, at an average of that period, about 2,300,000 lbs. a year. This stationary demand, notwithstanding the fall in the price of the drug and the increase of population, is principally to be ascribed to the decreasing use of blue cloth, in the dyeing of which it is principally made use of. Its consumption in France is about as great as in Britain. Besides the exports to Great Britain, France, and the United States, a good deal of Bengal indigo is exported to the ports on the Persian Gulf, whence it finds its way to southern Russia. It is singular that it is not used by the Chinese, with whom blue is a favourite colour.

The indigo of Bengal is divided into two classes, called, in commercial language, *Bengal* and *Oude*; the first being the produce of the southern provinces of Bengal and Bahar, and the last that of the northern provinces. The first is, in point of quality, much superior to the other. This arose at one time, in a considerable degree, from the practice which prevailed in the northern provinces, of the European planter purchasing the wet fecula from the native manufacturer, and completing the processes of curing and drying the drug. This is at present in a great measure discontinued; and the Oude indigo has, in consequence, considerably improved in quality. Its inferiority is probably more the result of soil and climate, than of any difference in the skill with which the manufacture is conducted.

In 1827–28, and we are possessed of no later data, the export of indigo from the port of Madras amounted to 880,880 lbs. weight; having more than quadrupled in the course of the preceding 5 years. Besides the export from Madras, there is also a considerable one from the French settlement of Pondicherry; of which, however, we have no detailed statement. In 1827, the export of indigo from Manilla amounted to about 290,000 lbs. avoirdupois; but it is understood to have materially increased since. The export from Batavia, in 1829, amounted to 152,000 lbs. weight, and the production is rapidly increasing. According to the statement now given, the annual exports of Asiatic indigo are as follow:—Bengal, 9,000,000,000 lbs.; Madras, 900,000 lbs.; Manilla, 300,000 lbs.; Batavia, 150,000 lbs. Hence the annual average produce for foreign markets, making allowance for a trifling augmentation in the exports from Madras, Java, and the Philippines, is certainly not less than 10,500,000 lbs.

According to M. Humboldt, the exportation of indigo from Guatemala, in 1825, amounted to 1,800,000 lbs. Indigo is also produced in some of the West India islands, but not in large quantities.

Good indigo is known by its lightness or small specific gravity, indicating the absence of earthy impurities; by the mass not readily parting with its colouring matter when tested by drawing a streak with it over a white surface; but, above all, by the purity of the colour itself. The first quality, estimated by this last test, is called, in commercial language, *fine blue*; then follow *ordinary blue*, *fine purple*, *purple and violet*, *ordinary purple and violet*, *dull blue*, *inferior purple and violet*, *strong copper*, and *ordinary copper*. These distinctions refer to the Bengal indigo only, the Oude being distinguished only into *fine* and *ordinary*. The qualities of Madras and Manilla indigo are nearly the same, and equal to ordinary Bengal indigo. The indigo of Java is superior to these.

We are indebted to Mr. Cook for the following Table, which gives a very comprehensive view of the state of the crops of indigo in Bengal, and the imports, consumption, and prices of Bengal indigo, since 1811-12:—

Crops in Bengal.			Years.	Total Import from India into Great Britain.	Total Deliveries for Export and Home Con.	Stock in Great Britain 31st Dec.	Average Prices in London.									
								Fine Bengal, per lb.				Ord. Bengal, per lb.				Low Oude, per lb.			
Years.	*Maunds.*	*Chests.*		*Chests.*	*Chests.*	*Chests.*	*Years.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*
1811–1812	70,000	= 19,500	1812	17,200	14,600	29,500	1812	8	0	to 10	6	4	0	to 5	3	3	0	— 3	6
1812–1813	78,000	= 22,000	1813	14,300	19,300	24,500	1813	10	0	— 14	0	6	3	— 8	3	4	6	— 6	0
1813–1814	74,500	= 21,300	1814	24,200	23,800	24,900	1814	10	0	— 14	6	6	6	— 9	0	4	0	— 5	6
1814–1815	102,500	= 27,000	1815	28,900	23,400	30,400	1815	8	0	— 11	0	5	0	— 7	0	3	0	— 4	6
1815–1816	115,000	= 29,000	1816	15,500	20,200	25,700	1816	6	6	— 10	0	3	9	— 5	6	2	8	— 3	3
1816–1817	87,000	= 23,500	1817	13,500	15,700	23,500	1817	7	6	— 10	0	5	6	— 7	6	4	0	— 6	0
1817–1818	72,800	= 19,000	1818	16,600	16,100	24,000	1818	8	0	— 9	6	6	6	— 8	0	5	0	— 6	0
1818–1819	68,000	= 17,000	1819	11,500	15,800	19,700	1819	7	6	— 9	0	5	0	— 6	0	3	3	— 4	3
1819–1820	72,000	= 19,000	1820	10,500	21,600	14,500	1820	7	0	— 9	0	5	6	— 6	6	3	3	— 4	6

Table—*continued.*

Crops in Bengal.		Years.	Total Import from India into Great Britain.	Total Deliveries for Export and Home Con.	Stock in Great Britain 31st Dec.	Average Prices in London.										
							Fine Bengal. per lb.			Ord. Bengal. per lb.			Low Oude. per lb.			
Years.	*Maunds. Chests.*		*Chests.*	*Chests.*	*Chests.*	*Years.*	s.	d.	s. d.	s.	d.	s. d.	s.	d.	s. d.	
1820–1821	107,000 = 25,500	1821	13,000	17,300	9,800	1821	7	6 to 9	6	5	6 to 7	0	4	0 to 5	9	
1821–1822	72,400 = 19,500	1822	13,500	15,100	8,200	1822	11	0—12	6	8	6—10	3	4	9—6	0	
1822–1823	90,000 = 24,000	1823	21,700	16,800	13,100	1823	9	6—11	0	5	9— 8	6	3	6—4	6	
1823–1824	113,000 = 28,000	1824	16,300	17,200	12,200	1824	12	0—13	6	8	0—10	6	5	0—6	3	
1824–1825	70,000 = 22,000	1825	25,300	21,100	16,400	1825	13	0—15	0	8	6—10	6	4	3—5	9	
1825–1826	144,000 = 41,000	1826	27,800	21,900	22,300	1826	8	0— 9	6	4	6— 7	0	2	3—3	9	
1826–1827	90,000 = 25,000	1827	19,000	18,500	22,800	1827	11	6—13	6	7	0— 9	6	3	0—4	6	
1827–1828	149,000 = 42,000	1828	35,820	27,500	31,100	1828	8	0—10	0	5	3— 7	3	2	0—2	9	
1828–1829	98,000 = 26,500	1829	23,200	23,100	31,200	1829	7	6— 8	6	3	9— 6	6	2	6—3	6	
1829–1830	141,000 = 40,000	1830	32,120	25,700	37,600	1830	6	6— 7	6	3	3— 4	6	2	0—2	6	
1830–1831	116,000 = 33,600	1831	23,330	24,980	35,970	1831	6	0— 6	6	3	0— 4	3	2	0—2	6	
1831–1832	122,000 = 35,000	1832	25,470	28,920	32,520	1832	5	6— 6	3	3	3— 4	6	2	3—2	9	
1832–1833	122,000 = 35,000	1833	25,000	*23,000	*35,000	1833	7	0— 7	9	5	0— 6	0	3	0—4	0	

Of 7,299,605 lbs of indigo imported into Great Britain in 1831, 6,996,063 lbs. were from India, 149,249 lbs. from the British West Indies, 81,991 lbs. from Guatemala, 16,014 lbs. from Colombia, &c. Of the total quantity imported, 2,490,000 lbs. were retained from consumption.

The imports of indigo, in 1832, were 6,353,065 lbs.; of which 2,395,653 lbs. were retained.

Indigo of British possessions, not deemed their produce unless imported from thence.—*7 Geo. 4. c. 48.*)

For further information as to indigo, see *Colebrooke's Husbandry of Bengal*, p. 154.; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*; *Bell's Review of Commerce of Bengal*; *Wilson's Review of do.*; evidence of Gillian Maclaine, Esq., East India Committee, 1830–31, &c.

[Indigo is imported into the United States chiefly from the British East Indies, Manilla and the Philippine islands, and the republic of Colombia.—*Am. Ed.*]

INK (Du. *Ink, Inkt*; Fr. *Encre*; Ger. *Dinte*; It. *Inchoistro*; Lat. *Atramentum*; Rus. *Tschernilo*; Sp. *Tinta*; Sw. *Blak.*)

"Every liquor or pigment used for writing or printing is distinguished by the name of ink. Common practice knows only black and red. Of black ink there are three principal kinds: 1. Indian ink; 2. Printer's ink; and 3. Writing ink. The Indian ink is used in China for writing with a brush, and for painting upon the soft flexible paper of Chinese manufacture. It is ascertained, as well from experiment as from information, that the cakes of this ink are made of lampblack and size, or animal glue, with the addition of perfumes or other substances not essential to its quality as an ink. The fine soot from the flame of a lamp or candle received by holding a plate over it, mixed with clean size from shreds of parchment or glove-leather not dyed, will make an ink equal to that imported. Good printer's ink is a black paint, smooth, and uniform in its composition, of a firm black colour, and possesses a singular aptitude to adhere to paper thoroughly impregnated with moisture.

"Common ink for writing is made by adding an infusion or decoction of the nut-gall to sulphate of iron, dissolved in water. A very fine black precipitate is thrown down, the speedy subsidence of which is prevented by the addition of a proper quantity of gum Arabic. Lampblack is the common material to give the black colour, of which 2½ ounces are sufficient for 16 ounces of the varnish. Vermilion is a good red. They are ground together on a stone with a muller, in the same manner as oil paints. Among the amusing experiments of the art of chemistry, the exhibition of sympathetic inks holds a distinguished place. With these the writing is invisible, until some reagent gives it opacity. These inks have been proposed as the instruments of secret correspondence. But they are of little use in this respect, because the properties change by a few days' remaining on the paper; most of them have more or less of a tinge when thoroughly dry; and none of them resist the test of heating the paper till it begins to be scorched."—(*Ure's Dictionary.*)

INKLE, a sort of broad linen tape, principally manufactured at Manchester and some other towns in Lancashire.

INSOLVENCY AND BANKRUPTCY. Insolvency is a term in mercantile law, applied to designate the condition of all persons unable to pay their debts according to the ordinary usage of trade. A bankrupt is an insolvent; but persons may be in a state of insolvency without having committed any of the specific acts which render them liable to a commission of bankruptcy.

We have, under the article BANKRUPTCY, explained the most important differences in the law as to insolvency and bankruptcy; and have also briefly stated in that article, and in the article CREDIT, some of the alterations which seem to be imperatively required to make these laws more in harmony, than they are at present, with the principles of justice, and more conducive to the interests of commerce and the public advantage. In the present article, therefore, we shall confine ourselves to a summary statement of the proceedings under the existing laws.

Under the bankrupt laws, the creditors have a compulsory authority to sequestrate the entire possessions of their debtor; under the insolvent laws, the debtor himself may make a voluntary surrender of his property for the benefit of all his creditors. From this diversity in the initiative process results the greatest diversity in the ultimate operation of the bankrupt and insolvent acts. The proceedings under a commission of bankruptcy being insti-

* These numbers are partly from estimate; but they cannot be far wrong.

tuted by the creditors, they lose all future power over the property and person of the insolvent after he has obtained his certificate; but the proceedings under the insolvent act having been commenced by the debtor himself, he only, by the surrender of his effects, protects his *person* in future from arrest—not the property he may subsequently acquire, from liability to the payment of all his debts in full.

Proceedings under the existing Insolvent Act.—In 1813, a special tribunal, called the "Court for Relief of Insolvent Debtors," was appointed for the purpose of receiving the surrender of property and effects for the benefit of the creditors of insolvents. It consists of a chief and two other commissioners, appointed by the Crown, and is a court of record, with powers similar to those of the superior courts at Westminster; but it cannot award costs, unless in particular cases. The court sits twice a week in Portugal-street; and no fees are taken, except those established by the court. The commissioners also severally make circuits, and attend at the towns and places appointed for insolvents in the country to appear: their judicial powers in the provincial towns are the same as those exercised in the metropolis.

I. The first step in the insolvent's proceeding is the *Petition*. Any person in actual custody for any debt, damages, costs, or money due for contempt of any court, may, within 14 days after his first detention, petition the court for his discharge; stating in such petition the particulars of his arrest, and the amount of his debts, and praying to be discharged not only against the demands of the persons detaining him, but against all other creditors having claims at the time of presenting the petition. Persons not *actually* in custody within the walls of a prison, and during the proceedings thereon, are not entitled to the benefit of the act. In case of sickness, however, and after an order for hearing the petition has been obtained, this condition is not required.

Notice of the time appointed for hearing the petition must be given to all creditors whose debts amount to 5*l.*, and be advertised in the *London Gazette*.

At the time of subscribing the petition, the insolvent executes an assignment to the provisional assignee of the court, renouncing all title to his property, except wearing apparel, working-tools, bedding, and such necessaries of himself and family as shall not exceed the value of 20*l.* During confinement, the court may order an allowance for the support of the petitioner.

The filing of a petition is an act of bankruptcy, and, if a commission be issued within 2 calendar months, vacates the assignment: but this does not stop the proceedings of the court; and any property remaining to the petitioner, after obtaining his certificate, continues liable as if no commission had been issued.

The voluntary preference of a creditor, by conveyance of money, goods, bills, or other property, after the filing of the petition, or within 3 months prior to the imprisonment of the petitioner, being then in insolvent circumstances, is fraudulent and void.

Within 14 days after the filing of his petition, the insolvent must prepare a schedule of his debts; also of his property and income from every source whence he derives benefit or emolument, together with an account of all debts owing to him, the names of the debtors, and their places of abode. Lastly, the schedule must describe the wearing apparel and other articles not exceeding 20*l.* which the petitioner is allowed to retain.

Insolvents guilty of omissions in the schedule, with intent to defraud creditors, or excepting in it necessaries to an amount exceeding 10*l.*, or persons assisting therein, are guilty of a misdemeanour, subjecting to an imprisonment for not more than 3 years.

II. *The Assignee.*—Any time after the filing of the petition, the court appoints assignees from among the creditors, to whom, on their acceptance of the appointment, an assignment is made of the effects of the prisoner. In case of any real estate, the same, within the space of 6 months, must be sold by public auction, in such manner and place as the major part in value of the creditors approve: but when any part of the property is so circumstanced that the immediate sale of it would be prejudicial to the interests of the prisoner, the court may direct the management of such property till it can be properly sold; and if the debts can be paid by mortgage in lieu of sale, the court may give directions for that purpose.

Goods in possession and disposition, or reputed, he is reputed owner, are deemed his property; but this does not affect the assignment of any ship or vessel, duly registered according to the 6 Geo. 4. c. 110.

An account upon oath before an officer of the court, or justice of peace, must be made up by the assignee within every 3 months at the furthest; and in case of a balance in hand, a dividend must be forthwith made, of which dividend, 30 days' previous notice must be given; and every creditor is allowed to share in the dividend, unless objected to by the prisoner, assignees, or other creditors, in which case the court decides.

The assignees may execute powers which the insolvent might have executed, as the granting of leases, taking fines, transferring public stock or annuities; but they cannot nominate to a vacant ecclesiastical benefice.

The assignees, with the consent of one commissioner, and the major part of the creditors in value, may compound for any debt due to the prisoner; or may submit differences connected with the estate of the insolvent to arbitration.

Dividends payable to creditors, unclaimed for 12 months, are to be paid into court in the credit of the estate of the insolvent: in default of payment of the dividends by the assignees, their goods may be distrained; or, if no distress, they may be imprisoned.

The assignees, in case the insolvent is a beneficed clergyman or curate, are not entitled to the income of the benefice or curacy; but they may obtain a sequestration of the profits for the benefit of creditors. Neither are the assignees entitled to the pay, half pay, pension, or other emolument, of any person who is or has been in the army, navy, or civil service of the government or East India Company; but the court may order, subject to the approval of the heads of public offices, a portion of such pay, half pay, pension, or emoluments, to be set aside towards the liquidation of the debts of the insolvent.

The court may inquire into the conduct of the assignees, on the complaint of the insolvent or any of his creditors; and, in case of malversation, award costs against them.

Assignees who wilfully employ or retain any part of the proceeds of the insolvent's estate, may be charged with interest, at a rate not exceeding 20*l.* per cent. per annum.

III. *Discharge of the Insolvent.*—On the day appointed for hearing the petition, any creditor may oppose the discharge of the prisoner; and, for that purpose, put such questions and examine such witnesses, as the court shall admit, touching the matters contained in the petition and schedule; or a creditor may require, and the court direct, that an officer of the court shall investigate the accounts of the prisoner, and report thereon. In case the prisoner is not opposed, and the court is satisfied with his schedule, it may order his immediate discharge from custody; or it may direct him to be detained in custody for any term not exceeding 6 months, to be computed from the time of filing the petition.

But if the prisoner has destroyed his books, or falsified entries therein, or otherwise acted fraudulently towards his creditors, or wilfully omitted any thing in his schedule, he may be imprisoned for any term not exceeding *three years*; or where a prisoner has contracted debts fraudulently, by means of a breach of trust; or put creditors to unnecessary expense; or incurred debts by means of any false pretence, or without probable expectation, at the time when contracted, of ever paying them; or shall be indebted for damages for criminal conversation with the wife, or for seducing the daughter or servant of the plaintiff; or for breach of promise of marriage; or for damages in any action for malicious prosecution, libel, slander, or trespass; the court may imprison for 2 years.

The discharge extends to sums payable by annuity; the annuitants being admitted as creditors to the estate of the insolvent, at a fair valuation of their interest.

But the discharge does not extend to any debts due to the Crown, nor for any offence against the revenue laws; nor at suit of any sheriff or other public officer, upon any bail-bond entered into for any person prosecuted for such offence; unless the Treasury certify consent to the discharge.

Insolvents under writ of *capias* or extent, must apply to the Barons of the Exchequer to be discharged.

When the prisoner is not discharged, the court may, on application for that purpose, order the creditor at whose suit he is detained to pay any sum not exceeding 4*s.* weekly; and in default of payment, the prisoner to be liberated.

IV. *Future Liabilities of the Insolvent.*—Prior to adjudication on the petition, the insolvent is required to execute a warrant of attorney, empowering the court to enter up judgment against him, in the name of the assignees, for the amount of the debts unpaid; and when the insolvent is of sufficient ability to pay such debts, or is dead, leaving assets for the purpose, the court may permit execution to be taken out against the property of the insolvent acquired after his discharge; and this proceeding may be repeated till the *whole of the debt, with costs*, is paid and satisfied.

But no person after judgment entered up, is liable to imprisonment for any debt to which the adjudication of the court extended.

When an insolvent is entitled to the benefit of the act, no execution, except under the judgment before mentioned, can issue against him for debts contracted prior to his confinement; but he may be proceeded against for a debt which could not be enforced at the period of his discharge.

An insolvent, after his discharge, may, on the application of an assignee to the court, be again examined touching the effects set forth in the schedule; and if he refuse to appear or answer questions, he may be recommitted.

No uncertificated bankrupt, nor any person having had the benefit of the insolvent act, can have it a second time within five years, unless 3-4ths in number and value of the creditors consent thereto, or unless it appear to the court that the insolvent, since his bankruptcy or discharge, has done his utmost to pay all just demands; and that the debts subsequently incurred have been unavoidable, from inability otherwise to acquire subsistence for himself and family.

Married women are entitled to the benefit of the insolvent act, and may petition the court on executing a special assignment.

The Insolvent Act, of which the above is a digest, was continued by an act of the session of 1830, the 1 Will. 4. c. 38., for 2 years and "from thence to the end of the next session of parliament." It is important to remark, that the act of Will. 4. prohibits, while the insolvent acts are in force, any debtor from being discharged on his petition under the 32 Geo. 2. c. 28., commonly called the "Lords' Act."

Our next object will be to present a brief exposition of the BANKRUPT LAWS.

BANKRUPTCY.—Blackstone defines a bankrupt—"A trader who secretes himself, or does certain other acts tending to defraud his creditors." But an intention to defraud is not now held to be essential to constitute a bankrupt; who may be either simply an insolvent, or a person who is guilty of certain acts tending to defraud his creditors.

There are, as already observed, some important distinctions between the bankrupt and insolvent laws, not only in their application to different descriptions of individuals, but also in the powers they exercise over the estates of persons subsequently to their being brought under their adjudication. The benefits of the Insolvent Act extend without

distinction to every class of persons actually in prison for debt; the benefits of the Bankrupt Act extend to traders only. But persons relieved under a commission of bankruptcy for the first time are for ever discharged from all debts proveable against them, and their property from any future liability; whereas, if relieved under the Insolvent Act, their persons only are protected from arrest, while any property they may subsequently acquire continues liable to their creditors till the whole amount of their debts is paid in full. It follows that the Insolvent Act affords merely a personal relief; while the Bankrupt Act discharges both person and property, and even returns the bankrupt a certain allowance out of the produce of his assets, proportioned to good behaviour, and the amount of his dividend.

Having already treated of insolvency, we shall now proceed to describe the proceedings under a commission of bankruptcy, as regulated by the act of Lord Brougham, the 1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 56., and the 6 Geo. 4. c. 16., which are the last general acts on the subject, and by which former statutes have been consolidated, and several important improvements introduced; leaving, however, untouched, many of the radical defects inherent in this branch of the law. The chief points to be considered, are—1. The persons who may become bankrupt; 2. Acts constituting bankruptcy; 3. Proceedings of petitioning creditor; 4. New Court of Bankruptcy; 5. Debts proveable under the commission; 6. Official assignees; 7. Assignees chosen by creditors; 8. Property liable under bankruptcy; 9. Examination and liabilities of bankrupt; 10. Payment of a dividend; 11. Certificate and allowance to bankrupt.

1. *Who may become Bankrupt.*—Generally all persons in trade, capable of making binding contracts, whether natural-born subjects, aliens, or denizens, are within the jurisdiction of the bankrupt laws; but the statute expressly includes builders, bankers, brokers, packers, carpenters, scriveners, ship insurers, warehousemen, wharfingers, shipwrights, victuallers; keepers of inns, taverns, hotels, and coffee-houses; dyers, printers, bleachers, fullers, calenderers, cattle or sheep salesmen, factors, agents, and all persons who use the trade of merchandise by bargaining, bartering, commission, consignment, and otherwise, and also all persons who seek their living by buying and selling, letting for hire, or by the manufacturing of goods and commodities. Persons who cannot become bankrupt, are, graziers, farmers, workmen for hire, labourers, receivers general of taxes, and subscribers to any commercial or trading company established by charter or act of parliament.

A clergyman, unless a trader, cannot be made a bankrupt; nor an attorney, in the common course of his profession; nor an infant, nor a lunatic, nor a married woman, except in those cases where she may be sued and taken in execution for her debts.—(3 *T. R.* 545.)

A single act of buying or selling is not sufficient to make a trader; as a schoolmaster selling books to his scholars only, or a keeper of hounds buying dead horses and selling the skin and bones.—(2 *Moore*, 56.) But the quantity of dealing is immaterial, where an intention to deal generally may be inferred.—(1 *Ross*, 84.) A buyer or seller of land, or any interest in land, is not a trader within the act; and on this principle it has been decided, that a brick-maker, selling bricks made in his own field, or the owner of a mine selling minerals from his own quarry, is not liable, because such business is carried on only as a mode of enjoying the profits of a real estate.—(2 *Wils.* 169.)

Traders having privilege of parliament are subject to the bankrupt laws, and may be proceeded against as other traders: but such persons cannot be arrested or imprisoned, except in cases made felony by the statute.

2. *Acts constituting Bankruptcy.*—In general, any act which is intended to delay or defraud creditors, is an act of bankruptcy; such as a trader concealing himself from his creditors, leaving the country, causing himself to be arrested or his goods taken in execution, or making any fraudulent conveyance, gift, or delivery of his property. A trader keeping house commits an act of bankruptcy, if he give a general order to be denied. So is closing the door, and not admitting persons till ascertained who they are from window, though no actual denial.(1 *Barr. & Cres.* 54.) But it is no act of bankruptcy if the denial be on Sunday, or at an unseasonable hour of the night, or to prevent interruption at dinner time.

Traders held in prison for any really subsisting debt for the period of 21 days, or who, being arrested, make their escape out of prison or custody, commit acts of bankruptcy. A penalty due to the Crown is a sufficient debt, and the time is computed from the first arrest, where the party lies in prison immediately, and the day of arrest is included, and the whole of the last day.

Filing a petition, in order to take the benefit of the Insolvent Act, is an act of bankruptcy, and a fiat may be issued any time before the petition is heard by the Insolvent Court, or within 2 calendar months.

A trader may make a declaration of his insolvency, signed and attested by an attorney or solicitor, and afterwards to be filed in the Bankrupt Office; and the secretary signing a memorandum thereof, is authority for advertising it in the *Gazette*. Upon this act of bankruptcy no commission can issue, if not within two calendar months after such advertisement, and unless such advertisement be within 8 days after filing declaration; and no docket can be struck till 4 days after advertisement, if the commission is to be executed in London, and 8 if in the country. Such declaration of insolvency being consented between bankrupt and creditor, does not invalidate the commission.

The execution by a trader of any conveyance by deed, of all his estate and effects for the benefit of all his creditors, is not an act of bankruptcy, unless a commission be sued out within six months after, provided the deed be attested by an attorney or solicitor, and executed within 15 days after, and notice thereof within 2 months, be given in the *Gazette*, and 3 daily newspapers; or, if the trader reside more than 50 miles from London, notice may be given in the *Gazette*, and nearest country newspaper.

3. *Proceedings of Petitioning Creditors.*—A person being a trader, and having committed an act of bankruptcy, the next step in the proceeding is to petition the Lord Chancellor to issue his fiat. No fiat is issued, unless the petitioning creditor's debt, if 1 person or 1 firm, amounts to 100*l.*; if 2 creditors, to 150*l.*; if 3 or more creditors, to 200*l.* or upwards. The petitioning creditor must make an affidavit before a Master in Chancery, of the truth of his debt, and give bond in 200*l.* to prove it, and the act of bankruptcy. If the debt prove insufficient to support a fiat, the Lord Chancellor, upon the application of another creditor who has proved a sufficient debt, contracted posterior to that of the petitioning creditor, may order the bankruptcy to be proceeded in.

The petitioning creditor proceeds at his own cost until the choice of assignees, when his expenses are paid out of the first money received under the bankruptcy.

Creditors entitled to sue out a fiat against all the partners in a firm, may elect to petition only against one or more of such partners; and the commission may be superseded as to one or more partners, without affecting its validity as to the other partners.

Creditors who have sued out a fiat compounding with the bankrupt, or receiving more in the pound than other creditors, forfeit the whole of their debt, and whatever gratuity they received, for the benefit of the other creditors, and the Lord Chancellor may either order the commission to be proceeded in or superseded.

4. *New Court of Bankruptcy.*—Formerly the bankrupt business of the metropolis was transacted by 70 commissioners, appointed by the Lord Chancellor. They received no regular commission, but derived their authority from a letter written to them by the Chancellor, informing them of their appointment. The whole proceedings under a town commission, from its issuing to the winding up of the bankrupt's affairs, were managed by these commissioners, who acted by rotation, in lists of 5 each. In place of these an entire new court has been substituted, consisting of a chief judge, with 3 puisne judges, and 6 commissioners. There are also 3 principal registrars, and 8 deputy registrars. The secretary of bankrupts is also continued as one of the officers under the new system.

The judges, or any 3 of them, sit as a Court of Review, to adjudicate in all matters of bankruptcy brought before them, subject to an appeal to the Lord Chancellor. The 6 commissioners sit occasionally in 2 subdivision courts of 3 commissioners each. The powers of the single commissioner are nearly the same as the old commissioners. The examination of any bankrupt or other person, or of a proof of debt, may be adjourned by a single commissioner to a subdivision court; and disputed debts, if all parties consent, may be tried by a jury. An appeal lies from a single commissioner, or a subdivision court, to the Court of Review; and a decree of this court is final, unless appealed against within 1 month.

The London commissioners under the old law had a jurisdiction for 40 miles round London, which is continued to their successors. Commissions in the country beyond this distance were directed to barristers, or, if these could not be had, to solicitors, resident near the spot where the commission was to be executed. Under the new act, the judges of assize name to the Lord Chancellor such barristers and solicitors in the county as they think fit for the office; and if he approve, they are to appoint them permanent commissioners for the execution of all bankruptcy business in the county; and fiats, not directed to the Court of Bankruptcy in London, are directed to them.

Let us now proceed with the powers and duties of the commissioners.

Commissioners are empowered to summon persons, examine them on oath, and call for any deeds or documents necessary to establish the trading and act of bankruptcy; and upon full proof thereof, to adjudge the debtor a bankrupt. Notice of such adjudication must be given in the *Gazette*, and 3 public meetings appointed for the bankrupt to surrender; the last of which meetings to be the 42d day after. A bankrupt refusing to attend at the appointed time may be apprehended; and on refusing to answer any question touching his business or property, may be committed to prison.

By warrant of the commissioners, persons may break open any house, premises, door, chest, or trunk of any bankrupt, and seize on his body or property; and if the bankrupt be in prison or custody, they may seize any property (necessary wearing apparel excepted) in the possession of such bankrupt, or any other person. Authorised by a justice's warrant, premises may be searched not belonging to the bankrupt, on suspicion of property being concealed there; and persons suspected to have any of the bankrupt's property in their possession, refusing to obey the summons of commissioners, or refusing to answer interrogatories, or to surrender documents, without lawful excuse, may be imprisoned. The wife of the bankrupt may be examined, or, on refusal, committed.

Persons summoned are entitled to their expenses; and those attending, whether summoned or not, to assist the commissioners in their inquiries, are protected from arrest on any civil suit.

5. *Debts proveable under Commission.*—At the 3 meetings ap

pointed by the commissioners, and at every other meeting appointed by them for proof of debts, every creditor may prove his debt by affidavit or by his own oath; incorporated bodies by an agent authorised for the purpose; and one partner may prove on behalf of the firm. Persons living at a distance may prove by affidavit before a Master in Chancery, or, if resident abroad, before a magistrate where residing, attested by a public notary, or British minister or consul.

Clerks and servants, to whom the bankrupt is indebted for wages, are entitled to be paid 6 months' wages *in full*, and for the residue they may prove under the commission.

Indentures of apprenticeship are discharged by bankruptcy; but in case a premium has been received, the commissioners may direct a portion of it to be repaid for the use of the apprentice, proportioned to the term of apprenticeship unexpired.

Debts upon bill, bond, note, or other negotiable security, or where credit has been given upon valuable consideration, though not due at the time the act of bankruptcy was committed, are provable under the commission. Sureties, persons liable for the debts of, or bail for the bankrupt, may prove after having paid such debts, if they have contracted the liability without notice of any act of bankruptcy. Obligee in bottomry or respondentia bonds, and assured in policy of insurance, are admitted to claim; and after loss, to prove as if the loss or contingency had happened before commission had issued against the obligor or insurer. Annuity creditors may prove for the value of their annuities, regard being had to the original cost of such annuities. Plaintiffs in any action having obtained judgment against the bankrupt, may prove for their costs.

When there are mutual debts between the bankrupt and a creditor, they may be set off against each other, and the balance, if in favour of the creditor, is provable against the bankrupt's estate.

Interest may be proved on all bills of exchange and promissory notes over-due at the time of issuing commission, up to the date of the commission.

Proving a debt under the commission, is an election not to proceed against the bankrupt by action; and in case the bankrupt be in prison at the suit of a creditor, he cannot prove his debt without first discharging the bankrupt from confinement: but the creditor is not liable for the costs of the action so relinquished by him.

No debt barred by the statute of limitations is provable under the commission.

6. *Official Assignee.*—An important alteration introduced by Lord Brougham's Act, particularly to commercial men, is the appointment of official assignees. They are 30 in number, merchants and traders resident in the metropolis or vicinity; and are selected by the Lord Chancellor. They are to act with the assignees chosen by the creditors. All the real and personal estates of the bankrupt, all the monies, stock in the public funds, securities and proceeds of sale, are transferred and vested in the official assignee, subject to the rules, orders, and direction of the Lord Chancellor, or a member of the Court of Bankruptcy. The official assignee gives security for the trust reposed in him; and is required to deposit all monies, securities, &c. in the Bank of England.

The official assignee is neither remunerated by a percentage nor a fixed salary, but a sum is paid to him for his trouble, at the discretion of the commissioners, and proportioned to the estates of the bankrupt and the duties discharged.

7. *Appointment of Assignees by Creditors.*—The official assignee is empowered to act as the sole assignee of the bankrupt's estates and effects until others are chosen by creditors, which must be at the 2d meeting. Every creditor to the amount of 10*l.*, who has proved his debt, is eligible to vote; persons may be authorised by letters of attorney to vote, and the choice is made by the major part in value of the creditors: but the commissioners may reject any person they deem unfit; upon which a new choice must be made.

When only 1 or more partners of a firm are bankrupt, a creditor to the whole firm is entitled to vote, and to assent to or dissent from the certificate; but such creditor, unless a petitioning creditor, cannot receive any dividend out of the separate estate, until all the other creditors are paid in full.

Assignees may, with consent of creditors declared at any meeting duly summoned, compound or submit disputes to arbitration, and such reference be made a rule of the Court of Bankruptcy, or they may commence action at law; but if 1-3d in value of creditors do not attend such meeting, the same powers are granted to assignees with the consent, in writing, of commissioners.

Assignees to keep a book of account, where shall be entered a statement of all receipts and payments relating to bankrupt's estate, and which may be inspected by any creditor who has proved. Commissioners may summon assignees, with their books and papers, before them; and if they refuse to attend, may cause them to be committed till they obey the summons.

An assignee retaining or employing the money of the bankrupt to the amount of 100*l.* or upwards, for his own advantage, may be charged 20*l.* per cent. interest.

Commissioners at the last examination of bankrupt, to appoint a public meeting, not sooner than 4 calendar months after issuing commission, nor later than 6 calendar months from last examination, of which 21 days' notice must be given in the *Gazette*, to audit the accounts of the assignee; which accounts may be delivered on oath, and the commissioners may examine the assignee touching the truth thereof.

8. *Property liable under Bankruptcy.*—The official assignee is vested with all the real and personal estate of the bankrupt, and with all such property as may be devised to him, or come into his possession, till the time he obtain his certificate. The commissioners may sell any real property of which the bankrupt is seised, or any estate tail, in possession, reversion, or remainder; and the sale is good against the bankrupt, the issue of his body, and against all persons claiming under him. If he became bankrupt, or whose fine, common recovery, or other means, he can cut off from any future interest. All property which the bankrupt has in right of his wife passes to the assignee, except such as is settled for her own sole benefit. Any property pledged, or securities deposited, may be redeemed for the benefit of the creditors.

If a bankrupt, being at the time insolvent, convey his land or goods to his children or others (except upon their marriage, or for a valuable consideration), or deliver securities, or transfer debts into other names, such transactions are void.

A landlord after or out of bankruptcy, cannot distrain for more than one *year's rent*; but he may prove under the commission for the rest due.

The assignee may accept any lease to which the bankrupt is entitled, and his acceptance exonerates the bankrupt from any future liability for rent; or if the assignee decline the lease, and the bankrupt, within 14 days after, deliver the lease to the lessor, he is not liable for rent.

In general, all power which the bankrupt might lawfully execute in the sale and disposition of his property for the benefit of himself, may be executed by the assignee for the benefit of creditors.

All contracts, conveyances, and transactions, by or with any bankrupt, and all executions and attachments levied, without notice of an act of bankruptcy, for more than two months before the issuing of the commission, are valid. All payments whatever, either *by* or *to* the bankrupt, without notice of an act of bankruptcy, are protected down to the date of the commission; and purchasers for valuable considerations, with notice, cannot be molested, unless a commission issue within 12 months after the act of bankruptcy.

The circumstance of a commission appearing in the *Gazette*, and a fair presumption that the person to be affected thereby may have seen the same, is deemed sufficient legal notice of an act of bankruptcy having been committed.

9. *Examination and Liabilities of Bankrupt.*—A bankrupt, not surrendering to the commissioners before 3 o'clock upon the 42d day after notice, or not making discovery of his estate and effects, not delivering up goods, books, papers, &c., or removing or embezzling to the value of 10*l.*, is guilty of *felony*, and liable to a discretionary punishment, from imprisonment to transportation for life. The period for surrendering may be enlarged by the Lord Chancellor; and the commissioners, or assignees with approval of commissioners, may grant an allowance for support of the bankrupt and his family till he has passed his last examination. During his attendance on commissioners, the bankrupt is protected from arrest.

The bankrupt is required to deliver up his books of account to the assignees upon oath, and to attend them on reasonable notice; he may inspect his account, assisted by other persons, in presence of assignee. After certificate is allowed, he is required to attend assignees, in settling accounts, at 5*s.* per day; and may be committed for non-attendance.

A penalty of 100*l.* is imposed on persons concealing bankrupts' effects, and double the value of the property so concealed; and an allowance of 5*s.* per cent. to persons discovering such concealment, with such further reward as the major part of the creditors may think fit to grant.

The bankrupt, or any other person, wilfully swearing falsely, is liable to the penalties of perjury.

If the bankrupt intend to dispute the commission, he must present a petition to the Court of Review within 2 calendar months; or, if out of the United Kingdom, within 12.

At any meeting of creditors, after the last examination, the bankrupt or his friends may *tender a composition*; which, if accepted by 9-10ths in number and value of the creditors, at 2 separate meetings, the Lord Chancellor may supersede the commission. In deciding on such offer, creditors under 20*l.* are not entitled to vote; but their debts are computed in value. Persons residing out of England may vote by letter of attorney, properly attested; and the bankrupt may be required to make oath that no unfair means have been employed to obtain the assent of any creditor to such arrangement.

10. *Payment of a Dividend.*—Not sooner than 4, nor later than 12 calendar months, the commissioners are to appoint a public meeting, of which 21 days' previous notice must be given in the *Gazette*, to make a dividend; and at which meeting, creditors who have not proved, may prove their debts; and at such meeting commissioners may order the net produce of bankrupt's estate to be shared among the creditors that have proved, in proportion to their debts: but no dividend to be declared unless the accounts of the assignees have been first audited and delivered in as before described.

If the estate is not wholly divided upon a first dividend, a second meeting must be called, not later than 18 months from the date of commission; and the dividend declared at such second meeting to be final, unless some suit at law be pending, or some part of bankrupt's property afterwards accrue to the assignees; in which case it must be shared among the creditors within 3 months after it is converted into money.

Assignees having unclaimed dividends to the amount of 50*l.*, who do not, within 2 calendar months from the expiration of a year from the order of payment of such dividends, either pay them to the creditors entitled thereto, or cause a certificate thereof to be filed in the Bankrupt's Office, with the names, &c. of the parties to whom due, shall be charged with legal interest from the time the certificate ought to have been filed, and such further sum, not exceeding 20*l.* per cent. per annum, as the commissioners think fit. The Lord Chancellor may order the investment of unclaimed dividends in the funds; and after 7 years the same may be divided among the other creditors.

No action can be brought against assignees for any dividend; the remedy being by petition to the Lord Chancellor.

11. *Certificate and Allowance to Bankrupt.*—The bankrupt who has surrendered, and conformed in all things to the provisions of the bankrupt laws, is discharged by the certificate from all debts and demands provable under the commission; but this does not discharge his partner, or one jointly bound, or in joint contract with him, nor does it bar a debt due to the Crown.

The certificate must be signed by 4-5ths in number and value of creditors who have proved debts to the amount of 20*l.* or upwards; or, after 6 months from last examination, then either by 3-5ths in number and value, or by 9-10ths in number. The bankrupt must make oath the certificate was obtained without fraud; and any creditors may be heard before it is finally allowed by the Lord Chancellor. Any contract or security given to obtain signatures to the certificate, is void.

A bankrupt, after obtaining his certificate, cannot be arrested for any debt provable under the commission; nor is he liable to satisfy any debt from which he is discharged, upon any promise, contract, or agreement, unless made in writing.

In case a person has been bankrupt before, or compounded with his creditors, or taken benefit of Insolvent Act, unless the estate produce 15*s.* in the pound, the certificate only protects the person of bankrupt from arrest; and any future property he acquires may be seized by assignees for benefit of creditors.

If the produce of bankrupt's estate does not amount to 10*s.* in the pound, he is only allowed out of the assets so much as assignees think fit, not exceeding 3 per cent., or 300*l.* in the whole; if it produce 10*s.* 6 per cent., not exceeding 400*l.*; if 12*s.* 6*d.* is paid in the pound, 7 1-2 per cent., not exceeding 500*l.*; if 15*s.* in the pound and upwards, 10 per cent. and not exceeding 600*l.* One partner may receive his allowance, if entitled, from the joint and his separate estate, though the others are not entitled.

A bankrupt is not entitled to certificate or allowance, if he has lost by gaming or wagering, in 1 day, 20*l.*, or within 1 year next preceding his bankruptcy, 200*l.*, or 200*l.* by stock-jobbing (in the same period)

or, in contemplation of bankruptcy, has destroyed or falsified his books, or concealed property to amount of 10*l.*; or, if any person having proved a false debt under the commission, such bankrupt, being privy thereto, or afterwards knowing the same, has not disclosed it to his assignees within 1 month after such knowledge.

Lastly, upon request by the bankrupt, the official assignee is required to declare to him how he has disposed of his property, and account to him for the surplus, if any: but before any surplus can be admitted, interest must be paid, first, on all debts proved that carry interest, at the rate payable thereon; and next, upon all other debts, at the rate of 4*l.* per cent., to be calculated from the date of the commission.

I. Account of the Number of Commissions of Bankruptcy issued from 1790 to 1821.

Years.	Commissions.	Years.	Commissions.	Years.	Commissions.	Years.	Commissions.	Years.	Commissions.	Years.	Commissions.
1790	747	1796	954	1802	1,090	1807	1,362	1812	2,228	1817	1,927
1791	769	1797	1,115	1803	1,214	1808	1,433	1813	1,958	1818	1,245
1792	934	1798	911	1804	1,117	1809	1,382	1814	1,614	1819	1,499
1793	1,056	1799	717	1805	1,129	1810	2,314	1815	2,284	1820	1,381
1794	1,041	1800	951	1806	1,268	1811	2,500	1816	2,731	1821	1,239
1795	879	1801	1,199								

II. Account of the Number of Commissions of Bankrupt and Fiats issued each Year, from 1822 to 1832 both included; distinguishing Town Commissioners and Fiats, and showing how many Country Commissions and Fiats were opened in each Year.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 342. Sess. 1833.)

Years.	Commissions sealed.	Town Commissions opened.	Country Commissions opened.	Years.	Commissions sealed.	Town Commissions opened.	Country Commissions opened.
1822	1,419	468	534	1831	1,836	692	770
1823	1,250	592	396				
1824	1,240	574	396				
1825	1,475	683	448	1832			
1826	3,307	1,229	1,220	Coms.	61	20	37
1827	1,688	671	742	Fiats	1,661	623	703
1828	1,519	601	620		1,722	643	740
1829	2,150	809	910				
1830	1,720	661	748		19,376	7,563	7,524
Total commissions and fiats sealed and signed in the above period						-	19,376
Total town commissions and fiats opened - - - - - -						-	7,563
Total country commissions and fiats opened - - - - - -						-	7,524

III. Total Number of Persons discharged from Prison under the Acts for the Relief of Insolvent Debtors since the Constitution of the present Court in 1820; and the Number who have been ordered to be detained in Custody for contravening the Provisions of the Acts for the Relief of Insolvent Debtors.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 141. Sess. 1831, and *Papers published by Board of Trade.*)

N. B.—The Court makes no orders of detention; and the following Table shows all the judgments given to the 30th of June, 1831.

Years.	Ordered to be discharged forthwith.				Ordered to be discharged at some future Period.				Total.
	In London.	On Circuit.	Before Justices.	Total.	In London.	On Circuit.	Before Justices.	Total.	
1820	830	none.	1,495	2,325	61	none.	96	157	2,482
1821	2,347	none.	2,516	4,863	219	none.	208	427	5,290
1822	2,074	none.	2,499	4,573	161	none.	221	382	4,955
1823	1,811	none.	2,047	3,858	181	none.	202	383	4,241
1824	1,745	388	1,255	3,318	142	18	115	275	3,593
1825	1,955	1,342	73	3,370	126	161	8	295	3,665
1826	2,420	1,865	89	4,382	110	183	5	298	4,681
1827	1,929	1,988	89	4,006	90	128	10	228	4,234
1828	1,913	1,450	112	3,475	127	131	6	264	3,739
1829	2,067	1,580	100	3,747	158	152	10	320	4,067
1830	2,056	1,823	111	3,990	189	191	9	389	4,379
1831	1,553	2,031	135	3,719	159	178	8	345	4,064
Totals	22,709	12,397	10,521	45,627	1,723	1,142	898	3,763	49,390

[By the constitution of the United States "Congress shall have power to establish uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies through the United States." This power, however, has only been exercised for a very short period. An act establishing a uniform system of bankruptcy was passed on April 4th, 1800. It was limited to five years, and thence to the end of the next session of Congress, but was repealed by the act of December 19th, 1803.

The power of Congress in respect to bankruptcies has been adjudged not to be exclusive. So long as Congress refuse to exercise it, the respective states may pass bankrupt, or, what amounts to the same thing, insolvent laws; but such laws must not be of a nature to impair the obligation of contracts made prior to their passage. State insolvent laws are, moreover, invalid as to all contracts, whether prior or posterior to their existence, to which citizens of other states are parties.—See Kent's *Commentaries on American Law*, Sect. 37.—*Am. Ed.*]

INSURANCE, a contract of indemnity, by which one party engages, for a stipulated sum, to insure another against a risk to which he is exposed. The party who takes upon him the risk, is called the *Insurer*, *Assurer*, or *Underwriter*; and the party protected by the insurance is called the *Insured*, or *Assured*; the sum paid is called the *Premium*; and the instrument containing the contract is called the *Policy*.

I. Insurance (General Principles of).
II. Insurance (Marine).
III. Insurance (Fire).
IV. Insurance (Life).

I. Insurance (General Principles of).

It is the duty of government to assist, by every means in its power, the efforts of individuals to protect their property. Losses do not always arise from accidental circumstances, but are frequently occasioned by the crimes and misconduct of individuals; and there are no means so effectual for their prevention, when they arise from this source, as the establishment of a vigilant system of police, and of such an administration of the law as may be calculated to afford those who are injured a ready and cheap method of obtaining every practicable redress; and, as far as possible, of insuring the punishment of culprits. But in despite of all that may be done by government, and of the utmost vigilance on the part of individuals, property must always be exposed to a variety of casualties from fire, shipwreck, and other unforeseen disasters. And hence the importance of inquiring how such unavoidable losses, when they do occur, may be rendered least injurious.

The loss of a ship, or the conflagration of a cotton mill, is a calamity that would press heavily even on the richest individual. But were it distributed among several individuals, each would feel it proportionally less; and provided the number of those among whom it was distributed were very considerable, it would hardly occasion any sensible inconvenience to any one in particular. Hence the advantage of combining to lessen the injury arising from the accidental destruction of property: and it is the diffusion of the risk of loss over a wide surface, and its valuation, that forms the employment of those engaged in insurance.

Though it be impossible to trace the circumstances which occasion those events that are, on that account, termed accidental, they are, notwithstanding, found to obey certain laws. The number of births, marriages, and deaths; the proportions of male to female, and of legitimate to illegimate births; the ships cast away; the houses burned; and a vast variety of other apparently accidental events; are yet, when our experience embraces a sufficiently wide field, found to be nearly equal in equal periods of time: and it is easy, from observations made upon them, to estimate the sum which an individual should pay, either to guarantee his property from risk, or to secure a certain sum for his heirs at his death.

It must, however, be carefully observed, that no confidence can be placed in such estimates, unless they are deduced from a very wide induction. Suppose, for example, it happens, that during the present year one house is accidentally burned, in a town containing 1,000 houses; this would afford very little ground for presuming that the *average* probability of fire in that town was as 1 to 1,000. For it might be found that not a single house had been burned during the previous 10 years, or that 10 were burned during each of these years. But supposing it were ascertained, that, on an average of 10 years, 1 house had been annually burned, the presumption that 1 to 1,000 was the real ratio of the probability of fire would be very much strengthened; and if it were found to obtain for 20 or 30 years together, it might be held, for all practical purposes at least, as indicating the precise degree of probability.

Besides its being necessary, in order to obtain the true measure of the probability of any event, that the series of events, of which it is one, should be observed for a rather lengthened period, it is necessary also that the events should be numerous, or of pretty frequent occurrence. Suppose it were found, by observing the births and deaths of 1,000,000 individuals taken indiscriminately from among the whole population, that the mean duration of human life was 40 years; we should have but very slender grounds for concluding that this ratio would hold in the case of the next 10, 20, or 50 individuals that are born. Such a number is so small as hardly to admit of the operation of what is called the *law of average*. When a large number of lives is taken, those that exceed the medium term are balanced by those that fall short of it; but when the number is small, there is comparatively little room for the principle of compensation, and the result cannot, therefore, be depended upon.

It is found, by the experience of all countries in which censuses of the population have been taken with considerable accuracy, that the number of male children born is to that of female children in the proportion nearly of 22 to 21. But unless the observations be made on a very large scale, this result will not be obtained. If we look at particular families, they sometimes consist wholly of boys, and sometimes wholly of girls; and it is not possible that the boys can be to the girls of a single family in a ratio of 22 to 21. But when, instead of confining our observations to particular families, or even parishes, we extend them so as to embrace a population of 500,000, these discrepancies disappear, and we find that there is invariably a small excess in the number of males born over the females.

The false inferences that have been drawn from the doctrine of chances, have uniformly, almost, proceeded from generalising too rapidly, or from deducing a rate of probability from such a number of instances as do not give a fair average. But when the instances on which

we found our conclusions are sufficiently numerous, it is seen that the most anomalous events, such as suicides, deaths by accidents, the number of letters put into the post-office without any address, &c., form pretty regular series, and consequently admit of being estimated *à priori*.

The business of insurance is founded upon the principles thus briefly stated. Suppose it has been remarked that of *forty* ships, of the ordinary degree of sea-worthiness, employed in a given trade, 1 is annually cast away, the probability of loss will plainly be equal to *one fortieth*. And if an individual wish to insure a ship, or the cargo on board a ship, engaged in this trade, he ought to pay a *premium* equal to the 1-40th part of the sum he insures, exclusive of such an additional sum as may be required to indemnify the insurer, for his trouble, and to leave him a fair profit. If the premium exceed this sum, the insurer is overpaid; and if it fall below it, he is underpaid.

Insurances are effected sometimes by societies, and sometimes by individuals, the risk being in either case diffused among a number of persons. Companies formed for carrying on the business have generally a large subscribed capital, or such a number of proprietors as enables them to raise, without difficulty, whatever sums may at any time be required to make good losses. Societies of this sort do not limit their risks to small sums; that is, they do not often refuse to insure a large sum upon a ship, a house, a life, &c. The magnitude of their capitals affords them the means of easily defraying a heavy loss; and their premiums being proportioned to their risks, their profit is, at an average, independent of such contingencies.

Individuals, it is plain, could not act in this way, unless they were possessed of very large capitals; and besides, the taking of large risks would render the business so hazardous, that few would be disposed to engage in it. Instead, therefore, of insuring a large sum, as 20,000*l.*, upon a single ship, a private underwriter or insurer may not, probably, in ordinary cases, take a greater risk than 200*l.* or 500*l.*; so that, though his engagements may, when added together, amount to 20,000*l.*, they will be diffused over from 40 to 100 ships; and supposing 1 or 2 ships to be lost, the loss would not impair his capital, and would only lessen his profits. Hence it is, that while one transaction only may be required in getting a ship insured by a company, 10 or 20 separate transactions may be required in getting the same thing done at Lloyd's, or by private individuals. When conducted in this cautious manner, the business of insurance is as safe a line of speculation as any in which individuals can engage.

To establish a policy of insurance on a fair foundation, or in such a way that the premiums paid by the insured shall exactly balance the risks incurred by the insurers, and the various necessary expenses to which they are put, including, of course, their profit, it is necessary, as previously remarked, that the experience of the risks should be pretty extensive. It is not, however, at all necessary, that either party should inquire into the circumstances that lead to those events that are most commonly made the subject of insurance. Such a research would, indeed, be entirely fruitless: we are, and must necessarily continue to be, wholly ignorant of the causes of their occurrence.

It appears, from the accounts given by Mr. Scoresby, in his valuable work on the Arctic Regions, that of 586 ships which sailed from the various ports of Great Britain for the northern whale fishery, during the 4 years ending with 1817, 8 were lost—(vol. ii. p. 131),—being at the rate of about 1 ship out of every 73 of those employed. Now, supposing this to be about the average loss, it follows that the premium required to insure against it should be 1*l.* 7*s.* 4*d.* per cent., exclusive, as already observed, of the expenses and profits of the insurer. Both the insurer and the insured would gain by entering into a transaction founded on this fair principle. When the operations of the insurer are extensive, and his risks spread over a considerable number of ships, his profit does not depend upon chance, but is as steady, and may be as fairly calculated upon, as that of a manufacturer or a merchant; while, on the other hand, the individuals who have insured their property have exempted it from any chance of loss, and placed it, as it were, in a state of absolute security.

It is easy, from the brief statement now made, to perceive the immense advantage resulting to navigation and commerce from the practice of marine insurance. Without the aid that it affords, comparatively few individuals would be found disposed to expose their property to the risk of long and hazardous voyages; but by its means insecurity is changed for security, and the capital of the merchant whose ships are dispersed over every sea, and exposed to all the perils of the ocean, is as secure as that of the agriculturist. He can combine his measures and arrange his plans as if they could no longer be affected by accident. The chances of shipwreck, or of loss by unforseen occurrences, enter not into his calculations. He has purchased an exemption from the effects of such casualties; and applies himself to the prosecution of his business with that confidence and energy which nothing but a feeling of security can inspire. "Les chances de la navigation entravaient le commerce. Le système des assurances a paru; il a consulté les saisons; il a porté ses regards sur la mer; il a interrogé ce terrible élément; il en a jugé l'inconstance; il en a pressenti les orages: il a épié la politique: il a reconnu les ports et les côtes des deux mondes; il a tout soumis à des

calculs savans, à des théories approximatives; et il a dit au commerçant habile, au navigateur intrépide: certes, il y a des désastres sur lesquels l'humanité ne peut que gémir; mais quant à votre fortune, allez, franchissez les mers, déployez votre activité et votre industrie; je me charge de vos risques. Alors, Messieurs, s'il est primis de le dire, les quatre parties du monde se sont rapprochées."—(*Code de Commerce, Exposé des Motifs*, liv. ii.)

Besides insuring against the perils of the sea, and losses arising from accidents caused by the operation of natural causes, it is common to insure against enemies, pirates, thieves, and even the fraud, or, as it is technically termed, *barratry*, of the master. The risk arising from the sources of casualty being extremely fluctuating and various, it is not easy to estimate it with any considerable degree of accuracy; and nothing more than a rough average can, in most cases, be looked for. In time of war, the fluctuation in the rates of insurance are particularly great: and the intelligence that an enemy's squadron, or even a single privateer, is cruising in the course which the ships bound to or returning from any given port usually follow, causes an instantaneous rise in the premium. The appointment of convoys for the protection of trade during war, necessarily tends, by lessening the chances of capture, to lessen the premium on insurance. Still, however, the risk in such periods is, in most cases, very considerable; and as it is liable to change very suddenly, great caution is required on the part of the underwriters.

Provision may also be made, by means of insurance, against loss by fire, and almost all the casualties to which property on land is subject.

But, notwithstanding what has now been stated, it must be admitted, that the advantages derived from the practice of insuring against losses by sea and land are not altogether unmixed with evil. The security which it affords tends to relax that vigilant attention to the protection of property which the fear of its loss is sure otherwise to excite. This, however, is not its worst effect. The records of our courts, and the experience of all who are largely engaged in the business of insurance, too clearly prove that ships have been repeatedly sunk, and houses burned, in order to defraud the insurers. In despite, however, of the temptation to inattention and fraud which is thus afforded, there can be no doubt that, on the whole, the practice is, in a public as well as private point of view, decidedly beneficial. The frauds that are occasionally committed raise, in some degree, the rate of insurance. Still it is exceedingly moderate; and it is most probable, that the precautions adopted by the insurance offices for the prevention of fire, especially in great towns, where it is most destructive, outweigh the chances of increased conflagration arising from the greater tendency to carelessness and crime.

The business of life insurance has been carried to a far greater extent in Great Britain than in any other country, and has been productive of the most beneficial effects. Life insurances are of various kinds. Individuals without any very near connections, and possessing only a limited fortune, are sometimes desirous, or are sometimes, from the necessity of their situation, obliged, annually to encroach on their capitals. But should the life of such persons be extended beyond the ordinary term of existence, they might be totally unprovided for in old age; and to secure themselves against this contingency, they pay to an insurance company the whole or a part of their capital, on condition of its guaranteeing them, as long as they live, a certain annuity, proportioned partly, of course, to the amount of the sum paid, and partly to their age when they buy the annuity.

But though sometimes serviceable to individuals, it may be questioned whether insurances of this sort are, in a public point of view, really advantageous. So far as their influence extends, its obvious tendency is to weaken the principle of accumulation; to stimulate individuals to consume their capitals during their own life, without thinking or caring about the interest of their successors. Were such a practice to become general, it would be productive of the most extensively ruinous consequences. The interest which most men take in the welfare of their families and friends affords, indeed, a pretty strong security against its becoming injuriously prevalent. There can, however, be little doubt that this selfish practice may be strengthened by adventitious means; such, for example, as the opening of government loans in the shape of life annuities, or in the still more objectionable form of tontines. But when no extrinsic stimulus of this sort is given to it, there do not seem to be any very good grounds for thinking that the sale of annuities by private individuals or associations can materially weaken the principle of accumulation.

Luckily, however, the species of insurance now referred to is but inconsiderable compared with that which has accumulation for its object. All professional persons, or those living on salaries or wages, such as lawyers, physicians, military and naval officers, clerks in public or private offices, &c., whose incomes must, of course, terminate with their lives, and a host of others, who are either not possessed of capital, or cannot dispose of their capital at pleasure, must naturally be desirous of providing, so far as they may be able, for the comfortable subsistence of their families in the event of their death. Take, for example, a physician or lawyer, without fortune, but making, perhaps, 1,000*l.* or 2,000*l.* a year by his business; and suppose that he marries and has a family: if this individual attain to the average duration of human life, he may accumulate such a fortune as will provide for the adequate support of his family at his death. But who can presume to say that such

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will be the case?—that he will not be one of the many exceptions to the general rule?—And suppose that he were hurried into an untimely grave, his family would necessarily be destitute. Now, it is against such calamitous contingencies that life insurance is intended chiefly to provide. An individual possessed of an income terminating at his death, agrees to pay a certain sum annually to an insurance office; and this office binds itself to pay to his family, at his death, a sum equivalent, under deduction of the expenses of management and the profits of the insurers, to what these annual contributions, accumulated at compound interest would amount to, supposing the insured to reach the common and average term of human life. Though he were to die the day after the insurance has been effected, his family would be as amply provided for as it is likely they would be by his accumulations were his life of the ordinary duration. In all cases, indeed, in which those insured die before attaining to an average age, their gain is obvious. But even in those cases in which their lives are prolonged beyond the ordinary term, they are not losers—they then merely pay for a security which they must otherwise have been without. During the whole period, from the time when they effect their insurances, down to the time when they arrive at the mean duration of human life, they are protected against the risk of dying without leaving their families sufficiently provided for; and the sum which they pay after having passed this mean term is nothing more than a fair compensation for the security they previously enjoyed. Of those who insure houses against fire, a very small proportion only have occasion to claim an indemnity for losses actually sustained; but the possession of a security against loss in the event of accident, is a sufficient motive to induce every prudent individual to insure his property. The case of life insurance is in no respect different. When established on a proper footing, the extra sums which those pay whose lives exceed the estimated duration is but the value of the previous security.

In order so to adjust the terms of an insurance, that the party insuring may neither pay too much nor too little, it is necessary that the probability of his life failing in each subsequent year should be determined with as much accuracy as possible.

To ascertain this probability, various observations have been made in different countries and periods, showing, out of a given number of persons born in a particular country or place, how many complete each subsequent year, and how many die in it, till the whole be extinct. The results of such observations, when collected and arranged in a tabular form, are called Tables of Mortality; being entitled, of course, to more or less confidence, according to the number and species of lives observed; the period when, and the care with which, the observations were made, &c. But, supposing these Tables to be formed with sufficient accuracy, the expectation of life at any age, or its mean duration after such age, may readily be learned from them; and hence, also, the value of an annuity, or an assurance on a life of any age. Thus, in the Table of Mortality for Carlisle, framed by Mr. Milne, of the Sun Life Office, and which is believed to represent the average law of mortality in England with very considerable accuracy, out of 10,000 persons born together, 4,000 complete their 56th year; and it further appears, that the number of such persons who die in their 66th year is 124; so that the probability that a life now 56 years of age will terminate in the 10th year hence is $\frac{124}{4,000}$. But, reckoning interest at 4 per cent., it appears (Table II. INTEREST AND ANNUITIES), that the present value of 100*l.* to be received 10 years hence is 67·556*l.*; consequently, if its receipt be made to depend upon the probability that a life now 56 years of age will fail in the 66th year, its present value will be reduced by that contingency to $\frac{124 \times 67{\cdot}556l.}{4,000} = 2{\cdot}094l.$, or 2*l.* 1*s.* 10½*d.* The present value of 100*l.* receivable upon the life of a party now 56 years of age terminating in the 57th or any subsequent year of his life, up to its extreme limit (which, according to the Carlisle Table, is the 105th year), being calculated in this way, the sum of the whole will be the present value of 100*l.* receivable whenever the life may fail, that is, of 100*l.* insured upon it, supposing no additions were made to it for the profits and expenses of the insurers.

More compendious processes are resorted to for calculating Tables of insurances at all ages; but the above statement sufficiently illustrates the principle on which they all depend. In practice, a life insurance is seldom made by the payment of a single sum when it is effected, but almost always by the payment of an *annual premium* during its continuance, the first being paid down at the commencement of the insurance.* If the Table of Mortality adopted by the insurers fairly represent the law of mortality prevailing among the insured, it follows that when a party insured does not attain to the average age according to the Table, the insurers will either lose by him, or realise less than their ordinary profit; and when, on the other hand, the life of an insured party is prolonged beyond the tabular average, the profits of the insurers are proportionally increased. But if their business be so extensive as to enable the law of average fully to apply, what they lose by premature death will be balanced by the payments received from those whose lives are prolonged beyond the mean duration of life for the ages at which they were respectively insured, so that the profits of the society will be wholly independent of chance.

* For the method of calculating these annual premiums, see *post*, INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

The relief from anxiety afforded by life insurance very frequently contributes to prolong the life of the insured, at the same time that it materially augments the comfort and well-being of those dependent on him. It has, also, an obvious tendency to strengthen habits of accumulation. An individual who has insured a sum on his life, would forfeit all the advantages of the insurance, were he not to continue regularly to make his annual payments. It is not, therefore, optional with him to save a sum from his ordinary expenditure adequate for this purpose. He is compelled, under a heavy penalty, to do so; and having thus been led to contract a habit of saving to a certain extent, it is most probable that the habit will acquire additional strength, and that he will either insure an additional sum, or privately accumulate.

The practice of marine insurance, no doubt from the extraordinary hazard to which property at sea is exposed, seems to have long preceded insurances against fire and upon lives. We are ignorant of the precise period when it began to be introduced; but it appears most probable that it dates from the end of the fourteenth or the beginning of the fifteenth century. It has, however, been contended by Loccenius (*De Jure Maritimo*, lib. ii. c. 1.), Puffendorff (*Droit de la Nature et des Gens*, lib. v. c. 9.), and others, that the practice of marine insurances is of much higher antiquity, and that traces of it may be found in the history of the Punic wars. Livy mentions, that during the second of these contests, the contractors employed by the Romans to transport ammunition and provisions to Spain, stipulated that government should indemnify them against such losses as might be occasioned by the enemy, or by tempests, in the course of the voyage. (*Impetratum fuit, ut quæ navibus imponerentur ad exercitum Hispaniensem deferenda, ab hostium tempestatisque vi, publico periculo essent.*—Hist. lib. xxiii. c. 49.) Malynes (*Lex Mercatoria*, 3d ed. p. 105.), founding on a passage in Suetonius, ascribes the first introduction of insurance to the emperor Claudius, who, in a period of scarcity at Rome, to encourage the importation of corn, took upon himself all the loss or damage it might sustain in the voyage thither by storms and tempests.)—(*Negotiatoribus certa lucra proposuit, suscepto in se damno, si cui quid per tempestates accidisset, et naves mercaturæ causâ, fabricantibus, magna commoda constituit.*—c. 18.) It is curious to observe that this stipulation gave occasion to the commission of acts of fraud, similar to those so frequent in modern times. Shipwrecks were pretended to have happened, that never took place; old shattered vessels, freighted with articles of little value were purposely sunk, and the crew saved in boats; large sums being then demanded as a recompense for the loss. Some years after, the fraud was discovered, and some of the contractors were prosecuted and punished. (Lib. xxv. c. 3.) But none of these passages, nor a similar one in Cicero's letters—(*Ad Fam.* lib. ii. c. 17.), warrant the inferences that Loccenius, Malynes, and others have attempted to draw from them. Insurance is a contract between two parties; one of whom, on receiving a certain premium (*pretium periculi*), agrees to take upon himself the risk of any loss that may happen to the property of the other. In ancient no less than in modern times, every one must have been desirous to be exonerated from the chance of loss arising from the exposure of property to the perils of the sea. But though, in the cases referred to, the carriers were exempted from this chance, they were not exempted by a contract *propter aversionem periculi*, or by an insurance; but by their employers taking the risk upon themselves. And it is abundantly obvious that the object of the latter in doing this was not to profit, like an insurer, by dealing in risks, but to induce individuals the more readily to undertake the performance of an urgent public duty.

But with the exception of the instances now mentioned, nothing bearing the remotest resemblance to an insurance is to be met with till a comparatively recent period. If we might rely on a passage in one of the Flemish chroniclers, quoted by the learned M. Pardessus,—(see his excellent work, *Collection des Loix Maritimes*, tome i. p. 356.), we should be warranted in concluding that insurances had been effected at Bruges so early as the end of the thirteenth century: for the chronicler states that, in 1311, the Earl of Flanders consented, on a requisition from the inhabitants, to establish a chamber of insurance at Bruges. M. Pardessus is not, however, inclined to think that this statement should be regarded as decisive. It is evident, from the manner in which the subject is mentioned, that the chronicler was not a contemporary; and no trace can be found, either in the archives of Bruges, or in any authentic publication, of any thing like the circumstance alluded to. The earliest extant Flemish law as to insurance is dated in 1537; and none of the early maritime codes of the North so much as alludes to this interesting subject.

Beckmann seems to have thought that the practice of insurance originated in Italy, in the latter part of the fifteenth or the early part of the sixteenth century.—(*Hist. of Invent.* vol. i. art. *Insurance.*) But the learned Spanish antiquary, Don Antonio de Capmany, has given, in his very valuable publication on the History and Commerce of Barcelona (*Memorias Historicas sobre la Marina, &c. de Barcelona*, tomo ii. p. 383.), an ordinance relative to insurance, issued by the magistrates of that city in 1435; whereas the earliest Italian law on the subject is nearly a century later, being dated in 1523. It is, however, exceedingly unlikely, had insurance been as early practised in Italy as in Catalonia, that the

former should have been so much behind the latter in subjecting it to any fixed rules; and it is still more unlikely that the practice should have escaped, as is the case, all mention by any previous Italian writer. We, therefore, agree entirely in Capmany's opinion, that, until some authentic evidence to the contrary be produced, Barcelona should be regarded as the birthplace of this most useful and beautiful application of the doctrine of chances.—(Tomo i. p. 237.)

A knowledge of the principles and practice of insurance was early brought into England. According to Malynes—(*Lex Mercat.* p. 105.), it was first practised amongst us by the Lombards, who were established in London from a very remote epoch. It is probable it was introduced some time about the beginning of the sixteenth century; for it is mentioned in the statute 43 Eliz. c. 12.—a statute in which its utility is very clearly set forth—that it had been an *immemorial usage* among merchants, both English and foreign, when they made any great adventure, to procure insurance to be made on the ships or goods adventured. From this it may reasonably be supposed that insurance had been in use in England for at least a century previous. It appears from the same statute, that it had originally been usual to refer all disputes that arose with respect to insurance to the decision of "grave and discreet" merchants appointed by the Lord Mayor. But abuses having grown out of this practice, the statute authorised the Lord Chancellor to appoint a commission for the trial of insurance cases; and in the reign of Charles II. the powers of the commissioners were enlarged. But this court soon after fell into disuse; and, what is singular, no trace can now be discovered of any of its proceedings.—(*Marshall on Insurance*, Prelim. Disc. p. 26.)

Few questions as to insurance seem to have come before the courts of Westminster till after the middle of last century. The decisions of Lord Mansfield may, indeed, be said to have fixed, and in a considerable degree formed, the law upon this subject. His judgments were not bottomed on narrow views, or on the municipal regulations of England; but on those great principles of public justice and convenience which had been sanctioned and approved by universal experience. His deep and extensive information was acquired by consulting the most intelligent merchants, and the works of distinguished foreign jurists; and by carefully studying the famous French ordinance of 1681, the most admirably digested body of maritime law of which any country has ever had to boast. Hence the comprehensiveness and excellence of his Lordship's decisions, and the respect they have justly commanded in all countries.* In his hands the law of insurance became, in a far greater degree than any other department of English law, a branch of that national or public law of which Cicero has beautifully said, "*Non erit alia lex Romæ, alia Athenis, alia nunc, alia posthac, sed et omnes gentes et omni tempore una lex et sempiterna, et immortalis continebit, unusque erit communis quasi magister et imperator omnium Deus.*"—(*Fragm.* lib. iii. *de Republicâ.*)

Insurance against fire and upon lives is of much later origin than insurance against the perils of the sea. The former, however, has been known and carried on amongst us, to some extent at least, for nearly a century and a half. The Amicable Society, for insurance upon lives, was established by charter of Queen Anne, in 1706; the Royal Exchange and London Assurance Companies began to make insurances upon lives in the reign of George I.; and the Equitable Society was established in 1762. But the advantages of life insurance, and the principles on which the business should be conducted, were then very ill understood; and the practice can hardly be said to have obtained any firm footing amongst us, till the Equitable Society, by adopting the judicious suggestions of Dr. Price, began its career of prosperity about 1775. Notwithstanding the example of England, life insurance has made very little progress on the Continent. It was, indeed, expressly forbidden by the French ordinance of 1681 (liv. iii. tit. 6. art. 10.); by the regulations as to insurance issued at Amsterdam in 1612 (art. 24.); and it is doubtful whether the practice be not inconsistent with the 334th art. of the *Code de Commerce*. But we are inclined to think that the want of security, more than any positive regulations, has been the principal cause of the little progress of life insurance on the Continent. Of whatever disadvantages our large public debt may be productive, it is not to be doubted that the facilities it has afforded for making investments, and the punctuality with which the national engagements have been fulfilled, have been the principal causes of the extraordinary extent to which the business of life and even fire insurance has been carried in this country.

II. Insurance (Marine).

There are few persons who are not acquainted, in some degree, with fire and life insurances. The security which they afford to individuals and families is a luxury which nobody, in tolerably comfortable circumstances, is willing to be without. Hence the great increase, in our days, of companies professing to afford this security; and hence the knowledge, on the part of the public generally, of the nature and principles of the engagements into which these companies enter. But marine insurance is a subject which is of immediate interest only to merchants and ship owners; unless, indeed, we should refer to that small portion of the community, who have occasion to transport themselves beyond seas with capital and effects for purposes of colonization, or to fill some official situation

* See Emerigon's famous *Traité des Assurances*, tome ii. p. 67.

Hence the comparative indifference, on the part of the public, as to this subject. The general principles, however, of all insurance are the same; and in treating of marine insurance, it will be necessary to notice little beyond such topics as are peculiar to that branch of the business.

Individual Insurers or Underwriters.—The first circumstance that cannot fail to strike the general inquirer into the practice of marine insurance in this country, is that, while all fire and life insurances are made at the risk of companies, which include within themselves the desirable requisites of security, wealth, and numbers, the great bulk of marine insurances are made at the risk of individuals. London and Liverpool are the only towns in England in which there are any public companies for this purpose.* In London there are only 4; the 2 old companies, the *London* and the *Royal Exchange*; and the two established in 1824, the *Alliance Marine* and the *Indemnity Mutual Marine*. In Liverpool there is only 1 company. The individuals engaged in this branch of the insurance business in London, about whom we shall say more presently, assemble in Lloyd's Coffee-house, over the Royal Exchange.

Prohibition of Companies.—Till 1824, all firms and companies, with the exception of the 2 chartered companies, the Royal Exchange and London, were prohibited by law from taking marine insurances. Towards the latter end of that year, the prohibition was removed, and the business of marine insurance was placed on the same footing as other descriptions of business. While the restriction lasted, the 2 chartered companies did so little business, that marine insurance might, in fact, be said to be wholly in the hands of individuals. These companies were so much higher in their premiums, and so much more exclusive in the risks they were willing to undertake, than their individual competitors, that even those merchants and ship owners, who would cheerfully have paid some trifling consideration to obtain the greater security of a company, were obliged to resort to individuals. And it was only when the repeal of this absurd restriction was proposed, that the companies showed, by defending it, that they set any value upon their privilege. The underwriters at Lloyd's joined them in this opposition; and pamphlets were written, and speeches made, to demonstrate how much merchants and ship owners would suffer, were the law to allow them the free use of their discretion in insuring their property; and how much more conducive to their interests it was, that they should be forced up to Lloyd's, to pay premiums to individuals rather than companies. But these pamphlets and speeches are forgotten; and we should be sorry to wound the feelings of their authors, or to trespass on the patience of our readers, by referring to them more particularly.

Formation of Companies.—During the autumn of 1824 and spring of 1825, 5 companies sprang into existence in London: the two already mentioned, and the *St. Patrick*, the *Patriotic*, and the *South Devon*. The last 3 have since been given up, having proved ruinous concerns to the proprietors. The 2 former are composed of some of the most eminent merchants and ship owners of the city of London, who united for the double purpose of providing a more perfect security for their property, and of ascertaining whether the insurance business might not be made to yield a fair return to the capital employed in it. The change thus introduced into the business has had the effect of rousing the 2 old companies into activity, and thus may be said to have afforded to the public the opportunity of transacting their business with 4 substantial companies, in addition to individual underwriters, whereas they could previously deal only with individuals.

It may be computed that these 4 companies draw to themselves 1-5th of the whole business of the country, leaving the other 4-5ths to individual underwriters, and the Liverpool, Scotch, and Irish companies. It has been inferred by some, that the comparatively limited business of the companies is a convincing proof that individuals are much better adapted to engage in this department than societies; while it is contended by others that the large share of business, thus speedily attracted to the companies, ought to satisfy every body, when due allowances are made for the difficulties to be combated in breaking through established modes and habits of doing business, that the tendency in the public is practically to confirm what antecedent investigation would suggest,—that companies, while they must necessarily hold out better security, and greater liberality and punctuality in the settlement of claims, are capable of transacting a given amount of business with a saving both of labour and expense.

Mode of conducting Business.—We shall now give an account of the existing arrangements for conducting the business of marine insurance, as well by individuals as the companies in London.

Lloyd's.—The individual underwriters meet in a subscription room at Lloyd's. The joint affairs of the subscribers to these rooms are managed by a committee chosen by the subscribers. Agents (who are commonly styled Lloyd's agents) are appointed in all the principal ports of the world, who forward, regularly, to Lloyd's, accounts of the departures from and arrivals at their ports, as well as of losses and other casualties; and, in general, all such information as may be supposed of importance towards guiding the judgments of the underwriters. These accounts are regularly filed, and are accessible to all the subscribers. The principal arrivals and losses are, besides, posted in 2 books, placed in 2 conspicuous parts of the room; and also in another book, which is placed in an adjoining room, for the use of the public at large. Many of the merchants of the city of London are subscribers to these rooms; and the 2 old companies contribute each 100*l.* per annum, in return for which they are furnished with copies of the daily intelligence. The 2 new companies made similar proposals, which were, and, we believe, continue to be, rejected; but this feeling of animosity is unworthy of the subscribers, and will, no doubt, speedily disappear.

The rooms are open from 10 o'clock in the morning till 5 o'clock in the afternoon, but the most considerable part of the business is transacted between 1 and 4. Those merchants and ship owners who manage their own insurance business, procure blank policies at the government office, or of their stationers, which they fill up so as to meet the particular object in view, and submit them to those underwriters with whom they are connected; by whom they are subscribed or rejected. Each policy is handed about in this way until the amount required is complete. The form of the policy and of a subscription is subjoined to this article.

The premium is not paid to the underwriter in ready money, but is passed to account. Nor does the underwriter debit the account of the person to whom he subscribes a policy, with the whole amount of the premium, but with the premium less 5 per cent. Whenever losses occur which more than absorb the premiums on any one account, the underwriter is called upon to pay the balance. But should the underwriter's account be what is called good, that is, should the premiums exceed the claims, he sends round, during the spring and summer, to collect from his various debtors either the balance of his last year's account, or money on account, according to his judgment; but, upon what he receives, he makes an allowance of 12 per cent. An underwriter, if prudent, therefore, before he consents to receive, will not only look to the goodness of his account, but to the probability of its continuing so.

Insurance Brokers.—Many merchants and ship owners do not transact their own insurance business. They give their orders for insurance to others, who undertake it for them, and are responsible for its proper management. These latter persons are called insurance brokers; and some of them manage the business of a number of principals. To them, likewise, are transmitted the orders for insurance

* Within these few months a company has been formed at Sunderland, and it is said that some are projected in other sea-ports.

from the outports and manufacturing towns. They charge the whole premium to their principals, and their profit consists in 5 per cent. upon the premium, 12 per cent. upon the money that they pay to the underwriters, and ½ per cent. that they deduct from all the claims which they recover from the underwriters. It is proper to remark, that this is the established or regular profit; but competition has occasioned numerous deviations from it by the brokers, many of whom consent to divide the profit with the principals who employ them. The insurance brokers are not unfrequently underwriters also; and as some insurances are considered far more lucrative than others to underwriters, and as the brokers have particular facilities, in some respects, of judging of the goodness of their own risks, so likewise have they an inducement to play into one another's hands, and they do so accordingly.—(See BROKERS.)

It will at once be seen, that the trouble of effecting insurances at Lloyd's is considerable; that a good deal of time must be consumed; and that merchants and ship owners, therefore, have great inducement to consign their insurance business to brokers. But where the business is transacted with a company, this inducement, if not destroyed altogether, is, at all events, very much diminished. Any party having property to insure, has merely to go to the manager of the company, and state the particulars of the risk to be insured; the premium being agreed upon, the manager writes out a memorandum for the policy, which the party signs, and he is thus effectually insured. The companies procure the stamp and write out the policy, which is ready for delivery in 4 or 5 days. The companies, like the underwriters, charge the premium less 5 per cent. In other respects they vary.

The Royal Exchange Assurance Company allow 12 per cent. upon the profitable balance of each year's premium, with credit till March for the premiums of the preceding year, and 5 per cent. for prompt payment.

The Alliance Marine Assurance Company allow 12 per cent. upon the profitable balance of each year's premiums, with credit till March; or 10 per cent. for prompt payment.

The Indemnity Mutual Marine Assurance Company allow 12 per cent. upon the profitable balance of each year's premiums, with credit till June; or 10 per cent. for prompt payment.

The allowances of the London Assurance Company are the same as those of the Indemnity.

Payment of Losses.—Losses are paid at all the offices promptly, and without deduction. A month's credit is allowed to the underwriters; and another month, and sometimes 2 months, are given to the broker, to collect from the underwriters, and pay over to his principals.

Clubs.—Besides the individual underwriters and companies above noticed, there are clubs or associations formed by ship owners, who agree, each entering his ships for a certain amount, to divide among themselves one another's losses. These clubs are institutions of long standing; but, since the alteration of the law in 1824, appear to be on the decline. Their formation originated in a twofold reason: 1st, that the underwriters charged premiums more than commensurate with the risk; 2dly, that they did not afford adequate protection. To avoid the first of these two evils, instead of paying a fixed premium, they pay among themselves the actual losses of their several members as they occur; and to avoid the second, they lay down certain principles of settlement in accordance with their views of indemnity. Each member of one of these clubs gives his power of attorney to the selected manager; and this manager issues a policy for each ship, which policy is subscribed by him as attorney for all the members, the premium inserted in the policy being understood to be nominal. These clubs are open to the leading objections that apply to individual underwriters; for the members are not collectively, but only individually, liable to those of their number who happen to sustain a loss; and the delay of settlement is such, that more than 12 months have been known to elapse before the payment of a loss has been obtained from all the members.

Rate of Premium.—But little need be said upon the circumstances that influence the rate of premium demanded by the insurers. It must be self-evident that premiums will vary according to the seasons, the quality of the vessel, the known character of the captain, the nature of the commodity, and the state of our political relations. All these, of course, are matters upon which each individual must exercise his own discretion, partly from general experience, and partly from particular information; exaggeration of risk, and consequent exorbitancy of premium for any length of time, being out of the question, where so many individual underwriters, in addition to the companies, are in competition with one another, and where the merchants have the means at hand of effecting their insurances abroad. We have already taken notice of the intelligence of which Lloyd's is the focus. In addition to this, there are 2 subscription register books for shipping maintained by the principal merchants, ship owners, and underwriters. These books profess to give an account of the tonnage, build, age, repairs, and quality of almost all the vessels that frequent our ports; and, although exceedingly defective in many respects, are material assistants to the insurers, who have no means of ascertaining by their own observation the particulars of 1 in 100 of the ships they are called upon to insure. But active measures are now in progress for superseding these *two* register books by *one*, giving a much more accurate and faithful account of the state of the mercantile shipping. We doubt, however, whether its real state will ever be revealed, as it ought to be, for the general benefit, until public officers are appointed to perform this duty. This might be done at a trifling expense; and the advantage to the owners of good ships, to merchants, and to passengers, would be immense.

CONTRACT OF INSURANCE.

Having thus given a general outline of the mode of transacting business between the insurers and insured, and the means used to enable both parties to come, as near as possible, to a due estimate of the risk to be insured against, our next step will be to explain the nature of the contract, and the bearing of its more important clauses.

It is unnecessary to state that the object of those who are engaged in commerce, or in moving articles of merchandise from one part of the world to another, is to *buy* at such a price that, after paying all the expenses of transport, the *sale* price may leave them a surplus in the shape of profit. If there were no such contrivance as insurance, merchants would be obliged to calculate upon the probability of the occasional loss of their property, and to regulate their transactions accordingly; but it must be obvious that enterprise, under such circumstances, would be very much crippled. Now, insurance, in as far as it approaches perfection in guaranteeing the merchant against all loss, except that of the market, substitutes a fixed charge for uncertain and contingent loss, and enables him to confine his attention exclusively to price and quality, and to charges of transport; in which latter, of course, the premium of insurance is included, as, however, in practice, insurance is by no means a perfect protection, either to the merchant or ship owner, against all loss that may occur *in transitu*, there is, even after insurance, some contingencies remaining to be taken into consideration; and we do not know that we can do better, by way of explaining the contract of insurance, than state, as briefly and succinctly as possible, what are the losses against which the merchant and ship owner are not protected by an insurance effected in this country.

1. *Acts of our own Government.*—All losses arising from the acts of our own government. Thus, if an embargo were laid on vessels about to sail for a particular quarter, and the merchant obliged to unload his goods; or if his goods were condemned to be destroyed in quarantine; or purposely destroyed at sea by some of our cruisers; no part of his loss would be made good by the insurer. The insurer in this country, although liable for the acts of foreign powers, is not liable for such acts di-

rected against the property of their own subjects. Thus, if French property, insured in this country, were confiscated by the French government, the owner would have no remedy against his insurer.

2. *Breaches of the Revenue Laws.*—All losses arising from a breach of the revenue laws. It may be observed, that if the owner of the ship, by his act, expose the goods of the merchant to loss, the merchant so injured, although he cannot recover from his insurers, may claim from him. It may also be observed, that if the captain of the vessel, by his act, to which neither the owner of the ship, or the merchant is a party, expose the ship and cargo to loss, the insurers, in such case, are bound to make good the loss; the insurers being liable for all damage arising from illegal acts of the captain and crew, supposing the owner of the ship not to be accessary. The illegal acts of the captain and crew, contrary to the instructions and without the consent of the owners, are termed "barratry" in the policy.—(See BARRATRY.)

3. *Breaches of the Law of Nations.*—All losses arising from a breach of the law of nations. Thus, if any port is declared by a foreign power to be in a state of blockade, and such blockade is acknowledged by our government; and if a ship, in defiance of that notification, attempt to break the blockade, and is taken in the attempt; the insurer is not liable to the loss. It will often happen, when a port is under blockade, that the profit is so great upon goods introduced in defiance of the blockade, as to tempt adventurers to break it, and to enable them to afford a very high premium to insure against the risk. But as policies for such an object are not acknowledged in our courts of law, when effected, they are understood to be *policies of honour*. The same kind of policy is adopted by the underwriters, to protect foreign merchants who prefer insuring in this country against British capture.

1. *Consequences of Deviation.*—All losses subsequent to any deviation from the terms of the policy. Thus, if a merchant, in a policy on produce from the West Indies to London, warrant a ship to sail on or before the 1st of August, and the ship sail after that day and be lost, the insurer is exonerated. Or, if a merchant insure from London to Lisbon, and the ship call at Havre and is afterwards lost, the insurer is not liable. It will be understood, of course, that the owner of the ship is liable to the merchant for any breach of contract on his part, as well as that the insurer is liable for the barratry of the master; a deviation on the part of the master, not intended for the benefit of the owner, and contrary to his instructions, being considered barratry. Should the owner of the goods neglect to describe accurately the voyage for which he wishes to be insured, the loss would be a consequence of his own negligence.

There is a doctrine connected with barratry which it will here be proper to notice. A captain, owner or part owner of the ship in which he sails, cannot commit an act of barratry. In other words, the insurers are not, in such a case, liable for an act of his which would otherwise be barratrous. The equity of this doctrine, as far as regards the interests of the captain himself, cannot be called in question; but it is difficult to understand why the merchant who ships goods on board such a captain's vessel should not be permitted to insure, among other risks, against the captain's illegal acts. We have heard, that a clause has occasionally been introduced into policies to protect merchants against captain-owners, and we do not suppose that our courts of law would refuse to enforce such a clause. Indeed, we cannot discover any reason why every party, saving the captain, should not have the power of insuring against the consequences of illegal acts of the captain. We believe, that among the life offices, which protect themselves from loss by suicide and the hands of justice, there are some which make a distinction in favour of those who merely hold policies on the lives of others as a collateral security. The propriety of such a distinction must strike every body.

5. *Unseaworthiness.*—All losses arising from unseaworthiness. Unseaworthiness may be caused in various ways, such as want of repair, want of stores, want of provisions, want of nautical instruments, insufficiency of hands to navigate the vessel, or incompetency of the master. It might be supposed, at first sight, that insurance affords a much less perfect security than it really does, seeing on how many pleas it is possible for the insurer to dispute his liability; but when it is considered that the proof of unseaworthiness is thrown upon the defendant, and that the leaning of the courts is always in favour of the insured, it will be easy to suppose that no respectable insurers would ever plead unseaworthiness, unless they could make out a case of more than ordinary strength and clearness. The degree of uneasiness felt by merchants and ship owners at their liability to be involved in loss by cases of unseaworthiness, may be guessed from the fact, that although the Indemnity Assurance Company at one time precluded themselves from pleading unseaworthiness by a special clause in their policy, not only did they obtain no additional premium in consequence thereof, but they did not even obtain a preference over other companies and individuals at the same premium. At least, this fact must either be admitted as a proof of the absence of uneasiness on this head, or of that inveteracy of habit which seems to lead the great bulk of mankind always, if possible, to continue undeviatingly in those courses to which they are accustomed, even where the benefits to be derived from a deviation are undeniable.

6. *Protraction of the Voyage.*—All loss arising from unusual protraction of the voyage. Thus, if a ship meet with an accident in the Baltic, and the repairs detain the vessel till the close of the season, when the passage home is rendered impracticable by the ice till the opening of the ensuing season, no payment is made to the merchant, in mitigation of his loss from interest of money, loss of market (if the market fall), or deterioration in the quality of his goods (unless arising from actual sea damage); nor to the ship owner, in mitigation of his loss from the extra wages and maintenance of his crew. In most foreign countries the ship owner is remunerated by the insurers for the wages and maintenance of his crew while his ship is detained in consequence of any loss for the making good of which they are liable.

7. *Liability for doing Damage to other Vessels.*—All loss to which the ship owner is liable when his vessel does damage to others. According to our laws, the owner of every ship not in charge of a pilot, that does damage, by negligence of the master and crew, to any description of craft or vessel, is liable to make good the same to the extent of value of his own ship and freight: for beyond this he is not liable. The common policy in use among the underwriters at Lloyd's and the companies does not protect the ship owner from this loss. But the clubs or associations before mentioned almost universally take this risk. Indeed, this is one of the purposes which gave rise to their formation. But even they limit their liability to the amount of the policy; so that if a ship insured with them were to run down another, and to sink herself in the concussion, the owner would only receive the value of his own vessel from the club, and still be liable to the owner of the other vessel. The Indemnity Company, by a clause in their policy, make themselves liable for 3-4ths of the loss which the owner of the vessel insured with them may sustain from damage done by his vessel to those of others. If such a case as the one just supposed should occur under their policy, the insured would receive the value of his own vessel and 3-4ths of the loss to be made good by him to the owner of the other vessel. The policies of this Company approach in this respect the nearest of any to perfect protection to the ship owner. But the loss from running down other vessels, although serious, nay, sometimes ruinous, seldom occurs; and many ship owners trust so confidently that it will never fall upon them, that they are as well satisfied to be without as with this protection.

8. *Average Clause.*—The next description of loss of which we shall treat, against which the insured are not protected, is described in the following clause of the policy:—"Corn, fish, salt, seed, flour, and fruit, are warranted free from average, unless general, or the ship be stranded; sugar, tobacco, hemp, flax, hides, and skins, are warranted free from average under 5 per cent., unless general, or the

ship be stranded; and all other goods, also the ship and freight, are warranted free from average under 3 per cent., unless general, or the ship be stranded."

The language employed in this clause, being technical, requires explanation, to render it intelligible to the general reader. Average is a name applied to certain descriptions of loss, to which the merchant and ship owner are liable. There are two kinds of average, general and particular.

General Average comprehends all loss arising out of a voluntary sacrifice of a part of either vessel or cargo, made by the captain for the benefit of the whole. Thus, if a captain throw part of his cargo overboard, cut from an anchor and cable, or cut away his masts, the loss so sustained, being voluntarily submitted to for the benefit of the whole, is distributed over the value of the whole ship and cargo, and is called "general average."

Particular Average comprehends all loss occasioned to ship, freight, and cargo, which is not of so serious a nature as to debar them from reaching their port of destination, and when the damage to the ship is not so extensive as to render her unworthy of repair. Losses where the goods are saved, but in such a state as to be unfit to forward to their port of destination, and where the ship is rendered unfit to repair, are called "partial or salvage loss." The leading distinction between particular average and salvage loss is, that, in the first, the property insured remains the property of the assured —the damage sustained, or part thereof, as the case may be, and as will be hereafter explained, being made good by the insurer; and in the second, the property insured is abandoned to the insurer, and the value insured claimed from him, he retaining the property so abandoned, or its value.

Particular Average on Goods.—A few cases illustrative of the method of stating a claim for particular average will best explain the nature of this description of loss, and will at the same time show the reader what the practical distinction is between particular average and salvage loss.

The property insured we shall suppose to be *a ton of hemp*, the cost of which at Petersburgh is 30*l.*, for which sum it is insured from Petersburgh to London, and that the duty, freight, and charges to which the merchant is subject on landing at London are 10*l.* We shall likewise suppose that the hemp, on its arrival, is so damaged as not to be worth more than half what it would have fetched had it been sound. The insurer would then be called upon to make good to the insured 15*l.*, or 50 per cent. upon the sum insured. But it does not follow that this payment of 15*l.* would indemnify the merchant, or that it would not more than indemnify him, for the loss sustained.

	L.	*s.*	*L.*	*s.*
If the hemp upon arrival in this country would have fetched in a sound state	50	0		
Less duty, freight, and charges	10	0		
			40	0
But in its damaged state is only worth	25	0		
Less duty, freight, and charges	10	0		
			15	0
The merchant's loss by the damage is			*L.*25	0

Whereas he only receives from the insurer 15*l.* Upon the principle of a salvage loss he would also receive 15*l.*

	L.	*s.*	*L.*	*s.*
If the hemp would have fetched in a sound state	20	0		
Less duty, freight, and charges	10	0		
			10	0
But in its damaged state is only worth	10	0		
Less duty, freight, and charges	10	0		
The merchant's loss by the damage is			*L.*10	0

Whereas he receives from the insurer 15*l.* Upon the principle of a salvage loss he would receive 30*l.*

	L.	*s.*	*L.*	*s.*
If the hemp would have fetched in a sound state	30	0		
Less duty, freight, and charges	10	0		
			20	0
But in its damaged state is only worth	15	0		
Less duty, freight, and charges	10	0		
			5	0
The merchant's loss by the damage is			*L.*15	0

And he receives from the insurer 15*l.* Upon the principle of a salvage loss he would receive 25*l.*

It will be observed that the merchant's loss by the damage of his goods varies with the state of the market. It may also be observed, that in general the merchant will not receive from the insurer the whole amount of the loss that he sustains. Whenever his market is a profitable one (and that it must usually be so will be obvious to every body), whenever, indeed, his market is not a decidedly losing one, his policy does not afford him a complete protection.

The argument in favour of this mode of settling claims for particular average—and it should be observed that the subject has been discussed, and the principle acknowledged in the courts of law—is, that the insurer's liability is to be guided by the amount upon which he has received a premium or consideration; that he is not to be affected by the rise or fall of markets; but that the *gross* market price of the *sound*, and the *gross* market price of the *damaged* goods, are to be the test by which the rate of damage upon the amount insured is to be adjusted; the insurer being liable, besides, for all the extra charges arising out of the damage.

In the first case stated, the merchant's loss by damage is 25*l.* upon 40*l.*, or 62½ per cent.; in the second, 10*l.* upon 10*l.*, or 100 per cent.; in the third, 15*l.* upon 20*l.*, or 75 per cent. If the duty, freight, and charges were diminished in proportion to the diminished value of the goods, the loss in each case would be fifty per cent. upon the nett price, as it is 50 per cent. upon the gross price. As far as the duty is concerned, government, upon many articles, reduces it in proportion to the diminution in the value of the goods; and if the freight were reduced in a similar manner, the merchant would always be indemnified for his loss by the insurer. But the practice with regard to freight in this country admits of no such arrangement; freight being paid according to the quantity delivered.

To make the principle upon which claims for particular average are adjusted, and its bearing, still clearer, we shall illustrate it by a few more cases. Suppose two packages to be insured at cost price —a cask of rice and a cask of sugar—each weighing 10 cwt.; the cost of each at the port of shipment 10*l.*, the freight of each 10*s.* per cwt. at the port of delivery, both articles free from duty, and to arrive at a market where no more than the cost price is realised; assuming that both packages are damaged 50 per cent.—the rice by loss of quality, the sugar by loss of weight—the statement will be as follows:—

	L.	*s.*	*L.*	*s.*
10 cwt. of rice, had it arrived sound, would have produced	15	0		
Less freight on 10 cwt. at 10*s.* per cwt.	5	0		
			10	0
But being damaged, did only produce	7	10		
Less freight on 10 cwt. at 10*s.* per cwt.	5	0		
			2	10
Merchant's loss			*L.*7	10

	L.	*s.*	*L.*	*s.*
10 cwt. of sugar, if sound, would have produced	15	0		
Less freight on 10 cwt. at 10*s.* per cwt.	5	0		
			10	0
The barrel being damaged, did only weigh 5 cwt., and produce	7	10		
Less freight on 5 cwt. at 10*s.* per cwt.	2	10		
			5	0
Merchant's loss			*L.*5	0

In each case the merchant is entitled to recover from his insurer 5*l.*, or 50 per cent., upon 10*l.*, the sum insured, which, although an indemnity to him for his loss on the sugar, is far from being so for his loss upon the rice. If the merchant would contrive so to shape his contract with the ship owner for freight, as to reduce the freight in proportion to the depreciation in the value of the damaged commodity, he would be completely protected. The ship owner might on his side protect himself by insurance from loss by reduction of quality, as he now does from loss by reduction of quantity. But

we have already more than once adverted to the difficulty of breaking in upon established practices. The merchants go on from year to year complaining of the losses to which they are subject from this awkward contrivance, while no steps are taken to improve it. To show that the principle is equitable as between the merchant and his insurer, we subjoin one more statement, where the damage is taken at 100 per cent :—

	£. s.	£. s.
10 cwt. of rice, if sound, would have produced	15 0	
Less freight on 10 cwt. at 10s. per cwt.	5 0	
		10 0
Being totally spoiled, did produce nothing		
The merchant being still liable for the freight		5 0
Making his loss		£.15 0

He receives 10*l.* only from the insurer.

	£. s.	£. s.
10 cwt. of sugar, if sound, would have produced	15 0	
Less freight on 10 cwt. at 10s. per cwt.	5 0	
		10 0
The barrel being washed out produces nothing		
The merchant, however, not being liable to pay freight		
His loss is only		£.10 0

which he recovers from the insurer.

It will be observed, that in each case the insurer pays 10*l.*, or the full sum upon which he receives the premium.

When whole cargoes, or parcels of goods of considerable value, are insured, the clause in the policy which protects the insurer from particular average under a certain percentage, is often partially set aside. Thus, if a cargo of 500 hogsheads of sugar, valued at 10,000*l.*, were damaged to the extent of 460*l.*, the merchant, supposing the protecting clause to remain in force, would recover nothing from the insurer, the loss not amounting to 5 per cent. The additional written clause, by which it is the practice to modify the printed clause, is as follows:—"Particular average, payable upon each 10 hhds. sugar, 10 casks and 50 bags coffee, and 10 bags cotton, following numbers, and upon each package of manufactured goods, chest of indigo, bag of wool or silk, the same as if separately insured." Such clauses may be, and are, introduced *ad libitum* by mutual consent of insurer and insured, the premium or consideration being arranged accordingly.

The protecting clause is considered, on the other hand, by the insurers, exceedingly unsatisfactory in some respects: and they, as occasion requires, insist upon additional protection. Thus, saltpetre, hides, cocoa, and tin plates, are generally warranted free from particular average, unless the ship be stranded; and upon tobacco, it is customary for the insurers to make themselves liable only to such part of the particular average as exceeds 5 per cent., throwing 5 per cent. upon the merchant.

Particular Average on Freight.—The clause, as far as it affects "freight," calls for no particular comment. Particular average upon freight can only arise, according to prevailing practice, from loss of weight; and whenever the loss of weight amounts to 3 per cent. or upwards, the ship owner is entitled to recover from his insurer. The ship owner, upon the arrival of the ship at its port of destination, is entitled to hold the goods as security until the freight is paid. If the owner of the goods should prove insolvent, and the goods should be entirely spoiled by sea damage during the voyage, and the ship owner thus lose his freight, he has no claim upon the insurer; because, although his collateral security is destroyed by a peril of the sea, his right to receive freight remains unimpaired, and it is against the loss or impairing of this right that the insurer protects him.

Particular Average on Ships.—Particular average upon ships is a subject somewhat more beset with difficulties. There is scarcely a ship that makes a voyage of any length, that does not sustain some damage. The clause in the policy warranting the ship free from particular average under 3 per cent., unless stranded, protects the insurer from the constant recurrence of petty claims; but in addition to this, it is the practice to class the damage, that a ship sustains in the prosecution of her voyage, under two heads: ordinary damage, or wear and tear; and extraordinary damage, or particular average. The splitting of sails, the breaking of anchors and cables, the upsetting of windlasses, are losses that come under the first head. The carrying away of masts and bulwarks, damage to the copper sheathing, and hull, from striking on rocks, come under the second.

When a ship sustains damage, if she be on her first voyage, the whole expense of the repairs is made good by the insurers. But if she be not on her first voyage, it is the established custom that the insurer pays no more than 2-3ds of the repairs, the owner of the vessel having, as it is thought, an equivalent for the 1-3d which falls upon him, in the substitution of new work for old. Where the nature of the damage is such as to require that the copper should be stripped off the ship's bottom, the insurer pays the difference between the price of the old and the new copper on the weight of the old copper stripped off; the excess in weight of the new over the old copper is paid for by the ship owner; and the labour of stripping and replacing the copper is paid for on the principle already mentioned. In any general rule of this kind, it must be obvious that the ship owner will sometimes gain and sometimes lose by an accident. As soon as the ship owner, or his captain, learns that his vessel has met with an accident, or as soon after as possible, he summons regular surveyors to examine his vessel and report all defects, discriminating between those defects that have arisen from perils of the sea, and those from wear and tear. The first only are made good by the insurer, together with all charges, such as surveyors' fees, dock dues, &c., caused by the necessity of undergoing repair. It has been already observed, that when a ship is obliged, in the progress of her voyage, to put into port for the purpose of repair, although the owner of the ship be subjected to great expense for the wages and maintenance of his crew during the detention, he can recover no part of this expense from the insurer; the doctrine being, that the owner of the ship is bound to navigate his vessel, and that the insurer does not undertake to guarantee that the voyage shall be completed within any specific time. Such is the doctrine, at least, in this country, and the practice is founded upon it; but in all other countries the doctrine and practice are the reverse. For in them allowance is made to the ship owner for the wages and maintenance of the crew during the whole period that the ship is under repair. Where a vessel sustains damage and undergoes repair in the progress of her voyage, and is subsequently lost, the insurer is liable both for the particular average and a total loss. Or the owner of the ship may, if he please, insure the amount expended in repair; and then, in the event of subsequent loss, the insurer is liable for the total loss only, but in the event of subsequent safe arrival, the average is augmented by the charge of insurance.

The operation of the clause warranting the ship free from average under 3 per cent., unless general, or the ship be stranded, may now be clearly seen. If a ship be insured and valued at 10,000*l.*, and the repairs of the vessel do not, after all the deductions above referred to, amount to 3 per cent., there is no claim upon the insurer, unless the vessel shall have been stranded.—(See AVERAGE.)

Stranding.—The term stranded is not well chosen, admitting of more than one construction; and the clause of which it forms a part is imperfectly conceived. And in settlements of accounts, when differences arise, the parties who discuss them are more apt to strive for that interpretation of terms and clauses which is favourable to their interests, than for that which is best adapted for general purposes. It is commonly understood that merely striking the ground and coming off is not a stranding; it being necessary, in order to fall within that term, that the ship should remain on the ground or rock, as it may happen, and that efforts should be made to float her. Striking on an anchor and leaking dangerously is not a stranding. We shall only adduce two illustrations, for the purpose of showing how ill adapted this clause is as a means to an end. Corn and other such articles are warranted free from particular average, unless the ship be stranded, because the insurers, considering these

articles to be peculiarly susceptible of damage, will not consent to take that risk, except on some extraordinary occasion. A ship, laden with corn, makes a very stormy passage from the Baltic to London, and damages the whole of her cargo. Upon arrival off our coast she is stranded, but got off without straining or sustaining any damage. The insurer is held to be liable for the damage to the corn, under the clause of the policy. On another occasion, after a very favourable passage to our coast, a ship strikes upon a shoal, but is not stranded, sustaining, however, so much damage that she arrives at London with 6 feet water in her hold, and her cargo almost wholly spoiled. The insurer is held not to be liable under the clause of the policy.

General Average.—The insurer is bound to make good all general average without exception, however trifling the amount. General average is treated as though altogether unconnected with particular average; and damage to the goods not amounting to 3 per cent. is not payable by the insurer, although there may be also a general average, and the general and particular average together may amount to more than 3 or 5 per cent. General average is a charge which must be paid by the merchant and ship owner, even if uninsured; although, when insured, he transfers, as it were, in virtue of his insurance, the charge from himself to his insurer. All the elements that can by possibility enter into general average may be classed under four heads:—1. Sacrifice of part of the ship and stores; 2. Sacrifice of part of the cargo and freight; 3. Remuneration of services required for general preservation; 4. Expense of raising money to replace what has been sacrificed, and to remunerate services.

1. When any part of the ship is sacrificed for the general benefit, the owner is entitled to receive (deducting, of course, his share of contribution) the amount of his outlay in the replacing of such sacrifice; allowance being made, on the principle stated above, where old works and materials are replaced with new. The deduction of 1-3d, however, does not invariably apply. For instance, 1-6th only is taken off the price of an iron cable that is slipped from for the general benefit, because iron cables are calculated to last for a great number of years; and no deduction is ever made from the price of anchors. The charge of replacing the loss may amount to considerably more than the value lost, computing the value at the place where the ship was originally fitted. Thus, the cost of replacing an anchor and cable slipped from in the Downs, is frequently double the value of the anchor and cable at London. But whatever the charge may be, such charge forms the basis of settlement.

2. Sacrifice of the cargo and freight takes place in jettison, or where part of the cargo is flung overboard to lighten the vessel. Upon arrival in port, after such jettison, the owner of the goods jettisoned is entitled to receive (deducting his share of contribution) what the goods would have produced net to him, supposing them to have arrived sound; and the owner of the ship is entitled to receive (deducting his share of contribution) the freight to which he would have been entitled upon the safe delivery of the goods.

3. Remuneration of services and other charges. When a ship loses her anchors and cables, very large sums are frequently awarded to boatmen who venture off to her with new ones at the imminent hazard of their lives. A ship disabled at sea is towed into port by another, and remuneration for such service is awarded according to the value saved, the detention occasioned, and the loss sustained. The ship rendering the service may be laden with fish or fruit, that may be totally spoiled by the detention, or may be in ballast. A ship captured by the enemy may be re-captured by a man of war or armed merchant vessel; here, again, salvage is awarded according to the circumstances of the case. All these charges are general average; that is to say, must be distributed over ship, freight, and cargo. When a ship, with her cargo, is driven on shore, the expense of attempting to get her off is general average. If she cannot be got off without discharging, the expense of discharging is general average; but the expense of getting the ship off after her cargo has been taken out falls exclusively upon the ship. The warehousing of the cargo, and other expenses incurred for its preservation, are charges exclusively upon the cargo. The expense of reloading is borne by the freight. When a ship puts into port in distress, the pilotage inwards is general average; the pilotage outwards is a charge upon the freight. This distribution of charges has settled into a tolerably well established practice; and upon this principle claims are settled at the offices, and at Lloyd's.

4. The money required to meet the above charges is sometimes attainable without expense. If the accident happen near home, and the ship owner be respectable, he advances the money, and recovers from the various parties concerned so soon as the accounts can be made up: or if the accident happen in a foreign port, where the owner of the ship is well known, the captain's bill upon him will sometimes be received in payment of the charges incurred. But where such facilities do not exist, the captain is empowered to pledge his ship, freight, and cargo, as security to any one he may prevail upon to supply the necessary funds. This pledge is termed a bottomry bond. By it the captain admits the receipt of the money: consents to the payment of a premium (which varies with the distance of the port of destination, the risk of the voyage, the respectability of the owner, and the necessities of the captain); and assigns the ship, freight, and cargo, as security for the repayment of the money advanced and the stipulated premium. Should the captain consider the bottomry premium demanded of him exorbitant, or should he deem it preferable in other respects, he may sell a portion of the cargo for the purpose of raising such money as he may stand in need of towards the prosecution of his voyage. The expense of raising the requisite funds, whether by commission, by bottomry premium, or by loss on the sale of the cargo, is charged to those parties for whose interest the money is required. Thus, if a ship, having struck upon a rock, puts into port in distress, and is obliged to unload to repair; supposing the particular average upon the ship to amount to 500*l.*; the general average, consisting of assistance into port and expense of unloading, 200*l.*; particular charges on freight, consisting of expense of reloading and pilotage outwards, 100*l.*; and particular charges on cargo, consisting of warehouse rent and repair of packages, 200*l.*; and the expense of raising money should be 20 per cent.:—these sums would be severally increased by this addition, and would be raised to 600*l.*, 240*l.*, 120*l.*, and 240*l.*—(See BOTTOMRY.)

It still remains to be inquired in what proportion the general average is to be paid by the different owners of the cargo, and the owner of ship and freight. Almost all general averages are adjusted at the ship's port of destination, and the values of the ship and cargo are taken at what they would produce in their actual state upon arrival, and the freight according to what is actually receivable, less the wages of the captain and crew; the general average being distributed in proportion to these values. Should the cargo be altogether worthless, it cannot be made to contribute; and should the wages of the crew exceed the freight, then the freight is not liable to contribute. In case of jettison, the party whose property has been sacrificed for the general benefit receives indemnity on the same principle; the value to which he is entitled being what his property would have produced *net*, supposing it to have been sold on the arrival of the vessel—the same value serving for the basis of his proportion of contribution. Some few cases occur, where the general average is adjusted at the port of departure. Thus, if a ship, outward bound to the British colonies, cut from an anchor and cable in the Downs, or incur other general average on our own coast, the insurances being principally effected in this country, it is the custom to adjust it on the spot, by which means both delay and expense are avoided. On these occasions, the values at the port of shipment are taken as the basis of contribution. A total loss, subsequently to a general average, does not exonerate the insurer from his prior liability; and although it is customary with the ship owner, or his agent, specifically to in-

sure the money expended in average, for the purpose of protecting the insurer against any greater liability than 100 per cent., he is not absolutely obliged to do so. When the average funds are raised by bottomry, the party advancing them takes the ship, freight, and cargo, as security, and charges a premium to cover the risk of the ship's non-arrival at her port of destination. And thus, on such an occasion, a subsequent total loss relieves the insurer from all liability to average.

The laws and customs by which averages are adjusted vary in different countries; but the insurer in this country is only liable for the averages adjusted according to our laws. The merchant, however, whose goods arrive at a foreign port, is obliged to submit to the laws of that port. He may thus be a considerable loser; paying general average according to one law, and receiving from his insurer according to another. And he never can be a gainer, because, before he is entitled to recover from his insurer, he must prove that he has paid to the owner of the ship. This is one of the many inconveniences to which mercantile men are exposed which cannot be removed without, what it may be hoped will gradually take place, an assimilation of the commercial laws of different countries.

Proof of Loss.—The policy of insurance is the instrument under which the merchant and ship owner claim indemnification for all losses that are not specially excepted. The proof that the loss has been sustained must also be exhibited; such as the title to the vessel and cargo, and the evidence of the captain and crew to establish the circumstances out of which the claim arises. If A. were to insure his vessel for the space of 12 months, and at the expiration of 6 months were to sell his ship to B.; A.'s interest in the vessel having ceased, so also does his insurer's liability; and B., if he wish to be protected must make a new insurance. Proof of ownership, therefore, is an essential preliminary to the recovery of a claim. In general practice, no difficulty arises from this, because the fact of ownership is sufficiently notorious. The bill of lading is, in most cases, satisfactory proof that the cargo was on board, as well as of the amount of freight.

Valued and open Policies.—If an insurance for 2,000*l.* be effected upon 100 hhds. of sugar, valued at 20*l.* per hhd., the bill of lading, showing that the vessel had 100 hhds. on board, establishes the interest at 2,000*l.*, and the policy is termed a valued policy. But if an insurance for 2,000*l.* be effected on 100 hhds. of sugar, and nothing be expressed as to value, the bill of lading only establishes that 100 hhds. are on board, without establishing the amount of interest. The production of the invoice, showing the cost of the goods, is necessary to that end, the policy being termed an open one.

Return of Premium for short Interest.—In a valued policy, when the whole of the property insured does not appear to have been shipped, the difference between the quantity insured and the quantity shipped is termed short interest. Thus, if 2,000*l.* be insured upon 100 hhds. of sugar, valued at 20*l.* per hhd., and 80 hhds. only be shipped; as the insurer's liability does not extend beyond 1,600*l.*, so he is obliged to return the premium upon 400*l.* to which no risk attaches. This return of premium is called a return for short interest.

For Over-Insurance.—In an open policy, where the value shipped is not equal to the value insured, the difference is termed over-insurance. If a merchant, A., make an insurance for 5,000*l.* upon goods, without specifying any value, from Calcutta to London, the premium being 60*s.* and the stamp duty 5*s.* per cent., the amount of interest that attaches to the policy is so fixed, that he is neither to gain nor lose by the transaction in the event of the vessel's loss, supposing his insurance to be sufficient. To entitle him to recover a profit, the profit to be insured must be stipulated in the policy. The expense of insurance upon 100*l.* being 3*l.* 5*s.*, it is clear that every 100*l.* insurance covers 96*l.* 15*s.* original cost; that is to say, protects the merchant from loss to that extent in case of the loss of the vessel. If, then, we assume the invoice of the goods shipped to be 40,000 rupees, or, at the exchange of 2*s.* per rupee, 4,000*l.*, the interest attaching to the policy is ascertained as follows:—If 96*l.* 15*s.* cost is insured by 100*l.* insurance, what will 4,000*l.* cost be insured by? Answer, 4,135*l.* Under such circumstances, although a policy exists for 5,000*l.*, the insured is not able to prove interest for more than 4,135*l.*; and consequently, the insurer being entitled to recover no more than that sum in case of loss, the insurer is called upon to make a return of premium for over-insurance upon 865*l.*

Although we have treated separately of returns for short interest and over-insurance, we should observe that these terms in practice are used indiscriminately; and, indeed, we cannot say that we perceive much advantage in making the distinction, or preserving the distinctive appellations.

It sometimes happens that the property expected in a vessel is not all insured at one time or in one policy. But this makes no difference in the principle of settlement according to our law; although, according to the laws of most other countries, the policies take precedence of one another according to their dates, the whole short interest falling upon the policy or policies last effected. The foreign law, in this instance, appears to us the more equitable and reasonable of the two; and that our reason for thinking so may be intelligible, and thus gain assent or meet with refutation, we shall state a case of short interest upon a number of policies, such as not unfrequently appears. A merchant, A., orders his correspondent at Calcutta to ship for his account a quantity of sugar, not exceeding 1,000 tons, at a price not exceeding 20*l.* per ton. In due time he receives a letter from his correspondent acknowledging the receipt of his order, and expressing confident hopes of being able to purchase the quantity, or the greater part of it, at the limits prescribed, and promising to advise as he proceeds. A., on receipt of this letter, say on the 1st of January, makes a provisional insurance for 5,000*l.* upon sugar valued at 20*l.* per ton. Continuing without further advices, and fearing lest his correspondent's letter should have miscarried, and that he might have property afloat uninsured, on the 1st of February, 1st of March, and 1st of April, he effects similar insurances, thus covering the whole 1,000 tons. He subsequently receives advice that his correspondent had not been able to purchase more than half the quantity ordered, at his limit, and he recovers from his insurers half the premium upon each policy. Now, it was not at all improbable that he might have received advice from his correspondent, as he expected, much sooner. And if he had received advice in the middle of February, of the shipment of 500 tons, and that the ship which contained them was totally lost in the river Hooghly, the insurers upon the two first policies would have been liable for a total loss. And it appears to us a defective arrangement, by which a party, who is at one time exposed to a total loss, should at another be compelled to return half his premium. It is true that the merchant may, if he please, insert in his policies a clause by which the policies shall be made to succeed one another; but we should say that the law, in insurance cases, as in the disposal of the property of deceased persons, ought to be the best general disposition, leaving to individuals the right of modification according to particular circumstances.

Return for Double Insurance.—Besides returns for short interest and over-insurance, there are returns for double insurance. They are, in fact, to all intents and purposes, the same thing. Double insurance exists where the party, through forgetfulness, makes an insurance upon his property twice over; or where the shippers and consignees of goods, when uncertain of one another's intentions, effect each an insurance upon them; or where the captain of a vessel in foreign parts, fearing lest his advices should not reach his owner, effects an insurance upon it, and the owner at the same time, acting with equal caution effects one also. The observations already made upon returns for short interest, and upon the difference between our laws and those of other countries, apply with equal force here.

We have now gone over all the principal topics connected with marine insurance. Those who

peruse this article with ordinary attention will, we hope, gain a tolerably clear insight into the principles and practice of the business. But a perfectly familiar acquaintance with it can only be acquired by those who are daily conversant with its details.

Duty on Policies of Marine Insurance.—Amount and Expediency of such Duty.—All policies of marine insurance must be on stamped paper, the duties on which are as follows:—

For every 100*l.* insured on a voyage in the coasting trade of the kingdom, where the premium does not exceed 20*s.* per cent., 1*s.* 3*d.*

Where the premium does exceed 20*s.* per cent., 2*s.* 6*d.*

For every 100*l* insured to or from any colonial or foreign port, where the premium does not exceed 15*s.* per cent., 1*s.* 3*d.*

Where the premium does exceed 15*s.* per cent., but does not exceed 30*s.* per cent., 2*s.* 6*d.*

Where the premium exceeds 30*s.* per cent., 5*s.*

For every 100*l.* insured for a period of time not exceeding 3 months, 2*s.* 6*d.*; exceeding 3 months (no ship can be insured on one stamp for a longer period than 12 months), 5*s.*

This duty was reduced in the year 1833. It is now about two thirds of what it was before. The reduction, so far as it goes, must of course be beneficial. But the tax is altogether wrong in principle, and ought to be repealed altogether. Its obvious tendency is to discourage the coasting trade, by imposing a duty on goods carried by sea, from which those carried by land and canals are exempted; and we believe it will be found that this unjust preference costs more to the public in the greater carriage of goods sent, through its means, by the more expensive channel of inland conveyance, than all that portion of the duty which affects coasting vessels produces to the revenue. But the other portion of the tax, or that which affects vessels engaged in the foreign or colonial trade, is still more objectionable. It is immaterial to a merchant sending a ship to sea, whether he insure her in London, Amsterdam, or Hamburgh; and as policies executed in the last two cities are either wholly exempted from duties, or subject to such only as are merely nominal, the effect of the duty is to transfer to the Continent a considerable part of the business of marine insurance, that would otherwise be transacted in London. It is plain, therefore, that this duty operates to drive a valuable branch of business from amongst us; and even though it had no such effect, still it is sufficiently clear that a tax on providence, or on the endeavour to guarantee the safety of property at sea, is not one that ought to exist in any country, and least of all in so commercial a country as England. Where the latitude given is so great, doubts will arise whether one stamp be adequate to cover a long voyage. And when difficulties are made to the settlement of a loss on such grounds, they are very prejudicial to the interests of the assured, and by no means creditable to the character of the underwriter.

If the trifling revenue (amounting in 1832 to only 210,000*l.*) derived from these stamps cannot be spared, a very small addition to the import duties would more than cover its amount, save the expense of collection, and relieve the mercantile public from the annoyance and loss above alluded to.*

Form of a Policy of Insurance executed at Lloyd's.

S. G. £800.

In the Name of God, Amen. Charles Brown and Co., as well in their own names as for and in the name and names of all and every other person or persons to whom the same doth, may, or shall appertain, in part or in all, doth make assurance, and cause themselves and them and every of them, to be insured, lost or not lost, at and from St. Petersburgh to any port or ports in the United Kingdom, upon any kind of goods and merchandises, and also upon the body, tackle, apparel, ordnance, munition, artillery, boat, and other furniture of and in the good ship or vessel called the Swift, whereof is master, under God, for this present voyage, Bright, or whoever else shall go for master in the said ship, or by whatsoever other name or names the said ship, or the master thereof, is or shall be named or called; beginning the adventure upon the said goods and merchandises from the loading thereof on board the said ship

upon the said ship, &c.

Stamp £2.

and so shall continue and endure during her abode there, upon the said ship, &c. And further, until the said ship, with all her ordnance, tackle, apparel, &c. and goods and merchandises whatsoever, shall be arrived at her final port of discharge (as above), upon the said ship, &c., until she hath moored at anchor twenty-four hours in good safety; and upon the goods and merchandises, until the same be there discharged and safely landed. And it shall be lawful for the said ship, &c. in this voyage, to proceed and sail to, and touch and stay at any ports or places whatsoever, without prejudice to this insurance. The said ship, &c. goods and merchandises, &c. for so much as concerns the assured, by agreement between the assured and assurers in this policy, are and shall be valued at eight hundred pounds, being on the captain's one fourth share of said ship, said one fourth share valued at that sum. Touching the adventures and perils which we the assurers are contented to bear, and do take upon us in this voyage: they are of the seas, men-of-war, fire, enemies, pirates, rovers, thieves, jettisons, letters of mart and countermart, surprisals, takings at sea, arrests, restraints, and detainments of all kings, princes and people, of what nation, condition, or quality soever, barratry of the master and mariners, and of all other perils, losses, and misfortunes, that have or shall come to the hurt, detriment, or damage of the said goods and merchandises and ship, &c. or any part thereof; offences against the revenue of the United Kingdom of Great Britain or Ireland excepted. And, in case of any loss or misfortune, it shall be lawful for the assured, their factors, servants, and assignees, to sue, labour, and travel for, in, and about the defence, safeguard, and recovery of the said goods and merchandises and ship, &c. or any part thereof, without prejudice to this insurance; to the charges whereof we the assurers will contribute, each one according to the rate and quantity of his sum herein assured. And it is agreed by us, the insurers, that this writing, or policy of assurance, shall be of as much force and effect, as the surest writing or policy of assurance, heretofore made in Lombard Street, or in the Royal Exchange, or elsewhere in London. And so we the assurers are contented, and do hereby promise and bind ourselves, each one for his own part, our heirs, executors, and goods, to the assured, their executors, administrators, and assigns, for the true performance of the premises, confessing ourselves paid the consideration due unto us for this assurance by the assured, at and after the rate of five guineas per cent., to return one pound per cent. if the voyage end on the east coast of England.

In Witness whereof, we, the assurers, have subscribed our names and sums assured in London,

N. B.—Corn, fish, salt, fruit, flour, and seeds, are warranted free from average, unless

* This very valuable article (on Marine Insurance) has been, as the reader will easily perceive, furnished by a gentleman thoroughly conversant with the principles and details of the business.

general, or the ship be stranded.—Sugar, tobacco, hemp, flax, hides, and skins, are warranted free from average under five pounds per cent.; and all other goods, also the ship and freight, are warranted free from average under three pounds per cent., unless general or the ship be stranded.

£500. Joseph White, Five hundred pounds. 1st of Sept. 1833.
£300. Thomas Black by George Green, Three hundred pounds. 1st of Sept. 1833.

Policy by the Indemnity Mutual Marine Assurance Company.
Established 1824.

£5,000. WHEREAS William Grey hath represented to us whose hands and seals are hereunto subscribed and affixed, and who are two of the directors of the INDEMNITY MUTUAL MARINE ASSURANCE COMPANY, that he is interested in, or duly authorised as owner, agent, or otherwise, to make the assurance hereinafter mentioned and described, with the INDEMNITY MUTUAL MARINE ASSURANCE COMPANY, and hath covenanted or otherwise obliged himself to pay forthwith for the use of the said Company, at the office of the said Company, the sum of sixty-two pounds ten shillings as a premium or consideration, at and after the rate of twenty-five shillings per cent. for such assurance. Now THIS POLICY OF ASSURANCE WITNESSETH, that in consideration of the premises and of the said sum of sixty-two pounds ten shillings, WE do, for ourselves and each of us, covenant and agree with the said William Grey, his executors, administrators, and assigns, that the capital stock and funds of the said Company shall, according to the provisions of the deed of settlement of the said Company, and the resolutions entered into at two extraordinary general courts of the said Company, held on the twenty-ninth day of August, and the twentieth day of September, one thousand eight hundred and twenty-seven, be subject and liable to pay and make good, and shall be applied to pay and make good all such losses and damages hereinafter expressed as may happen to the subject matter of this policy, and may attach to this policy in respect of the sum of five thousand pounds hereby assured, which assurance is hereby declared to be upon

Stamp £6. 5s.

C 1/250. 250 hhds. of sugar valued at 26*l.* each, average payable upon each 10 hhds. following landing numbers, the same as if separately insured, laden or to be laden on board the ship or vessel called the Nelly, whereof Turner is at present master, or whoever shall go for master of the said ship or vessel, lost or not lost, at and from Grenada to London, including the risk of craft to and from the vessel, warranted to sail on or before the 1st of August, 1831. AND WE do covenant and agree, that the assurance aforesaid shall commence upon the said ship, at and from Grenada, and until she hath moored at anchor twenty-four hours in good safety; and upon the freight and goods or merchandise on board thereof, from the loading of the said goods or merchandise on board the said ship or vessel at London, and until the said goods or merchandise be discharged and safely landed at . AND that it shall be lawful for the said ship or vessel to proceed and sail to, and touch, and stay at any ports or places whatsoever, in the course of her said voyage, for all necessary purposes, without prejudice to this assurance. AND touching the adventures and perils which the capital stock and funds of the said Company are made liable unto, or are intended to be made liable unto, by this assurance, they are, of the seas, men-of-war, fire, enemies, pirates, rovers, thieves, jettisons, letters of mart and countermart, surprisals, takings at sea, arrests, restraints, and detainments of all kings, princes, and people, of what nation, condition, or quality soever; barratry of the master and mariners, and of all other perils, losses, and misfortunes, that have or shall come to the hurt, detriment, or damage of the aforesaid subject matter of this assurance, or any part thereof. AND in case of any loss or misfortune, it shall be lawful to the assured, their factors, servants and assigns, to sue, labour, and travel for, in, and about the defence, safeguard, and recovery of the aforesaid subject matter of this assurance, or any part thereof, without prejudice to this assurance, the charges whereof the capital stock and funds of the said Company shall bear in proportion to the sum hereby assured. AND it is declared and agreed, that corn, fish, salt, fruit, flour, and seed, shall be and are warranted free from average unless general, or the ship be stranded; and that sugar, tobacco, hemp, flax, hides, and skins, shall be and are warranted free from average under five pounds per centum; that all other goods, also the ship and freight, shall be and are warranted free from average under three pounds per centum, unless general, or the ship be stranded. PROVIDED NEVERTHELESS, that the capital stock and funds of the said Company shall alone be liable, according to the provisions of the deed of settlement and the resolutions abovementioned, to answer and make good all claims and demands whatsoever, under or by virtue of this policy; and that no proprietor of the said Company, his or her heirs, executors, or administrators, shall be in anywise subject or liable to any claims or demands, nor be in anywise charged by reason of this policy beyond the amount of his or her share or shares in the capital stock of the said Company, it being one of the original or fundamental principles of the said Company, that the responsibility of the individual proprietors shall, in all cases, be limited to their respective shares in the said capital stock.

IN WITNESS whereof, WE have hereunto set our hands and seals in London, the tenth day of January, 1834.

Sealed and delivered in the presence of } E. F.

A. B. (L. s.)
C. D. (L. s.)

III. INSURANCE (FIRE).

Insurance against fire is a contract of indemnity, by which the insurer, in consideration of a certain premium received by him, either in a gross sum or by annual payments, undertakes to indemnify the insured against all loss or damage he may sustain in his houses or other buildings, stock, goods, and merchandise, by fire, during a specified period.

Insurances against fire are hardly ever made by individuals, but almost always by joint stock companies, of which there are several in all the considerable towns throughout the empire. Of these, the *Sun*, the *Phœnix*, the *British*, &c. insure at their own risk and for their own profit: but there are others, which are called *contribution societies*, in which every person insured becomes a member or proprietor, and participates in the profit or loss of the concern. The *Hand in Hand*, *Westminster*, &c. are of this description.

The conditions on which the different offices insure are contained in their *proposals*, which are printed on the back of every policy; and it is in most instances expressly conditioned, that they undertake to pay the loss, not exceeding the sum insured, "*according to the exact tenor of their printed proposals.*"

Nothing can be recovered from the insurers, in the event of loss, unless the party insuring had an interest or property in the thing insured at the time when the insurance was effected, and when the loss happened. It often occurs that no one office will insure to the full amount required by an individual who has a large property; and in such a case the party, to cover his whole interest, is obliged to insure at different offices. But, in order to prevent the frauds that might be practised by insuring the full value in various offices, there is, in the proposals issued by all the companies, an article which declares, that persons insuring must give notice of any other insurance made elsewhere upon the same houses or goods, that the same may be specified and allowed by indorsement on the policy, in order that each office may bear its rateable proportion of any loss that may happen; and unless such notice be given of each insurance to the office where another insurance is made on the same effects, the insurance made without such notice will be void.

Any trustee, mortgagee, reversioner, factor, or agent, has sufficient interest in the goods under his custody, to effect a policy of insurance, provided the nature of such property be distinctly specified at the time of executing such policy.

Most of the offices except in their proposals against making good any loss occasioned by "invasion," "foreign enemy," "civil commotions," &c.; and under this condition the Sun Fire Office was exonerated from the loss occasioned by the disgraceful proceedings of the mob in 1780.

One of the principal conditions in the proposals has reference to the proof of loss. The Sun Fire Office—(see *post*), and most other offices, make it a condition, that the individual claiming shall "procure a certificate, under the hands of the minister and churchwardens, and some other respectable inhabitants of the parish or place, not concerned or interested in such loss, importing that they are well acquainted with the character and circumstances of the person or persons insured or claiming; and do know, or verily believe, that he, she, or they, really, and by misfortune, without any fraud or evil practice, have sustained by such fire the loss or damage, as his, her, or their loss, to the value therein mentioned." This condition has given rise to a great deal of discussion in the courts; but it has been finally decided, that the procuring of the certificate is *a condition precedent to the payment of any loss, and that its being wrongfully refused will not excuse the want of it.*

The risk commences in general from the signing of the policy, unless there be some other time specified. Policies of insurance may be annual, or for a term of years at an annual premium; and it is usual for the office, by way of indulgence, to allow *fifteen* days after each year for the payment of the premium for the next year in succession; and provided the premium be paid within that time, the insured is considered as within the protection of the office.

A policy of insurance is not in its nature assignable, nor can it be transferred without the *express consent* of the office. When, however, any person dies, his interest remains in his executors or administrators respectively, who succeed or become entitled to the property, provided such representatives respectively procure their right to be indorsed on the policy.

(For further details, see *Marshall on Insurance*, book iv.; *Park on Insurance*, c. 23.)

Insurances are generally divided into *common*, *hazardous*, and *doubly hazardous*. The distinguishing characteristics of these may be learned from the subjoined proposals of the Sun Fire Office. The charge for insuring property of the first description is now usually 1*s.* 6*d.* per cent., the second 2*s.* 6*d.*, and the third 4*s.* 6*d.* These charges are exclusive of the duty payable to government, of 1*s.* on the policy, and 3*s.* per cent. on the sum in the policy.

We subjoin a copy of a policy of insurance on a house valued at 1,000*l.*, and furniture, plate, books, &c. in the same, valued also at 1,000*l.*, executed by the Sun Fire Office, and of the proposals indorsed on the same. The latter correspond in most particulars with those issued by the other offices.

"Received, for the insurance of the property undermentioned, from Xmas 1833, to Xmas 1834.

	£	s.	d.
Policy	0	0	0
Premium	1	10	0
Duty	3	0	0
	£4	10	0

SUN FIRE OFFICE.

To be paid annually at Xmas.

	£	s.	d.
Premium	1	10	0
Duty	3	0	0
	£4	10	0

No. ——

550

WHEREAS A. B. Esq. of No. —— Street, has paid the sum of one pound ten shillings to the Society of the Sun Fire Office in London, and has agreed to pay or cause to be paid, to them, at their said office, the sum of one pound ten shillings on the 25th of December, 1833, and the like sum of one pound ten shillings yearly on the 25th day of December during the continuance of this policy, for insurance from loss or damage by fire, on his now dwelling house only, situate as aforesaid, brick, one thousand pounds; household goods, wearing apparel, printed books, and plate therein only, one thousand pounds.

"NOW KNOW YE, That, from the date of these presents, and so long as the said A. B. shall duly pay, or cause to be paid, the said sum of one pound ten shillings at the times and place aforesaid; and the trustees or acting members of the said Society, for the time being, shall agree to accept the same; the stock and fund of the said Society shall be subject and liable to pay to the said A. B., his executors, administrators, and assigns, all such his damage and loss which he, the said A. B., shall suffer by fire, not exceeding upon each head of insurance, the sum or sums above-mentioned, amounting in the whole to no more than two thousand pounds, according to the exact tenor of their printed proposals, indorsed on this policy, and of an act of Parliament, on the 55th of George the Third, for charging a duty on persons whose property shall be insured against loss by fire. IN WITNESS whereof, we (three of the trustees or acting members for the said Society) have hereunto set our hands and seals, the 24th day of December, 1833.

Signed and sealed (being stamped according to act of parliament) in the presence of J. K.

C. D. (L. S.)
E. F. (L. S.)
G. H. (L. S.)

"N. B.—The interest in this policy may be transferred by indorsement, made and entered at the office, if the trustees or acting members approve thereof, but not otherwise."

(INDORSEMENT ON THE POLICY.)

SUN FIRE OFFICE.

This office insures against loss or damage by fire, in Great Britain and Ireland, all descriptions of buildings, including mills and manufactories, and goods, wares, and merchandise, in the same; ships in harbour, or in dock; craft on navigable rivers and canals, and the goods laden on the same; wagons travelling the roads, and their contents; and farming stock of all descriptions, upon the following terms and conditions:—

Common Insurances.

1. Buildings covered with slates, tiles, or metals, and built on all sides with brick or stone, or separated by party-walls of brick or stone, and wherein no hazardous trade or manufacture is carried on, or hazardous goods deposited.

2. Goods in buildings as above described, such as household goods, plate, jewels in private use, apparel, and printed books; liquors in private use, merchandise, stock and utensils in trade, not hazardous, and farming stock.

At 1s. 6d. per cent. per annum, with certain exceptions.

Insurable Insurances.

1. Buildings of timber or plaster, or not wholly separated by partition-walls of brick or stone, or not covered with slates, tiles, or metals, and thatched barns and out-houses having no chimney, nor adjoining to any building having a chimney; and buildings falling under the description of common insurances, but in which some hazardous trade or manufacture is carried on, such as brewers (without a steam-engine), bread and biscuit bakers (not sea biscuit bakers), bottlers and packers of wine, spirits, or beer; chemists (without a laboratory), malt-dealers, maltsters (who make pale malt only), oilmen, soap boilers, stable-keepers, and certain others; or in which hazardous goods are deposited, as the stock and utensils in the above trades; and, also, tallow, pitch, tar, hemp, flax, rosin, and turpentine; hay, straw, and all manner of fodder and corn unthrashed; apothecaries' stock, and oil; and wine and spirituous liquors as merchandize.

2. Ships and craft, with their contents (lime barges, with *their* contents, alone excepted).

At 2s. 6d. per cent. per annum, with certain exceptions.

Doubly Hazardous Insurances.

1. Buildings.—All thatched buildings having chimneys, or communicating with, or adjoining to, buildings having one, although no hazardous trade shall be carried on, nor hazardous goods deposited therein; and all hazardous buildings, in which hazardous goods are deposited, or hazardous trades carried on.

2. Goods.—All hazardous goods deposited in hazardous buildings, and in thatched buildings having no chimney, nor adjoining to any building having a chimney.

3. Trades.—and their stock and utensils, such as maltsters (who make brown malt), and certain others; also china, glass, and earthenware, saltpetre, and wagons with their contents.

At 4s. 6d. per cent. per annum, with certain exceptions.

Farming stock on any part of a farm may be insured under general policies, without the average clause, at 1s. 6d. per cent., provided it be insured to a fair average value. This office will not be subject to any loss on hay or corn, occasioned by its own natural heating, but the loss of any other property in consequence of such fire will be made good; as will losses by fire from lightning.

Insurances may also be made by special agreement on the following risks, and on others of a similar description, not mentioned under the 2d and 3d heads of insurance, viz. on mills of all kinds, and the stock and utensils in them; also on buildings, containing kiln, steam-engine, stove, or oven, used in the process of any manufacture, and the stock therein; sugar refiners, sea biscuit bakers, distillers, varnish makers, chemists' laboratories, theatres, coach painters, colour manufacturers, varnishers, musical instrument makers, refiners of saltpetre, spermaceti, wax, and oil, barge and boat builders, carpenters, cabinet makers, coach makers, coopers, cork burners, floor-cloth painters, japanners, lampblack makers, letter-press printers, machine makers, melters of tallow and rough fat, candle makers, carr grease makers, rope and sail makers, ship chandlers, hemp and flax dressers, oil leather dressers, medals, curiosities, pictures, prints, drawings, statuary work, spinners of cotton, flax, lint and wool, throughout all the operations attending the manufacturing of those materials, from the raw state thereof, for the weaver; and such other risks as, by reason of the nature of the trade, the narrowness of the situation, or other dangerous circumstances, may increase the hazard thereof: all which special hazards must be inserted in the policy, to render the same valid and in force.

N. B.—Gunpowder, and buildings in which it is made, cannot be insured on any terms; neither does this office insure writings of any kind, books of accounts, ready money, bonds, bills, or any other securities for money.

N. B.—By an act of the 55th of Geo. 3, a duty of 3s. per annum is to be levied on every 100*l.* of property insured against fire.

N. B.—Persons may insure for more years than one, and in such cases there will be a discount allowed of 5 per cent. per annum, compound interest, on the premium and duty for every year except the first.

Conditions.

Art. I.—Any person desirous of effecting insurances upon buildings or goods must furnish the office, or its agents, with a particular description thereof, and of the process of manufacture carried on therein; and if there be any omission or misrepresentation in describing the building or goods, or process of manufacture, whereby the same may be charged at a different rate of premium than they otherwise would be, this office will not be responsible in case of any loss or damage. And if any alteration be made in the state of the buildings or goods, or process of manufacture, after such insurance shall have been effected, then the insured shall give due notice thereof, in writing, to the office or its agents, or in default of such notice, such insurance shall become void, and no benefit be derived therefrom.

Art. II.—All policies shall be signed and sealed by three or more trustees or acting members; and no receipts are to be taken for any premiums of insurance, but such as are printed and issued from the office, and witnessed by one of its clerks or agents.

Art. III.—Houses, buildings, and goods in trust, and merchandize on commission (except as aforesaid), may be insured, provided the same are declared in the policy to be in trust or on commission, but not otherwise.

Art. IV.—On bespeaking policies, all persons shall pay the premium to the next quarter day, and from thence for one year more at least, or shall make a deposit for the same, and shall, as long as the managers agree to accept the same, make all future payments annually at the said office, within fifteen days after the day limited by their respective policies, upon forfeiture of the benefit thereof.

Art. V.—Any number of houses and out-houses, and household goods, printed books, wearing apparel, plate, prints, jewels and trinkets in private use, stock in trade, goods in trust, or on commission, may be insured in one policy.

Art. VI.—Persons insured by this office shall receive no benefit from their policies, if the same houses, or goods, &c. are insured in any other office, unless such insurance, and the amount thereof, be first specified and allowed by indorsement on the policy, in which case this office will pay its rateable proportion on any loss or damage.

Art. VII.—When any person dies, the policy and interest therein shall continue to the heir, executor, or administrator, respectively, to whom the right of the property insured shall belong, provided, before any new payment be made, such heir, executor, or administrator, do procure his or her right to be indorsed on the policy at the said office, or the premium to be paid in the name of the said heir, executor, or administrator.

Art. VIII.—Persons changing their habitations or warehouses may preserve the benefit of their policies, if the nature and circumstance of such policy be not altered; but such insurance will be of no force till such removal or alteration is allowed at the office, by indorsement on the policy.

Art. IX.—No loss or damage will be paid on fire happening by any invasion, foreign enemy, civil commotion, or any military or usurped power whatever.

Art. X.—Persons insured sustaining any loss or damage by fire are forthwith to give notice thereof at the office; and, as soon as possible afterwards, deliver in as particular an account of their loss or damage as the nature of the case will admit of, and make proof of the same by their oath or affirmation, according to the form practised in the said office, and by their books of accounts, or such other proper vouchers as shall be reasonably required, and procure a certificate under the hands of the minister and churchwardens, and some other respectable inhabitants of the parish and place, not concerned or interested in such loss, importing that they are well acquainted with the character and circumstances of the person or persons insured or claiming; and do know, or verily believe, that the loss or they, really, and by misfortune, without any fraud or evil practice, have sustained by such fire the loss or damage, as his, her, or their loss, to the value therein mentioned. And, till the affidavit and certificate of such the insured's loss shall be made and produced, the loss money shall not be payable. But, if there appear any fraud or false swearing, or that the fire shall have happened by the procurement, or wilful act, means, or contrivance of the insured or claimants, he, she, or they shall be excluded from all benefit from their policies. And in case any differences shall arise between the office and the insured, touching any loss or damage, such difference shall be submitted to the judgment and determination of arbitrators indifferently chosen, whose award in writing shall be conclusive and binding on all parties.

N. B.—In every case of loss the Company reserves the right of reinstatement in preference to the payment of claims, if it should judge the former course to be more expedient; but when any loss is settled and adjusted, the insured will receive immediate payment for the same, without any deduction or discount; and will not be liable to any covenants or calls for contribution to make good losses.

☞ To encourage the removal of goods, in case of fire, this office will allow the reasonable charges attending the same, and make good the sufferer's loss, whether destroyed, lost, or damaged, by such removal.

Insurance of Mills, &c.—We subjoin for the information of such of our readers as may be interested in the insurance of mills, the following statements, put forth by the Leeds and Yorkshire Assurance Company.

CLASSIFICATION OF MILLS.

Class I.—*Fire Proof.* Mills built entirely of stone or brick: the floors laid upon stone or brick arches, resting upon stone, brick, or iron pillars, and consisting of stone flags, tiles, cement, or plaster; the frame-work of the windows and roof of iron, the roof covered with slates, tiles, or metal; the staircase detached, constructed of solid masonry or brick-work, without any mixture of wood or timber, and having no communication with the mill but at the several landings, the openings for upright shafts or machinery (if any) to be boxed off with iron or stone.

Class II.—*Fire Proof.* Mills of which the construction is in all respects the same as Class I. except that the floors do not rest upon stone or brick arches, but consist of stone flags laid upon iron beams and joists.

Class III.—Mills constructed as Classes I. and II. but having the same floors resting upon timber beams and joists, and the frame-work of the windows and roof of wood.

Class IV.—Mills built of stone or brick, and having one or more of the upper floors constructed of stone flags laid upon iron or wood beams, on which floors the dangerous processes are carried on; the staircase of stone, and detached.

Class V.—Mills constructed of stone or brick; having the floors, except the ground floor, of wood, planked and joisted with iron; the staircase of stone, being detached or on the outside.

Class VI.—Mills constructed of stone or brick; having the floors, except the ground floor, of wood; the staircase of stone, being detached or on the outside.

Class VII.—Mills constructed of stone or brick; having the stairs and floors of wood; the stairs being open to the building.

N. B.—In all the classes it is understood that the mill does not adjoin any other mill or extra-hazardous building; that the heating is by steam, and that the boilers and firing places are in a separate building, not endangering the mill.

	Flax Mills.						Co		
	Building			Machinery and Stock.			Building.		
	L.	*s.*	*d.*	*L.*	*s.*	*d.*	*L.*	*s.*	
Class I.	0	5	0	0	10	0	0	5	
II.	0	7	0	0	12	0	0	7	
III.	0	9	0	0	14	0	0	9	
IV.	0	12	0	0	15	0	0	11	
V.	0	14	0	0	17	0	0	13	
VI.	0	17	0	0	19	0	0	15	
VII.	1	0	0	1	2	0	0	18	

Remark.—The premiums affixed in opposition that 3-4ths of the value of the is for insurance. If only half the valu will be 1-3d more; if only 1-4th, the pr and so on. Buildings, machinery, an insured for any sum or sume, subject to chinery and stock may be insured by roo The introduction of stoves or fires, fo will add to classes

I. and II. 6*d.* premium. | V. an
III. and IV. 1*s.* premium. | VII.
When mills are more than 2 miles dis

Amount of Property insured

and some other countries, is amongst us for a century and accounts, that the *gross* duty 1832, amounted to 836,096*l.*; valued at the immense sum still true that most buildings sured at all; and in the count It is difficult to imagine that On common risks the duty is person pay to an insurance of pay a duty of 30*s.* to governm about 120 to 75 and 80 per cen impolitic. There cannot, in *third* its present amount, the be extended without an incre from the causalties to which best consequences in a public from being materially diminis

During last session (1833), thence arising is immaterial; inasmuch as there is no grou other description of stock. A see it repealed, but to have it felt as a burden; while the r

Amount of Duty on Fire Ins

Offices.	1833.
	L.
Alliance	16,340
Atlas	19,242
British	15,274
County	40,680
Globe	24,117
Guardian	28,370
Hand-in-Hand	11,596
Imperial	28,986
London	7,411
Palladium	3,810
Phœnix	69,991
Protector	24,752
Royal Exchange	45,108
Sun	107,172
Union	15,865
Westminster	14,564
Albion	13,053
Total	479,096

Amount of Duty on Fire Ins

Offices.
Bath Sun
Berks, Gloucester, &c. (discon.)
Birmingham
Bristol
Bristol (Crown)
Bristol (Union)
Essex Economic
Essex and Suffolk
Hereford, Cambridge, &c. (discon.)
Hants, Sussex, and Dorset
Kent
Leeds and Yorkshire
Manchester
Newcastle upon Tyne
New Norwich Equitable

Scale of Premiums.

	Flax Mills.		Cotton Mills.		Woollen Mills.		Corn Mills.		Oil Mills.		Worsted and Silk Mills.	
	Building.	Machinery and Stock.	Building.	Machinery and Stock.	Building.	Machinery and Stock.	Building.	Machinery and Stock.	Building.	Machinery and Stock.	Building.	Machinery and Stock.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
Class I.	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 5 0	0 9 0	0 5 0	0 8 0	0 3 0	0 6 0	0 4 0	0 7 0	0 3 0	0 5 0
II.	0 7 0	0 12 0	0 7 0	0 11 0	0 7 0	0 10 0	0 4 0	0 7 0	0 5 0	0 8 0	0 3 6	0 5 6
III.	0 9 0	0 14 0	0 9 0	0 12 0	0 9 0	0 12 0	0 5 0	0 8 0	0 6 0	0 9 0	0 4 0	0 6 0
IV.	0 12 0	0 16 0	0 11 0	0 14 0	0 11 0	0 13 0	0 7 0	0 9 0	0 7 0	0 10 0	0 4 6	0 6 6
V.	0 14 0	0 17 0	0 13 0	0 15 0	0 12 0	0 14 0	0 8 0	0 10 0	0 8 0	0 11 0	0 5 0	0 7 0
VI.	0 17 0	0 19 0	0 15 0	0 17 0	0 14 0	0 16 0	0 9 0	0 11 0	0 9 0	0 12 0	0 6 0	0 7 6
VII.	1 0 0	1 2 0	0 18 0	1 0 0	0 16 0	0 18 0	0 10 0	0 12 0	0 10 0	0 13 0	0 7 0	0 8 6

Remarks.—The premiums affixed in the above scale are on the supposition that 3-4ths of the value of the building or stock are given in for insurance. If only half the value is given in, the premium will be 1-3d more; if only 1-4th, the premium will be 2-3ds more; and so on. Buildings, machinery, and stock, may however be insured for any sum or sums, subject to the average clause; or machinery and stock may be insured by rooms.

The introduction of stoves or fires, for heating, in lieu of steam, will add to classes

I. and II. 6*d.* premium. | V. and VI. 1*s.* 6*d.* premium.
III. and IV. 1*s.* premium. | VII. - - 2*s.* premium.

When mills are more than 2 miles distant from any of the company's, or other public engine stations, or have not engines belonging to them, reported in good order, and properly served, there must be added to classes

I. and II. 6*d.* premium. | V. and VI. 1*s.* 6*d.* premium.
III. and IV. 1*s.* premium. | VII. - - 2*s.* premium.

In corn mills, the working of every additional pair of stones beyond 4, will add 6*d.* to the above premiums.

A kiln adjoining and communicating for the drying of oats or other grain, will add 2*s.* to the above premiums.

Wind corn mills, built of brick or stone, and having the roof of wood, will come under Class VII.

Amount of Property insured.—Duty.—Insurance against fire, though practised in France, Holland, and some other countries, is not general any where except in Great Britain. It has been known amongst us for a century and a half, and is now very widely extended. It appears from the official accounts, that the *gross* duty received on policies of insurance against fire in the United Kingdom, in 1832, amounted to 836,096*l.*; which, as the duty is 3*s.* per cent., shows that the property insured was valued at the immense sum of 557,397,533*l.*! But notwithstanding the magnitude of this sum, it is still true that most buildings are not insured up to their full value; even in towns, many are not insured at all; and in the country it is far from being customary to insure farm buildings or barn-yards. It is difficult to imagine that this can be owing to any thing other than the exorbitance of the duty. On common risks the duty is no less than 200 per cent. upon the premium; or, in other words, if a person pay to an insurance office 1*s.* for insuring 1,000*l.* worth of property, he must at the same time pay a duty of 30*s.* to government! On hazardous and doubly hazardous risks, the duty varies from about 120 to 75 and 80 per cent. upon the premium. Such a duty is in the last degree oppressive and impolitic. There cannot, in fact, be the slightest doubt that, were it reduced, as it ought to be, to *one third* its present amount, the business of insurance would be very much extended; and as it could not be extended without an increase of security, and without lessening the injurious consequences arising from the causalties to which property is exposed, the reduction of the duty would be productive of the best consequences in a public point of view; while the increase of business would prevent the revenue from being materially diminished.

During last session (1833), the duty on the insurance of farming stock was repealed. But the relief thence arising is immaterial; and the increase is, besides, highly objectionable in point of principle, inasmuch as there is no ground whatever for exempting farming stock from duty in preference to any other description of stock. A duty on insurance is not, in itself, objectionable. We do not wish to see it repealed, but to have it effectually reduced. Were it fixed at 1*s.* per cent., it would hardly be felt as a burden; while the revenue would suffer little or nothing from the measure.

Amount of Duty on Fire Insurances paid by the different London Offices, during each of the Ten Years ending with 1835.

Offices.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
	L.	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*
Alliance	16,349	17,746	19,095	19,466	20,175	20,715	20,147	20,429	21,034	22,602
Atlas	19,222	20,896	19,522	20,199	20,700	20,783	21,010	21,286	21,388	22,088
British	15,274	15,464	15,293	15,812	15,819	15,572	15,844	15,395	16,428	17,473
County	40,880	43,522	47,413	44,823	44,172	48,619	48,507	44,252	40,471	42,317
Globe	24,117	25,169	25,367	25,596	26,492	26,567	27,198	27,321	27,355	29,366
Guardian	28,370	29,083	29,684	30,595	31,077	31,885	31,528	31,916	32,111	33,475
Hand-in-Hand	11,595	11,704	11,975	11,454	11,589	11,564	10,960	10,793	10,950	11,166
Imperial	28,966	28,334	28,647	28,510	27,081	28,230	28,234	27,154	27,020	27,379
London	7,411	7,077	7,263	7,485	8,019	7,953	8,125	8,477	9,490	10,173
Pelladium	3,810	4,731	6,028	5,378	1,377	discontin.				
Phœnix	59,991	60,483	62,139	65,649	68,875	69,390	75,076	73,368	72,821	73,157
Protector	24,756	35,973	46,446	54,287	56,091	59,789	59,192	57,858	56,676	54,366
Royal Exchange	47,106	38,034	48,416	49,786	51,891	54,588	54,844	55,716	55,266	57,973
Sun	107,172	111,521	114,305	118,856	120,619	124,030	124,137	124,681	127,470	129,111
Union	15,665	15,705	16,418	16,268	15,714	15,883	15,315	16,133	16,370	17,334
Westminster	14,564	14,349	14,264	15,401	14,777	15,116	15,111	15,136	15,581	16,312
Albion	13,053	12,968	discontin.							
Total	479,096	499,941	513,868	529,411	534,428	550,562	554,988	549,896	550,394	563,800

Amount of Duty on Fire Insurance paid by the different Country Offices in England, during each of the Eight Years ending with 1835.

Offices.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
	L.	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*
Bath Sun	1,620	1,628	1,383	1,542	1,592	1,567	1,569	1,563
Berks, Gloucester, &c. (discon.)	2,395	2,477	2,604	614				
Birmingham	6,126	6,186	6,893	7,016	7,049	7,304	7,042	7,070
Bristol	3,836	3,903	3,953	3,977	3,751	3,732	3,653	3,654
Bristol (Crown)	1,944	1,862	1,919	1,866	1,802	1,772	1,853	1,751
Bristol (Union)	2,490	2,488	2,560	2,581	2,567	2,546	2,552	2,460
Essex Economic	2,862	2,925	3,156	3,183	3,061	2,821	2,596	2,656
Essex and Suffolk	6,279	6,444	6,407	6,490	6,504	6,753	6,356	6,437
Hereford, Cambridge, &c. (discon.)	4,871	4,866	5,429	5,383				
Hants, Sussex, and Dorset	2,640	2,689	2,772	2,833	2,887	2,698	2,598	2,534
Kent	9,035	9,279	10,798	10,662	10,650	9,878	10,290	10,442
Leeds and Yorkshire	6,377	6,728	8,977	7,824	8,498	8,458	8,803	9,517
Manchester	16,178	16,703	16,787	17,350	17,532	17,726	18,318	18,654
Newcastle upon Tyne	4,755	4,943	5,093	529	5,126	2,093	5,109	5,165
New Norwich Equitable	- -	- -	1,094	1,030	1,430	1,298	1,294	1,374

* For two quarters only.

Table—*continued.*

Offices.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832	1833.	1834.	1835.
	L.	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*
Norwich Equitable	3,428	3,491	3,316	3,836	3,020	discontinued.		
Norwich Union	61,946	61,186	62,384	60,356	60,989	61,845	60,528	61,393
Reading	112	108	131	150	192	196	204	207
Salamander	4,640	4,800	4,937	5,007	5,324	5,105	5,081	4,975
Salop	2,816	2,837	2,800	2,811	2,878	2,737	2,812	2,781
Sheffield	1,746	1,804	1,922	2,066	2,067	1,952	2,056	2,144
Shields (North and South)	706	743	747	719	737	764	758	739
Suffolk (East)	5,530	5,639	5,787	6,377	6,213	5,445	5,117	5,221
Suffolk (West)	5,989	6,120	6,376	6,961	6,956	6,199	5,781	5,868
West of England	22,531	23,858	25,123	25,883	26,801	27,445	27,128	27,733
Yorkshire	2,947	3,231	3,836	4,734	5,451	5,556	5,962	6,741
Total	183,389	186,763	194,049	201,761	198,207	184,097	185,686	190,499

The Hope, Eagle, Albion, Beacon, British Commercial, Palladium, Surrey, Sussex, and Southwark, Brighton, Old Bath, Gloucestershire, Canterbury, Berks, Gloucester and Provincial, Hartford, Cambridge, and Country, and others, (in all 22 offices, chiefly those lately established,) have discontinued their fire insurance business.

IV. Insurance (Life).

That part of the business of life insurance which consists of granting annuities upon lives, is treated of under Interest and Annuities; so that we have only to treat, in this place, of the insurance of sums payable at the death of the insurers or their nominees.

Suppose an individual of a given age wishes to insure 100*l.* payable at his death, the single premium, or the series of annual premiums, he ought to pay an office for such insurance, must plainly depend on the expectation of life of such individual, and on the rate of interest or nett profit which the insurers may make by investing the premiums.

With respect to the first of these conditions, or the *expectation of life*, it is usual in estimating it to have recourse to Tables framed from the mortality observed to take place in particular cities or districts, as in Northampton, Carlisle, &c.—(See Interest and Annuities.) But though the actual decrement and expectation of life among an average population, at every year of their lives, were accurately determined, it is doubtful whether it would form a fair basis for an insurance office to proceed upon. The general opinion seems to be, that insured lives are decidedly above the average; for insurance offices invariably profess to act on the principle of rejecting bad lives or of making them pay a proportional increase of premium; and it may, besides, it is said, be fairly presumed that persons insuring their lives are of a superior class, and are not, generally speaking, engaged in those manual and laborious occupations that are esteemed most injurious to health. But, on the other hand, the friends of parties whose lives are supposed to be bad, and the parties themselves, are most anxious they should be insured. It is also far from being an uncommon practice, for certain individuals to prevail on persons whom they happen to know, or believe to be bad lives to insure; and then to get a legal assignment of the policy in their favour, on their giving the "men of straw" a bonus for their share in the fraud. At all events, there can be no question that large numbers of such lives are perpetually offered for insurance; and every individual conversant with the business knows that, in despite of all precautions, policies are very frequently effected upon them. Mr. Milne, on whose judgment every reliance may be placed, states distinctly that "all the caution and selection which the offices in general can exercise, is necessary to keep the lives insured up to the average goodness of the bulk of the population."—(*Ency. Brit.* new ed. art. *Annuities.*) Since the competition among the different offices became so very keen as it has been of late years, there are but few lives so bad that they will not be taken by one office or another; and we doubt, were the results of their experience made public, whether it would be found that there is much foundation for the opinion as to the superiority of insured lives.

With respect to the second condition in valuing an insurance, or the rate at which the interest of money may be estimated, it is impossible to arrive at any thing like accurate conclusions. At an average, perhaps, transactions in life insurance may extend over a period of 30 years from the time when they are entered into; and in such a lengthened term the greatest changes may take place in the rate of profit and the rate of interest. Mr. Finlaison, of the National Debt Office, appears to think that 4½ per cent. may be taken as the true average rate in this country; and that 4½ is a rate at which no loss need be apprehended.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 289. Sess. 1835.) But this is not a point on which (as Mr. Finlaison seems to suppose) previous experience can be safely depended upon in forming engagements for the future; and were this the proper place for entering upon such discussions, we think we could assign pretty solid grounds for concluding that no institution, intended to last for the next half century, would be warranted in reckoning upon realising more than 3 per cent. upon its investments. We should look upon this as the *maximum*, and of course could expect nothing but ruin to fall upon any institution founded upon the hypothesis of realising 4½ per cent. of interest. At the same time, we would not be understood as laying any undue stress upon this opinion; and are ready to admit that there must always be more of conjecture than of certainty in such conclusions.

Security being the principal object to be aimed at by every insurance office established on sound principles, they would not act wisely, if they did not calculate their premiums considerably higher than may appear necessary to those who look only at what has taken place during the last 30 or 40 years. Societies contracting prospective engagements that may extend for half a century or more, are exposed to innumerable unforeseen contingencies; and they would be highly censurable, and altogether unworthy of the public confidence, were they so to conduct their affairs, that they might be liable to serious embarrassments from fluctuation in the rate of interest, or an increase of sickness, or any other cause. The success that has hitherto attended the Equitable, and some of the long-established offices, must not be taken as any criterion of what may befall them and others during the next 100 years. Mr. Morgan, the late able actuary of the Equitable, in his account of the rise and progress of that institution, published in 1828, has satisfactorily shown that its peculiar prosperity was been in a very great degree owing to circumstances which cannot possibly occur again. The premium, for example, charged by the Society, so late as 1771, for insuring 100*l.* on the life of a person aged 30, was 4*l.* 1*s.* 5½*d.*, whereas it is now only 2*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*; and there was a corresponding difference in the premiums for the other ages.—(p. 36.) But the excessive magnitude of the premiums was not the only extraordinary source of profit enjoyed by this Society in the earlier part of its career. We learn from the same unquestionable authority, that *half the insurances made during the first twenty-five years of the Society's existence were abandoned by the insurers*, in many cases, after the premiums upon them had been paid for a considerable number of years, *without any valuable consideration being given for them by the Society!*—(p. 38.) So copious a source of profit was alone adequate to enrich any society; but such things rarely occur now,—people are become too familiar with life insurance, and sales of policies are of too frequent occurrence, to allow any office to realise any thing considerable in this way. Now, we ask, can any one who takes these facts into view, and couples them with the frugal and

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cautious management which has hitherto always distinguished the Equitable Society, be surprised at its success? and can any thing be more absurd than to appeal to its experience in casting the horoscope of the societies that have sprung into existence within the last few years. But, independently of these considerations, there are other circumstances sufficient to account for the great success of some of the old offices. Since the close of the American war, a very decided diminution has taken place in the rate of mortality; the public tranquillity has neither been disturbed by foreign invasion nor intestine commotion; we have not been once visited by any epidemic disorder; and the investments in the funds, during the war made at from 50 to 60, may now be realised at from 80 to 90. We do not presume to say that circumstances may not be even more advantageous for the insurance offices during the next half century; but we should not, certainly, think very highly of the prudence of those who proceeded to insure on such an assumption. Security, we take leave again to repeat, is, in life insurance, the paramount consideration. It is, we believe, admitted on all hands, that the premiums were at one time too high; but we doubt whether the tendency at present be not to sink them too low. A great relaxation has taken place, even in the most respectable offices, as to the selection of lives. And the advertisements daily appearing in the newspapers, and the practices known to be resorted to in different quarters to procure business, ought to make every prudent individual consider well what he is about before he decides upon the office with which he is to insure. Attractive statements, unless where they emanate from individuals of unquestionable character and science, ought not to go for much. Life insurance is one of the most deceptive of businesses; and offices may for a long time have all the appearance of prosperity, which are, notwithstanding, established on a very insecure foundation. If a man insure a house or a ship with a society, or an individual, of whose credit he gets doubtful, he will forthwith insure somewhere else. But life insurance is quite a different affair. The bargain is one that is not to be finally concluded for, perhaps, 50 years; and any inability on the part of an establishment in extensive business to make good its engagements, would be productive of a degree of misery not easy to be imagined.

Life insurance companies are divided into three classes. The first class consists of joint stock companies, who undertake to pay *fixed* sums upon the death of the individuals insuring with them; the profits made by such companies being wholly divided among the proprietors. Of this class are the Royal Exchange, the Sun, the Globe, &c. The second class are also joint stock companies, with proprietary bodies; but instead of undertaking, like the former, to pay certain specified sums upon the death of the insured, they allow the latter to participate to a certain extent, along with the proprietors, in the profits made by the business. The mode in which this sort of *mixed* companies allot the profit granted to the insured, is not the same in all; and in some, the principle on which the allotment is made is not disclosed. The Rock, Alliance, Guardian, Atlas, &c. belong to this mixed class. The third species of company is that which is formed on the basis of mutual insurance. In this sort of company there is no proprietary body distinct from the insured; the latter share among themselves the whole profits of the concern, after deducting the expenses of management. The Equitable Society, the Amicable, the Norwich Life, &c. belong to this class.

The advantage to a person insuring in any one office as compared with another, must plainly depend on a comparison between the premiums demanded, the conditions of the policy, and, above all, the security which it holds out. It may appear, on a superficial view, as if the mutual insurance companies would be in all respects the most eligible to deal with, inasmuch as they have no proprietors to draw away any share of the profits from the insured. It is doubtful, however, whether this advantage be not more than balanced by disadvantages incident to such establishments. Every one being a partner in the concern, has not only his own life insured, but is part insurer of the lives of all the other members; and may, in this capacity, should the affairs of the society get into disorder, incur some very serious responsibilities. The management, too, of such societies, is very apt to get into the hands of a junto; and to be conducted without the greater number of those interested knowing any thing of the matter. There is, also, considerable difficulty, in constituting such societies, in distinguishing clearly between the rights of old and new members: for, supposing a society to be prosperous, it is but reasonable that those who have belonged to it while it has accumulated a large fund, should object to new entrants participating in this advantage. But the affairs of a society conducted in this way, or making distinctions in the rights of the members during a long series of years, could hardly fail of becoming at last exceedingly complicated: nor is it, indeed, at all improbable that the conflicting claims of the parties in some of the societies of this sort now in existence, may ultimately have to be adjusted in the courts of law, or by an act of the legislature.

Supposing the premiums demanded by the societies which retain the whole profits to themselves, to be fairly proportioned to the values insured, we should be inclined to think that they are, on the whole, the most advisable to insure in. The subscribed capital of such associations as the Royal Exchange, Sun, Globe, Scottish Union, &c., and the wealth of the partners (which is all liable, except in the case of the chartered companies, to the claims of the insured), afford unquestionable security. Individuals dealing with them know exactly what they are about. They know the precise premiums they will have to pay, and the exact amount of the sums that will be paid to their assignees in the event of their death. They incur no responsibility of any kind whatever. For, unless some very unprecedented and unlooked-for change should take place in the condition of the country, they may reckon with certainty on the terms of the policy being fulfilled to the letter.

But, as already observed, every thing depends, in matters of this sort, on a comparison of the premium with the advantages to be realised. And where the premiums are believed, either through carelessness, or intentionally, in order to provide for the safety of the establishment, to be a little too high, it may be more expedient, perhaps, to deal with a mixed company. The subscribed capital and fortunes of the proprietary body afford a guarantee on which the public may depend in dealing with any *respectable* company of this sort; while, by receiving a share of the profits, the insured gain by the flourishing condition of the association, and it is of less consequence to them though the premiums should be too high.

It should, however, be borne in mind, that an individual insuring with a mixed company, on condition of his getting a proportion of the profits, becomes a *partner of such company*; and being so, incurs responsibilities. In dealing with such associations as the Alliance, the Rock, and a few others, this responsibility can hardly be said to amount to any thing. But there are companies of this class in the field, and holding out very tempting baits to the unwary, those insured in which may find, at some future period, that this responsibility is by no means a light matter.

A highly respectable company of this mixed class, with a large subscribed capital,—the Guardian,—inserts in all its policies the following condition, viz.—"That the responsibility of the individual members shall, in all cases, be limited to their respective shares." It may be doubted whether this condition be good in law; but if it be, it materially affects the security afforded by the Company, which otherwise would justly claim a place in the very first class of offices. As no one attempts to secure himself against a contingency which he is satisfied cannot happen, the existence of a condition of this sort implies a doubt, on the part of the proprietary body, of the perfect solidity of the establishment. Such a doubt may be, and we believe really is, very ill-founded; but the public will, most likely, be inclined to think that the proprietors ought to know better than any one else. The Albion Fire and Life Insurance Company also inserts in its policies a condition to the same effect.

The allotment of profit to the insured made by the mixed companies, is sometimes effected by a diminution of the premiums, and sometimes by increasing the sum in the policy; and individuals should, in dealing with such societies, select, other things being equal, the association with which to insure, according as they wish to insure a larger sum, or to get the premiums reduced.

We subjoin, from Mr. Babbage's work on *Life Assurances*,* the following statement of the terms of the various mixed companies, as to the division of profits with the insured. They are, for the most part, exceedingly vague. We also subjoin an account of the conditions, in respect of profits, under which new entrants are admitted into the Equitable.

Alliance.—At the periods of participation of the company in the profits of its concerns, every policy for the whole term of life, which shall have paid 5 entire annual premiums, shall, if the allowance be made in reduction of annual premium, be entitled to such reduction from the original charge, as shall then, and from time to time, be declared; but if the allowance be in addition to the amount assured, that addition shall also be continually declared from time to time.

Persons assuring their own lives have the option of declaring, at the time of effecting the assurance, whether they will participate in the profits by an addition to their policy, or by a reduction of premium.

Atlas.—Persons assuring for the whole term of life for 100*l.* and upwards, in Great Britain and Ireland respectively, will be entitled, at the end of every 7th year, to participate in the surplus premiums, to be then ascertained by actual valuation.

Asylum.—The directors have power to divide such portion of the profits quinquennially, as may not improdently check the growth of the funds intended for the benefit of the assured.

Crown.—Two thirds of such profits as shall periodically be declared divisible, will be apportioned amongst assurers for the whole term of life, and may be applied to the reduction of the future annual premium, or to the increase of the sum assured, as may be desired.

Economic.—At present 3-4ths of the savings and profits divided amongst the assured entitled to participate therein, by additions to their policies, proportioned to their respective contributions, and in order to afford them the immediate benefit of such additions, interest thereon applied annually in reduction of their premiums.

Equitable.—That in case any prospective addition shall hereafter be ordered to be made to the claims upon policies of assurance in this Society, such order shall not take effect with respect to any policy granted after the 31st of December, 1816, until the assurances existing in this Society prior in number and date to such policy, and if of the same date, prior in the number thereof, shall be reduced to 5,000; but as soon as such reduction shall have been ascertained, in manner hereinafter mentioned, the said policy shall be within the effect and operation of the order for such addition, as to the payments made thereon subject to such ascertained reduction; so that if such order should be made to take effect generally from the 1st of January, 1820, for the space of 10 years then next following, a policy effected in the year 1817, shall not be within the operation of such order, until the assurances existing prior to the number and date of the policy, as aforesaid, shall have been reduced to 5,000; but such policy shall be within the operation thereof from the time when the reduction shall have been ascertained, in manner hereinafter mentioned, as to the payments made thereon subsequent to such ascertained reduction. And the like as to other cases. And this by-law shall be considered as a part of every such order, and shall be virtually incorporated therein, although the same may not be thereby, expressly referred to.

That in case any retrospective addition shall hereafter be ordered to be made to claims upon policies of assurance in this Society, such order shall not take effect with respect to any policy granted after the 31st of December, 1816, until the assurances existing in the Society prior in number and date, and if of the same date, prior in the number thereof, shall be reduced to 5,000; but when the said reduction shall have been ascertained in manner hereinafter mentioned, such policy shall be within the effect and operation, and entitled to the benefit of such order, with respect to every payment made thereon subsequent to such ascertained reduction; so that if such order shall be made to take effect generally as to payments made before the 1st of January 1820, a policy effected in the year 1817 shall not be within the effect and operation thereof, unless the life assured shall exist, and the payments continue to be made, until the assurances existing in the society prior to the number and date of the policy, as aforesaid, shall be reduced to 5,000: but as soon as such reduction shall have been ascertained, in manner hereinafter mentioned, such policy shall be within the effect and operation of such order for the several payments made thereon as aforesaid. And the like as to other cases. And this by-law shall be considered as a part of every such order, and be virtually incorporated therein, although the same may not be thereby expressly referred to.

That an inquiry be made on the first of April in every year, in order to ascertain the number of assurances made and existing in the Society; and when it shall have been ascertained by such inquiry that the assurances existing prior to the 1st of January, 1817, were, on the 31st of December, immediately preceding such inquiry, reduced below the number of 5,000, the actuary do report the same to the court of directors, who shall communicate such report to the quarterly general court, to be holden in the June following; and that as many of such policies as had been made subsequent to the 31st of December, 1816, and which were existing in the Society on the 31st of December immediately preceding such inquiry, be added, according to the priority in their dates and numbers, and if of the same date, according to the priority in their numbers, to those above mentioned, as shall be sufficient to complete the number to 5,000; and that the persons holding the policies so added, shall be considered thenceforward as entitled to such additions as shall be thereafter made in respect of all the payments made subsequent to such ascertained reduction, and under the same restrictions, to the same privileges of attending at the general courts, and of being eligible to the office of director.

That after the vacant numbers in the assurances existing in the Society on the 1st of January, 1817, shall have been filled up agreeably to the foregoing order, the actuary on the 1st of April in every succeeding year, do ascertain the vacancies which have taken place in the preceding year in the policies constituting the 5,000 mentioned in the 6th resolution, and report the same to the court of directors, who shall communicate such report to the quarterly general court in the month of June following; and that as many policies shall be added, according to the priority of their dates and numbers, and if of the same date, according to the priority in their numbers, as shall be sufficient to complete the number to 5,000; and that the persons holding those policies shall thenceforward be considered as entitled to such additions as shall be thereafter made in respect of all payments made subsequent to the 31st of the preceding December, and, under the same restrictions, to the same privileges of attending the general courts, and being eligible to the office of director.

Provided that nothing hereby ordered shall be construed to authorise an addition to the sum assured by any policy, upon which policy the number of payments required in that respect by the present bylaws of the Society shall not have been made.

N. B.—These by-laws require that 6 annual payments at the least shall have been made before any addition to a claim can take place; and when such payments shall have been made, the party will be qualified to be received, in his turn, into the number of persons entitled to additions as aforesaid.

European.—The profits derived by this Company are distributed amongst the several persons connected with the establishment, according to the contingency or certainty of the contract.

Life insurers derive an immediate benefit by the reduction of the premiums generally taken with the prospect of a liberal addition to their policies, or a further reduction of the premium, in 10 years.

Guardian.—Persons assured for the whole term of life will be entitled at the end of every 7 years to participate in the profits of the Company, after a deduction of such sum per annum, for the guaranty of the capital, as the directors may think reasonable; the extent of which is, however, limited by the deed of settlement.

The share of the profits to be so allowed to the insured, may either be added to the amount of their respective policies, or the value thereof be applied in reduction of the premiums hereafter to be payable on such policies, provided such option be declared in writing within 3 calendar months next after the dividend shall have been declared; but if such option be not declared, such share of profits will be added to the amount of policies.

Hope.—Every person effecting a policy of insurance at this office, is entitled to a participation in the profits, equally with the proprietors of the Company, after a moderate deduction for the guaranty and the expenses of management.

Imperial.—Upon every policy effected for the whole term of life, the assured will participate in the profits of the Company, by having periodical additions made to the sums insured to the amount of 2-3d parts of such clear gains and profits.

Law Life.—At stated periods, the surplus of the fund arising from the premiums of assurance, and their accumulation beyond what may be thought necessary to answer the expected claims upon the Society, will be ascertained; and as large a portion of the savings as may be deemed consistent with the security of the institution, will be divided between the proprietors and the assured in the following manner:—1-9th will be transferred to the proprietors' guaranty fund; and every assurance, equivalent to the remaining 8-9ths, will be added to the policies of those who shall have been 3 years assured for the whole term of life.

London Life Association.—The distinguishing principle of this Society is, that the benefits resulting from its transactions shall be enjoyed by the members during life, so as to render life assurance as easy to the assured, as a due regard to security will admit.

Medical and Clerical.—Persons assured for the whole term of life will be entitled to share with the original proprietors the general profits of the business, in proportion to the amount of their respective assurances.

Norwich Union.—The whole of the surplus premiums is added at stated periods to the policies of the members, in proportion to the sums they have respectively contributed.

Palladium.—A general investigation of the affairs of the Society is to take place every 7th year, when 5-8ths of the declared profit of the life department will be appropriated by way of bonus or addition, to be placed to the credit of the policies then in force for the whole term of life, upon the most equitable principles of division.

Rock.—That the said bonus shall be short of the actual surplus profits at the time of making the same, by the sum of 5,000*l.* at least.

That the bonus so declared shall be divided into 3 equal parts.

That one of the said parts shall be added to and consolidated with the subscription capital stock. (This is the proprietors' fund.)

That the remaining 2-3ds be allotted to the policies in the manner described in the deed.

That the sum to which any person assured by the Company may become entitled under any such distribution, shall be paid by the Company without interest, at the time when the sum assured by the policy shall become payable, and not before.

Union.—Those who assure with this Company will participate with the proprietors in the profits of the establishment, which will be added every 7 years to the respective policies.

United Empire.—Persons effecting assurances for the whole continuance of life, will, at the end of the first 5 years, and of every subsequent 5 years, be entitled to participate in whatever net surplus profits it may be declared by the directors expedient to divide.

Two-fifths of the aforesaid profits will be divided amongst the said assured, in proportion to the premiums they may respectively have paid, and will, at their option, be either added to the amount of their policies, or applied in reduction of their future premiums.

University.—As it is intended that the capital advanced shall be repaid to the shareholder, with a bonus of 100*l.* per cent., 1-10th of the profits, when ascertained by a valuation of all existing risks, will every 5 years be applied to form a fund for that purpose.

The remaining 9-10ths of the profits to be divided between the

* This work of Mr. Babbage contains a good deal of useful information, intermixed, however, with not a few errors and mis-statements. It was most ably reviewed in an article in the 90th Number of the *Edinburgh Review*.

assured and the shareholder, in the proportion of 8 parts to the former and 1 to the latter.

The profit or bonus to the assured to be given either by a diminution of the rate of premium, or by an increase of the amount of policy, at the option of the party.

In order to hinder the growth of gambling transactions upon life insurance, it was judiciously enacted, by stat. 14 Geo. 3. c. 48., that

No insurance shall be made by any person or persons, bodies politic or corporate, on the life or lives of any person or persons, on any other event or events whatsoever, where the person or persons, for whose use or benefit, or on whose account such policy or policies shall be made, *shall have no interest*, or by way of gaining or wagering; and that every insurance made contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act, shall be null and void to all intents and purposes whatsoever.—Sect. 1.

It shall not be lawful to make any policy or policies on the life or lives of any person or persons, or other event or events, *without inserting in such policy or policies, the name or names of the person or persons interested therein, or for what use, benefit, or on whose account, such policy is so made or underwrote.* Sect. 2.

In all cases where the insured has an interest in such life or lives, event or events, no greater sum shall be recovered or received from the insurer or insurers than the amount or value of the interest of the insured in such life or lives or other event or events.—Sect. 3.

A creditor has an insurable interest in the life of his debtor; but it was decided, in a case which arose out of a policy on the life of the late Mr. Pitt, that if, after the death of a debtor whose life is insured by a creditor, and before any action is brought on the policy, the debt be paid, no action will lie.

All insurance offices either insert in their policies or refer in them to a declaration signed by the insured, setting forth his age, or the age of the party upon whom he is making an insurance; whether he has or has not had the small-pox, gout, &c.; "that he is not afflicted with any disorder that tends to the shortening of life;" that this declaration is to be the basis of the contract between him and the society; and that, if there be any untrue averment in it, all the monies paid to the society upon account of the insurance shall be forfeited to them.—(See Form, *post.*)

The condition as to the party not being afflicted with any disorder that tends to the shortening of life is vague, and has given rise to a good deal of discussion. But it is now settled that this condition is sufficiently complied with, if the insured be in a reasonably good state of health; and though he may be afflicted with some disease, yet, if it can be shown that this disease does not tend to shorten life, and was not, in fact, the cause of the party's death, the insurer will be exonerated: "Such a warranty," says Lord Mansfield, "can never mean, that a man has not in him the seeds of some disorder. We are all born with the seeds of mortality in us. The only question is, whether the insured was in a *reasonably good state of health*, and such a life as ought to be insured on common terms."—(See *Marshall on Insurance*, book iii.; *Park on Insurance*, c. 22.)

Policies of life insurance must be on stamped paper, the duty being as follows—viz.			
Where the sum in the policy shall not amount to 500*l.*			1*l.*
Where it shall amount to 500*l.* and not to 1,000*l.*			2*l.*
— —	1,000*l.* —	3,000*l.*	3*l.*
— —	3,000*l.* —	5,000*l.*	4*l.*
— —	5,000*l.* and upwards		5*l.*

We subjoin a statement of the terms and conditions on which the Sun Life Assurance and Equitable Societies transact business, and a copy of one of the policies of the former upon the life of a person aged 30, insuring his own life for 1,000*l.* The conditions of most of the other societies are similar, and may be learned by any one, on applying either at the head offices in town, or at their agents' in the country. The premiums demanded by the principal offices are exhibited in the annexed Table.

Sun Life.—An insurance for a term of years, or for the whole continuance of life, is a contract on the part of the office to continue the assurance during that term, on the payment of a certain annual premium, but the assured may drop it, whenever the end is answered for which the assurance was made.

The person whose life is proposed for assurance, is required to appear either before the managers at the office in London, or before an agent in the country; in default of which the non-appearance fine must be paid when the assurance is effected; which, when the term is 1 year, is 10*s.* for every 100*l.* assured. When the term exceeds 1 year, but does not exceed 7 years, it is 15*s.* for every 100*l.* And when the term exceeds 7 years, the fine is 1 per cent.

Reference to be made to 2 persons of repute, to ascertain the identity of the person appearing.

Any premium remaining unpaid more than 15 days after the time stipulated in the policy, such policy becomes void; but the defaulter producing satisfactory proof to the managers, of the health of the person on whose life the assurance was made, and paying the said premium within 3 calendar months, together with the additional sum of 10*s.* upon every 100*l.* assured by such policy, then such policy is revived, and continues in force.

Conditions of Assurances made by Persons on their own Lives.

The assurance to be void, if the person whose life is assured shall depart beyond the limits of Europe; shall die upon the seas (except in any whole-decked vessel or steam-boat in passing between any one part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, including the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Sark, and any other part thereof); or in passing between any port of the said United Kingdom, and any port on the continent of Europe between Hamburgh and Bordeaux, both inclusive); or shall enter into or engage in any military or naval service whatsoever, without the previous consent of the Society; or shall die by suicide, duelling, or the hands of justice; or shall not be, at the time the assurance is made, in good health.

Conditions of Assurance made by Persons on the Lives of others.

The party on whose behalf the assurance is made, must be interested in the life of the other to the full amount assured thereon.

The assurance to be void, if the person whose life is assured shall depart beyond the limits of Europe; shall die upon the seas (except in any whole decked vessel or steam-boat in passing between any one part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, including the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Sark, and any other part thereof; or in passing between any port in the said United Kingdom, and any port on the continent of Europe between Hamburgh and Bordeaux, both inclusive); or shall enter into or engage in any military or naval service whatsoever, without the previous consent of the Society; or shall not be, at the time the assurance is made, in good health.

Assurances on the lives of persons engaged in the army or navy, or going beyond the limits of Europe, may be made by special agreement.

All claims are paid within 3 months after certificates (according to the required forms) of the death and burial of the deceased are approved by the managers.

Form of a Proposal for Assurance.

Name, and rank or profession of the life to be assured.
Present residence.
Place of birth.
Date of birth.
Age next birthday.
Sum.
Term.
Reference to a medical practitioner, to ascertain the present and ordinary state of health of the person whose Life is proposed to be assured.
Has he ever had gout or asthma, or any fit or fits?
Has he ever been afflicted with rupture?
Has he ever exhibited any symptom of consumption of the lungs?
Is he afflicted with any disorder tending to shorten life?
Has he had the small-pox or the cow-pox?
Whether the person whose life is proposed to be assured, intends to appear at the office?
In whose name or behalf the policy is desired?
Date of proposal.
Annual notices to be sent to

Form of Declaration to be made and signed by or on behalf of a Person making an Assurance on his or her own Life.

I
born in the parish of
in the county of
on the day of
and now residing at
in the county of
being desirous of making an assurance with the managers for the Sun Life Assurance Society, in the sum of *L.*
upon and for the continuance of my own life, for the term of
Do hereby declare, that my age does not exceed years; that I have had the * that I have had the gout, asthma, rupture, nor any fit or fits, and that I am not afflicted with any disorder which tends to the shortening of life; and this declaration is to be the basis of the contract between me and the Society; and if any untrue averment is contained in this declaration, in setting forth my age, state of health, profession, occupation, or circumstances, then all monies which shall have been paid to the said Society, upon account of the assurance so made by me, shall be forfeited. Dated the day of 18

Form of Declaration to be made and signed by or on behalf of a Person who proposes to make an Assurance on the life of another.

I
now resident at
in the county of being
desirous of assuring with the Sun Life Assurance Society, for the sum of *L.* for the term of on the life of born in the parish of in the county of on the day of in the year and now resident at in the county of Do declare, that I have an interest in the life of the said to the full amount on the said sum of *L.* ; that to the best of

* Insert small-pox or cow-pox, as the case may require.

Westminster.—By a regulation taking effect from the 9th of May, 1843, this Society makes a positive addition of 10 per cent. every 10th year to all sums insured on single lives, for the whole term of life, by policies insured after that date.



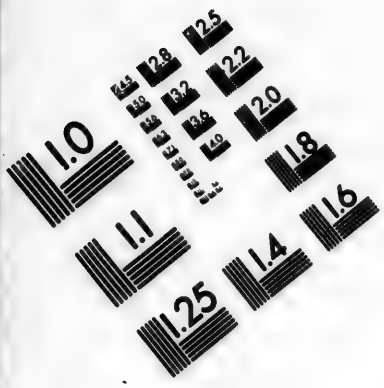
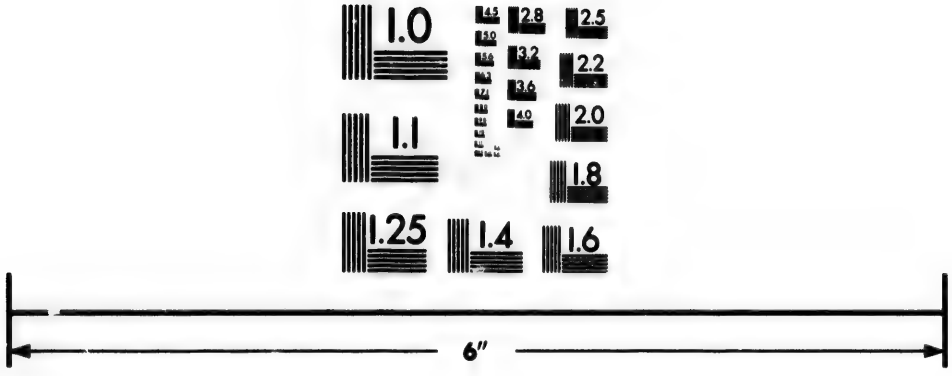
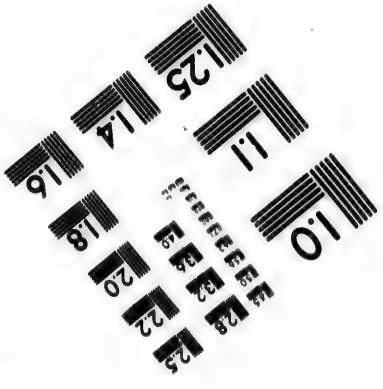




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my knowledge and belief the age of the said does not exceed years; that he has had the * that he had the gout, asthma, rupture, nor any fit or fits, and that he is not afflicted with any disorder tending to shorten life; and this declaration is to be the basis of the contract between me and the said Society; and if there be any untrue averment therein, all monies which shall have been paid in the Society upon account of the assurance made in consequence thereof, shall be forfeited. Dated the day of 18 .

* Insert small-pox or cow-pox, as the case may require.

Policy by the Sun Life Assurance Society for 1,000*l.*, *on the Life of A. B., aged Thirty, insuring his own Life*

No. ——

SUN LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY.

THIS POLICY OF ASSURANCE WITNESSETH, that, whereas A. B. Esq. of —— Square, London, being desirous of making an assurance upon his own life, for the whole duration thereof, and having subscribed, or caused to be subscribed, and delivered into this office, a declaration setting forth his ordinary and present state of health, wherein it is declared that the age of the said A. B. did not then exceed 30 years; and having paid to the managers for the Sun Life Assurance Society, at their office in Cornhill, in the city of London, the sum of twenty-four pounds eleven shillings and eight pence sterling, as a consideration for the assurance of the sum under-mentioned for *one year*, from the twentieth day of January, 1834.

NOW KNOW ALL MEN BY THESE PRESENTS, that in case the said assured shall happen to die at any time within the term of *one year*, as above set forth, the stock and funds of this Society shall be subject and liable to pay and make good to the executors, administrators, or assigns, of the said assured, within three months after the demise of the said assured shall have been duly certified to the managers aforesaid, at their said office, the sum of one thousand pounds sterling, of lawful money of Great Britain.

It is hereby agreed, that this policy may continue in force from *year* to *year*, until the expiration of the term first above-mentioned, provided that the said assured shall duly pay, or cause to be paid, to the managers, at their said office, on or before the nineteenth day of October next ensuing, the sum of twenty-four pounds eleven shillings and eight pence sterling, and the like sum annually, on or before the day aforesaid; which annual payments shall be accepted, at every such period, as a full consideration for such assurance.

And it is hereby further agreed, that the assurance by this policy shall be extended during peace, to the risk of the above-named A. B. Esq. dying upon the sea in any whole-decked vessel or steamboat, in passing between any one part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, including the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Sark, and any other part thereof; or in passing between any port in the said United Kingdom, and any port on the continent of Europe, between Hamburgh and Bordeaux, both inclusive.

PROVIDED NEVERTHELESS, that should the said assured depart beyond the limits of Europe, die upon the seas (except as above stated), or engage in any military or naval service whatsoever, within the term for which this policy is granted; or should the assurance have been obtained through any misrepresentation of the age, state of health, or description of the assured; or should the said assured die by duelling, suicide, or the hands of justice; then this policy, and every thing appertaining thereto, shall cease, be void, and of none effect.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, we, three of the managers for the said Society, have hereunto set our hands and seals, this twentieth day of January, 1834.

C. D. (L. S.)
F. F. (L. S.)
G. H. (L. S.)

Signed, sealed, and delivered, being first duly stamped. J. K.

TABLE OF PREMIUMS.

The following tabular statement shows the premiums demanded by the principal Life Insurance Societies for insuring 100*l.* at every different age from 15 to 60, for the whole term of life.

Age.	Alliance and Sun.	Amicable.	Asylum.	British Commercial.	Crown.	Economic.	Equitable.	Eagle. Male.	Eagle. Female.	European.	Guardian.
	L. s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.
15	1 12 8	1 15 6	1 7 9	1 10 0	1 15 9	1 10 8	1 18 7	1 18 9	- - -	1 13 7	1 16 3
16	1 13 6	1 16 6	1 8 6	1 11 0	1 16 7	1 11 5	1 19 3	1 19 7	- - -	1 14 5	1 17 2
17	1 14 3	1 17 6	1 9 3	1 12 0	1 17 6	1 12 3	2 0 0	2 0 6	- - -	1 15 4	1 18 3
18	1 15 1	1 18 6	1 10 1	1 13 0	1 18 5	1 13 0	2 1 0	2 1 6	- - -	1 16 2	1 19 2
19	1 16 0	1 19 6	1 10 11	1 14 0	1 19 4	1 13 10	2 2 0	2 2 6	- - -	1 17 1	2 0 1
20	1 16 11	2 0 6	1 11 9	1 15 0	1 19 11	1 14 7	2 2 9	2 3 0	1 12 7	1 18 1	2 1 0
21	1 17 11	2 1 6	1 12 7	1 16 0	2 0 10	1 15 5	2 4 6	2 4 0	1 13 5	1 19 0	2 1 10
22	1 18 11	2 2 6	1 13 6	1 17 0	2 1 9	1 16 3	2 5 4	2 5 0	1 14 4	1 19 11	2 2 8
23	2 0 1	2 3 6	1 14 5	1 18 0	2 2 9	1 17 2	2 6 3	2 6 0	1 15 4	2 0 10	2 3 6
24	2 1 3	2 4 6	1 15 5	1 19 0	2 3 8	1 18 1	2 7 1	2 7 0	1 16 5	2 1 10	2 4 5
25	2 2 6	2 5 6	1 16 5	2 0 0	2 4 10	1 19 0	2 8 1	2 8 0	1 17 6	2 2 9	2 5 4
26	2 3 9	2 6 6	1 17 6	2 1 0	2 5 10	2 0 0	2 9 1	2 9 0	1 18 6	2 3 9	2 6 4
27	2 4 9	2 7 6	1 18 6	2 2 0	2 6 11	2 1 0	2 10 1	2 11 0	1 19 9	2 4 10	2 7 4
28	2 6 7	2 8 6	1 19 8	2 3 0	2 8 1	2 2 0	2 11 1	2 12 6	2 0 9	2 5 10	2 8 4
29	2 7 11	2 9 6	2 0 10	2 4 0	2 9 2	2 3 1	2 12 3	2 13 7	2 1 8	2 6 11	2 9 5
30	2 9 2	2 10 6	2 2 0	2 5 0	2 10 4	2 4 2	2 13 5	2 15 0	2 2 8	2 8 1	2 10 7
31	2 10 6	2 11 6	2 3 3	2 6 0	2 11 6	2 5 3	2 14 7	2 16 6	2 3 4	2 9 3	2 11 10
32	2 11 10	2 12 6	2 4 6	2 7 0	2 12 8	2 6 4	2 15 9	2 18 0	2 4 5	2 10 6	2 13 0
33	2 13 4	2 14 0	2 5 10	2 8 0	2 14 0	2 7 6	2 17 2	2 19 9	2 4 4	2 11 10	2 14 4
34	2 14 11	2 15 6	2 7 2	2 9 0	2 15 4	2 8 8	2 18 5	3 1 0	2 5 4	2 13 2	2 15 8
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37	3 0 4	3 0 0	2 11 10	2 14 0	2 19 10	2 14 2	3 2 10	3 7 2	2 9 0	2 17 6	3 0 0
38	3 2 4	3 1 6	2 13 6	2 16 0	3 1 6	2 16 11	3 4 6	3 9 0	2 10 0	2 19 1	3 1 7
39	3 4 6	3 3 0	2 15 2	2 18 0	3 3 2	2 17 9	3 6 2	3 11 0	2 11 0	3 0 8	3 3 3
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41	3 8 7	3 7 6	2 19 0	3 2 6	3 6 3	3 1 10	3 9 9	3 17 6	2 13 0	3 4 3	3 6 9
42	3 10 9	3 10 0	3 1 0	3 5 0	3 8 0	3 4 1	3 11 8	4 1 0	2 14 0	3 6 0	3 8 6
43	3 12 11	3 12 6	3 3 2	3 8 0	3 10 0	3 6 6	3 13 8	4 4 4	2 15 3	3 8 3	3 10 9
44	3 15 2	3 15 0	3 5 4	3 11 0	3 12 8	3 9 0	3 15 9	4 7 11	2 16 7	3 10 5	3 12 11
45	3 17 6	3 18 0	3 7 8	3 14 0	3 15 0	3 11 9	3 17 11	4 11 8	2 18 0	3 12 7	3 15 1
46	4 0 6	4 1 0	3 10 0	3 17 0	3 17 6	3 14 7	4 0 2	4 15 9	2 19 5	3 14 10	3 17 3
47	4 3 5	4 4 0	3 12 11	4 0 0	4 0 1	3 17 5	4 2 7	5 0 0	3 0 9	3 17 5	4 0 1
48	4 6 6	4 8 0	3 15 9	4 3 0	4 2 11	4 0 11	4 5 1	5 4 6	3 2 0	4 0 0	4 2 4
49	4 10 8	4 12 6	3 18 9	4 6 0	4 5 10	4 4 4	4 7 10	5 9 6	3 3 6	4 2 8	4 5 1
50	4 14 5	4 16 6	4 2 0	4 9 0	4 8 11	4 8 0	4 10 8	5 14 7	3 4 4	4 5 6	4 8 0
51	4 18 9	5 0 0	4 5 6	4 12 0	4 12 1	4 11 11	4 13 6	6 0 8	3 5 3	4 8 9	4 11 0
52	5 3 9	5 4 6	4 9 2	4 15 0	4 15 3	4 16 2	4 16 4	6 6 8	3 6 4	4 11 7	4 14 2
53	5 8 9	5 9 0	4 13 0	5 0 0	4 18 6	5 0 6	4 19 7	6 12 8	3 7 5	4 14 6	4 17 5
54	5 14 1	5 18 0	4 17 7	5 5 0	5 1 11	5 5 8	5 2 10	6 19 0	3 8 6	4 17 7	5 0 11
55	5 19 11	6 2 6	5 2 2	5 10 0	5 5 7	5 10 9	5 6 4	7 7 2	3 9 8	5 0 9	5 4 8
56	6 6 4	6 8 0	5 7 4	5 15 0	5 9 8	5 15 7	5 10 1	7 15 1	3 10 6	5 3 8	5 8 7
57	6 13 2	6 14 6	5 12 9	6 0 0	5 13 9	6 1 3	5 14 0	8 3 6	4 1 7	5 6 11	5 12 10
58	7 0 8	7 0 0	5 18 4	6 5 0	5 18 0	6 7 4	5 18 2	8 12 4	4 4 0	5 10 8	6 17 4
59	7 7 9	7 7 0	6 4 6	6 10 0	6 2 8	6 13 9	6 2 8	9 1 4	4 6 7	6 0 7	6 6 2
60	7 14 11	7 14 6	6 10 9	6 15 0	6 7 7	7 0 7	6 7 4	9 15 0	4 10 4	6 5 6	6 7 5

Age.	London, Sirchia Lane.	Lond Life Membe
	L. s. d.	*L.* s.
15	- - -	
16	1 17 1	
17	1 18 1	
18	1 19 0	
19	1 19 11	
20	2 0 9	
21	2 1 5	2 4
22	2 2 0	2 5
23	2 2 7	2 6
24	2 3 1	2 7
25	2 3 8	2 8
26	2 4 3	2 9
27	2 5 1	2 10
28	2 5 11	2 11
29	2 6 10	2 12
30	2 7 10	2 13
31	2 8 10	2 14
32	2 9 11	2 16
33	2 11 1	2 17
34	2 12 4	2 18
35	2 13 8	2 19
36	2 15 1	3 1
37	2 16 8	3 2
38	2 18 2	3 4
39	2 19 11	3 5
40	3 1 8	3 7
41	3 3 6	3 10
42	3 5 6	3 12
43	3 7 8	3 14
44	3 10 0	3 16
45	3 12 6	3 18
46	3 15 2	4 0
47	3 18 2	4 2
48	4 1 5	4 4
49	4 4 10	4 7
50	4 8 5	4 11
51	4 12 3	4 14
52	4 16 1	4 17
53	5 0 1	5 0
54	5 4 2	5 4
55	5 8 4	5 8
56	5 13 6	5 14
57	5 17 2	6 19
58	6 1 10	6 6
59	6 6 10	6 9
60	6 12 2	6 15

The following offices
Law Life, London Life
Exchange, Union, West

The following are t
rances on joint lives a

Joint Lives.—A Table of
assuring One P

Age next Birthday.	Age next Birthday.	P
10	10	
	15	
	20	
	25	
	30	
	35	
	40	
	45	
	50	
	55	
	60	
15	15	
	20	
	25	
	30	
	35	
	40	
	45	
	50	
	55	
	60	
20	20	
	25	
	30	

Table of Premiums—*continued.*

Age.	London, Birchin Lane.	London, Life for Members.	Norwich.	Pelican.	Promoter.	United Empire.	University.	West of England.	Scottish Widows' Fund.	Scottish Union.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
15	. . .	. . .	1 14 9	1 11 11	1 7 11	1 14 10	1 18 9	1 14 9	1 16 6	1 11 6
16	1 17 1	. . .	1 15 9	1 12 9	1 8 8	1 15 9	1 17 9	1 15 9	1 17 6	1 12 5
17	1 18 1	. . .	1 16 9	1 13 6	1 9 5	1 16 9	1 16 8	1 16 8	1 18 6	1 13 6
18	1 19 0	. . .	1 17 8	1 14 4	1 10 1	1 17 8	1 19 7	1 17 8	1 19 7	1 14 7
19	1 19 11	. . .	1 18 6	1 15 3	1 10 11	1 18 7	2 0 7	1 18 6	2 0 7	1 15 8
20	2 0 9	. . .	1 19 5	1 16 1	1 11 8	1 19 6	2 1 5	1 19 5	2 1 6	1 16 9
21	2 1 5	2 4 6	2 0 6	1 16 10	1 12 6	2 0 5	2 2 4	2 0 0	2 2 5	1 17 9
22	2 2 0	2 5 6	2 1 5	1 17 7	1 13 5	2 1 3	2 3 1	2 0 10	2 3 3	1 18 10
23	2 2 7	2 6 6	2 2 0	1 18 4	1 14 4	2 2 1	2 4 0	2 1 8	2 4 1	1 19 10
24	2 3 1	2 7 0	2 2 9	1 19 2	1 15 3	2 2 10	2 4 6	2 2 6	2 4 11	2 0 10
25	2 3 8	2 8 0	2 3 5	2 0 1	1 16 2	2 3 8	2 5 5	2 3 3	2 5 10	2 1 10
26	2 4 3	2 9 0	2 4 3	2 1 0	1 17 1	2 4 7	2 6 4	2 4 0	2 6 10	2 2 10
27	2 5 1	2 10 0	2 5 3	2 2 0	1 18 0	2 5 6	2 7 3	2 5 0	2 7 10	2 3 10
28	2 5 11	2 11 0	2 6 3	2 3 11	1 19 11	2 6 5	2 8 2	2 5 11	2 8 11	2 4 11
29	2 6 10	2 12 6	2 7 3	2 4 10	2 1 0	2 7 4	2 9 1	2 6 10	2 10 0	2 6 1
30	2 7 10	2 13 6	2 8 10	2 6 4	2 2 2	2 9 2	2 10 9	2 8 0	2 11 1	2 7 3
31	2 8 10	2 14 6	2 10 0	2 7 7	2 3 3	2 10 4	2 11 11	2 9 0	2 12 3	2 8 5
32	2 9 11	2 16 0	2 11 1	2 8 10	2 4 5	2 11 6	2 13 0	2 10 3	2 13 6	2 9 9
33	2 11 1	2 17 0	2 12 3	2 10 2	2 5 8	2 12 9	2 14 2	2 11 5	2 14 9	2 11 1
34	2 12 4	2 18 6	2 13 6	2 11 5	2 7 1	2 14 1	2 15 6	2 12 9	2 16 1	2 12 5
35	2 13 8	3 0 0	2 14 10	2 12 5	2 8 7	2 15 6	2 16 11	2 13 10	2 17 6	2 13 10
36	2 15 1	3 1 6	2 16 2	2 13 11	2 10 1	2 16 11	2 18 4	2 15 3	2 19 0	2 15 4
37	2 16 8	3 3 0	2 17 6	2 15 10	2 11 8	2 18 4	2 19 9	2 16 8	3 0 6	2 16 11
38	2 18 2	3 4 6	2 19 0	2 17 6	2 13 3	2 19 11	3 1 4	2 18 0	3 2 1	2 18 6
39	2 19 11	3 6 0	3 0 6	2 19 3	2 14 8	3 1 6	3 2 11	2 19 6	3 3 8	2 20 0
40	3 1 8	3 8 0	3 2 0	3 2 2	2 17 0	3 3 3	3 4 7	3 1 3	3 5 6	3 1 11
41	3 3 6	3 10 0	3 3 6	3 5 2	2 18 10	3 4 10	3 6 4	3 2 10	3 7 3	3 3 9
42	3 5 6	3 12 0	3 5 3	3 7 8	3 0 8	3 6 8	3 8 1	3 4 6	3 9 3	3 5 8
43	3 7 8	3 14 6	3 7 0	3 10 4	3 2 6	3 8 6	3 10 0	3 6 3	3 11 3	3 7 7
44	3 10 0	3 16 0	3 8 6	3 13 1	3 4 6	3 10 6	3 12 0	3 8 3	3 13 4	3 9 8
45	3 12 6	3 18 0	3 11 0	3 16 1	3 6 7	3 12 10	3 14 1	3 10 3	3 15 6	3 11 10
46	3 15 2	4 0 0	3 13 3	3 18 8	3 8 11	3 15 3	3 16 2	3 12 2	3 17 9	3 14 1
47	3 18 2	4 2 6	3 16 3	4 1 6	3 11 6	3 17 9	3 18 6	3 14 3	4 0 3	3 16 6
48	4 1 6	4 5 0	3 19 6	4 4 8	3 14 3	4 0 4	4 0 10	3 16 6	4 3 6	3 19 0
49	4 4 10	4 8 0	4 2 9	4 8 2	3 17 3	4 3 6	4 4 4	3 19 3	4 6 6	4 1 7
50	4 8 5	4 11 0	4 6 0	4 12 2	4 0 8	4 6 6	4 7 6	4 1 8	4 9 4	4 4 5
51	4 12 3	4 14 0	4 9 3	4 16 7	4 4 7	4 9 9	4 10 9	4 4 3	4 11 8	4 8 1
52	4 16 1	4 17 0	4 13 3	5 1 3	4 8 3	4 13 0	4 14 1	4 7 6	4 14 8	4 12 3
53	5 0 1	5 0 6	4 17 0	5 6 4	4 13 1	4 16 6	4 17 5	4 9 9	4 17 4	4 16 5
54	5 4 2	5 5 0	5 1 0	5 11 7	4 17 10	5 0 6	5 1 4	4 12 9	5 0 3	5 0 11
55	5 8 4	5 9 6	5 5 3	6 17 4	5 2 9	5 4 6	5 5 4	4 15 9	5 4 2	5 5 9
56	5 12 8	5 14 0	5 9 6	6 2 7	5 8 4	5 8 6	5 9 7	4 19 0	5 7 11	5 10 9
57	5 17 2	5 19 0	5 13 6	6 10 4	5 14 2	5 12 6	5 14 0	5 2 6	5 11 11	5 16 1
58	6 1 10	6 4 0	5 17 6	6 17 5	6 0 4	5 17 0	5 19 2	5 6 6	6 16 1	6 1 9
59	6 6 10	6 9 6	6 2 6	7 4 6	6 6 7	6 1 9	6 2 3	5 10 6	6 0 7	6 7 10
60	6 12 2	6 15 0	6 7 8	7 11 7	6 12 10	6 7 0	6 7 4	5 14 9	6 5 4	6 14 3

The following offices require the same premiums as the Equitable; viz. Atlas, Globe, Imperial, Law Life, London Life Association (for persons not members), Palladium, Provident, Rock, Royal Exchange, Union, Westminster.

The following are the premiums demanded by the Sun Life Insurance Society, for insurances on joint lives and survivorships.

Joint Lives.—A Table of Annual Premiums payable during the Joint Continuance of Two Lives, for assuring One Hundred Pounds, to be paid as soon as either of the Two shall drop.

Age next Birthday.	Age next Birthday.	Annual Premium.	Age next Birthday.	Age next Birthday.	Annual Premium.	Age next Birthday.	Age next Birthday.	Annual Premium.
		£ s. d.			£ s. d.			£ s. d.
10	10	2 7 5	20	25	3 17 3	35	45	5 7 5
	15	2 11 0		40	4 6 1		50	6 1 11
	20	2 14 6		45	4 16 1		55	7 6 5
	25	2 19 4		50	5 11 7		60	9 0 6
	30	3 5 3		55	6 16 6			
	35	3 11 11		60	8 11 1	40	40	5 5 8
	40	4 1 1					45	5 12 10
	45	4 11 5	25	25	3 9 6		50	6 7 9
	50	5 7 2		30	3 14 10		55	7 11 8
	55	6 12 5		35	4 0 11		60	9 5 5
	60	8 6 11		40	4 9 6			
				45	4 19 3	45	45	6 1 0
15	15	2 14 5		50	5 14 7		50	6 13 11
	20	2 17 9		55	6 19 7		55	7 16 11
	25	3 2 5		60	8 13 11		60	9 9 8
	30	3 8 3						
	35	3 14 9	30	30	3 19 10	50	50	7 5 6
	40	4 3 10		35	4 5 6		55	8 7 4
	45	4 14 0		40	4 13 10		60	9 18 11
	50	5 9 8		45	5 3 2			
	55	6 14 11		50	5 16 2	55	55	9 8 2
	60	8 9 6		55	7 3 1		60	10 18 11
				60	8 17 5			
20	20	3 0 11				60	60	12 8 10
	25	3 5 4	35	35	4 10 9			
	30	3 10 11		40	4 18 6			

Survivorship.—A Table of Annual Premiums payable during the Joint Continuance of Two Lives, for assuring One Hundred Pounds, to be paid at the Decease of One Person, A., provided another, B., be then living.

Age of A., the Life to be assured.	Age of B., the Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Annual Premium. £ s. d.	Age of A., the Life to be assured.	Age of B., the Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Annual Premium. £ s. d.	Age of A., the Life to be assured.	Age of B., the Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	Annual Premium. £ s. d.
10	10	1 3 9	30	10	2 2 5	50	10	4 7 2
	20	1 4 7		20	2 2 1		20	4 7 0
	30	1 2 10		30	1 19 11		30	4 3 2
	40	1 1 6		40	1 18 6		40	4 1 7
	50	1 0 0		50	1 15 0		50	3 12 9
	60	0 18 5		60	1 12 2		60	3 1 6
	70	0 16 11		70	1 9 10		70	2 11 4
	80	0 15 7		80	1 7 4		80	2 2 2
20	10	1 9 11	40	10	2 10 7	60	10	7 8 6
	20	1 10 6		20	2 10 6		20	7 8 5
	30	1 8 10		30	2 15 4		30	7 5 3
	40	1 6 7		40	2 12 10		40	7 4 11
	50	1 4 7		50	2 6 2		50	6 17 5
	60	1 2 8		60	2 0 6		60	6 4 5
	70	1 0 9		70	1 16 2		70	5 8 8
	80	0 19 3		80	1 13 6		80	4 14 4

From the specimens of premiums in the two preceding Tables, the reader will easily judge of the proportional premiums for any combination of two ages not inserted in them.

Instead of a gross sum payable at the decease of A. provided B. be then living, a reversionary annuity on the remainder of the life of B. after the decease of A. may be insured by the payment of an annual premium during the joint continuance of the two lives; which annual premium may be learnt by application at the office.

Equitable Assurance Society.—The following is the

*Declaration required to be made and signed in the Office, by or on the Behalf of a Person * who proposes to make an Assurance on* his or her own *Life.*

I

being desirous of becoming a member of the Society for Equitable Assurances on Lives and Survivorships, and intending to make assurance in the sum of upon and for the continuance of my own life, and having perused and considered that * clause of the deed of settlement of the said Society which requires a declaration in writing of the age, state of health, and other circumstances attending the person whose life shall be proposed to be assured, do hereby declare and set forth, That my age does not exceed ; that I have had the small pox; and have had the gout; and that I am not afflicted with any disorder which tends to the shortening of life; and I do hereby agree that this declaration be the basis of the contract between the said Society and me, and that if any untrue averment is contained in this declaration, all monies which shall have been paid to the Society upon account of the assurance made in consequence thereof, shall be forfeited. Dated the day of in the year of our Lord

Form of a Proposal to be presented to a Weekly Court of Directors.

Name and profession of the life to be assured.
Place and date of birth.
Place of residence.
Age. Sum. Term.
By whom made.
To give reference to two † persons of good repute, (one, if possible, of the medical profession,) to ascertain the present and general state of health of the life to be assured.
If had the smallpox. If vaccinated.
If afflicted with the gout. If ever ruptured

* *The Clause which is referred to in the Declaration.*

That every person desirous of making assurance with the Society, shall sign or execute a declaration in writing (in the presence of one credible witness, who shall attest the same,) setting forth the age, state of health, profession, occupation, and other circumstances attending the person or persons whose life or lives shall be proposed to be assured; which declaration shall be the basis of the contract between the said Society and the person desiring to make assurance with them; in which declaration, if any artful, false, or fraudulent representations shall be used, and the same shall at any time thereafter be discovered, from thenceforth the sums which shall have been paid to the Society on account of any assurance so fraudulently obtained, shall be forfeited to the use of the Society; and all claims to be made on that behalf shall cease, determine, and be void, to all intents and purposes whatsoever.

† Parties who do not appear before the Court of Directors are required to give a reference to 3 persons for an account of the present and general state of their health.

A Table of Annual Premiums payable during the Continuance of Two Joint Lives for Assuring One Hundred Pounds, to be paid when either of the Lives shall drop.

Age.	Age.	£ s. d.	Age.	Age.	£ s. d.	Age.	Age.	£ s. d.	Age.	Age.	£ s. d.	Age.	Age.	£ s. d.
10	10	2 17 1	15	35	4 3 1	20	67	9 13 9	30	60	7 15 0	45	45	6 7 4
	15	3 1 1		40	4 10 4	25	25	4 0 10		67	9 18 1		50	6 17 9
	20	3 5 7		45	4 19 5		30	4 5 0		[illegible]	4 19 0		55	7 11 0
	25	3 9 3		50	5 11 2		35	4 10 2		[illegible]	5 5 6		60	8 9 6
	30	3 13 9		55	6 6 1		40	4 17 4		[illegible]	5 18 10		67	10 11 1
	35	3 19 6		60	7 6 0		45	5 6 2		60	6 5 0	50	50	7 7 8
	40	4 6 10		67	9 9 5		50	5 17 10		55	6 19 2		55	8 0 3
	45	4 15 11	20	20	3 13 11		55	6 12 6		60	7 18 6		60	8 18 2
	50	5 7 10		25	3 17 5		60	7 12 5		67	10 1 2		67	10 18 10
	55	6 2 8		30	4 1 9		67	9 15 9	40	40	5 11 9	55	55	8 12 2
	60	7 2 9		35	4 7 3	30	30	4 8 11		45	5 19 9		60	9 9 0
	67	9 6 3		40	4 14 6		35	4 14 1		50	6 10 8		67	11 8 5
15	15	3 5 0		45	5 3 6		40	5 0 11		55	7 4 5	60	60	10 4 9
	20	3 9 6		50	5 15 4		45	5 9 6		60	8 3 4		67	12 2 1
	25	3 13 1		55	6 10 2		50	6 1 0		67	10 5 6	67	67	13 15 8
	30	3 17 6		60	7 10 2		55	6 15 5						

An addition of 22 per cent. *computed upon the premium*, is charged upon military persons; and an addition of *eleven per cent.* on officers on half-pay, officers in the militia, fencibles, and the like levies; also on persons not having had the small-pox, or having had the gout.

Persons preferring the payment of a gross sum or single premium upon an assurance for any certain term, are chargeable in a due proportion to the annual premium for such term.

Every person making any assurance with the Society, pays 5*s.* in the name of entrance money; and if the sum assured exceeds 100*l.*, the entrance money is charged after the rate of 5*s.* for every 100*l.* But if the person upon whose life an assurance is proposed, does not appear before the directors, the entrance money is charged after the rate of 1*l.* for every 100*l.*

The following are the premiums demanded by the Equitable Society for insuring 100*l.*, or an equivalent annuity on the contingency of one life's surviving the other :—

Ages.		Premium.	Annuity equivalent to 100*l.* to be paid from the Death of the Life assured, during the Remainder of the other Life.
Life to be assured.	Life against which the Assurance is to be made.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
10	10	1 8 6	5 14 6
	20	1 9 1	6 14 10
	30	1 8 3	7 14 11
	40	1 7 8	9 5 6
	50	1 6 11	11 13 0
	60	1 6 0	15 13 5
	70	1 4 11	23 13 0
	80	1 3 4	40 10 8
20	10	1 16 6	5 6 11
	20	1 17 0	6 4 1
	30	1 15 9	7 0 6
	40	1 14 8	8 4 11
	50	1 13 6	10 1 9
	60	1 12 1	13 0 7
	70	1 10 6	18 12 8
	80	1 8 3	30 9 6
30	10	2 5 5	5 5 8
	20	2 6 0	6 2 9
	30	2 4 6	6 19 6
	40	2 2 9	8 3 8
	50	2 0 11	10 0 6
	60	1 18 10	13 0 0
	70	1 16 7	18 12 10
	80	1 13 9	30 9 3
40	10	2 19 2	5 3 6
	20	2 19 10	5 19 9
	30	2 18 2	6 16 8
	40	2 15 11	8 1 0
40	50	2 12 10	9 16 6
	60	2 9 4	12 14 2
	70	2 5 11	18 5 6
	80	2 1 10	29 19 10
50	10	4 0 11	5 1 4
	20	4 1 10	5 16 2
	30	4 0 1	6 12 2
	40	3 17 10	7 16 9
	50	3 13 10	9 12 8
	60	3 7 7	12 6 8
	70	3 1 6	17 11 5
	80	2 15 0	28 12 6
60	10	5 16 9	4 19 3
	20	5 18 1	5 12 10
	30	5 16 3	6 7 7
	40	5 14 0	7 10 10
	50	5 10 7	9 8 0
	60	5 2 4	12 5 6
	70	4 9 10	17 5 8
	80	3 17 11	27 19 10
70	10	8 1 0	4 17 8
	20	8 2 9	5 10 5
	30	8 0 10	6 4 0
	40	7 18 7	7 5 5
	50	7 15 6	9 0 6
	60	7 8 8	12 0 2
	70	6 10 8	17 1 8
	80	5 8 9	27 5 11

It is stated by Mr. Morgan, in his Account of the Equitable Society already referred to, that the number of insurances in that institution for terms of years does not much exceed *one hundredth part* of those for the whole period of life; and that the business of the office at present is almost wholly confined to the assurance of persons on *their own lives*—those on the lives of *others*, whether for terms or for continuance, being, in consequence of the commission money allowed to agents and attorneys, engrossed by the new offices.—(*Account of the Equitable Society*, p. 53.)

[The reader is referred to *Kent's Commentaries on American Law*, Lecture 48th, for information concerning the law of marine insurance in the United States,—and to the 50th Lecture of the same work for the law relating to life and fire insurances.

It is to be regretted that life insurance is so little practised in the United States. There is no country to which its benefits are more important. That country in which enterprise and activity is most rapidly developed and becomes characteristic of a people is precisely the country where the practice of life insurance accomplishes the most in alleviating calamity and in securing social comfort.

The Massachusetts Hospital Life Insurance Company was incorporated in 1818; since which time the privilege of effecting insurances upon lives has been conferred on a number of other companies. Of these the principal are the Baltimore Life Insurance Company, the Pennsylvania Company and the Girard Life Insurance and Trust Company in Philadelphia, the New York Life Insurance and Trust Company and the Farmers' Loan and Trust Company in the city of New York. It may be stated that the Girard Life Insurance and Trust Company, which commenced business in 1836, is the only one in the United States that has offered, to those who make insurance for the whole of life, a bonus, or addition to the value of their policy, after the expiration of a term of years. This practice has, in several of the London offices, contributed greatly to the benefit of both the insurers and the insured. Calculations of the earnings upon life insurance are usually made after a lapse of seven years, and a proportion of the amount is added to the policies for the whole of life.

No tables of mortality of a general nature have been constructed in the United States. It is, however, believed by those who have directed their attention to the subject, that the duration of life in the northern and middle states is equal to its duration in England and Scotland. Hence all insurances for lives have in this country been computed from the English tables, founded for the most part upon the Carlisle rates of mortality.

The American policies of insurance, when they have reference to the lives of persons in the northern states, stipulate that they shall be void if the insured enter into the military or naval service, or in the event of his dying by suicide, in a duel, or by the hands of justice. They are also declared to be void if the insured should die on the high seas, or the great lakes; or if he pass beyond the settled limits of the United States, or of the British pro-

vinces to the north of them, or south of the states of Virginia and Kentucky, without the consent of the insurers being first obtained.—*Am. Ed.*]

INTEREST AND ANNUITIES. Interest is the sum paid by the borrower of a sum of money, or of any sort of valuable produce, to the lender, for its use.

The rate of interest, supposing the security for and facility of re-possessing the principal, or sum lent, to be equal, must obviously depend on what may be made by the employment of capital in industrious undertakings, or on the rate of profit. Where profits are high, as in the United States, interest is also high; and where they are comparatively low, as in Holland and England, interest is proportionally low. In fact, the rate of interest is nothing more than the *nett* profit on capital: whatever returns are obtained by the borrower, beyond the interest he has agreed to pay, really accrue to him on account of risk, trouble, or skill, or of advantages of situation and connection.

But besides fluctuations in the rate of interest caused by the varying productiveness of industry, the rate of interest on each particular loan must, of course, vary according to the supposed solvency of the borrowers, or the degree of risk supposed to be incurred by the lender, of either not recovering payment at all, or not recovering it at the stipulated term. No person of sound mind would lend on the personal security of an individual of doubtful character and solvency, and on mortgage over a valuable estate, at the same rate of interest. Wherever there is risk, it must be compensated to the lender by a higher premium or interest.

And yet, obvious as this principle may appear, all governments have interfered with the adjustment of the terms of loans; some to prohibit interest altogether, and others to fix certain rates which it should be deemed legal to charge, and illegal to exceed. The prejudice against taking interest seems to have principally originated in a mistaken view of some enactments of the Mosaical law—(see *Michaelis on the Laws of Moses*, vol. ii. pp. 327—353. Eng. ed.), and, a statement of Aristotle, to the effect that, as money did not produce money, no return could be equitably claimed by the lender! But whatever may have been the origin of this prejudice, it was formerly universal in Christendom; and is still supported by law in all Mohammedan countries. The famous reformer, Calvin, was one of the first who saw and exposed the absurdity of such notions—(see an extract from one of his epistles in *M'Culloch's Political Economy*, 2d ed. p. 510.); and the abuses caused by the prohibition, and the growing conviction of its impolicy, soon after led to its relaxation. In 1554, a statute was passed, authorising lenders to charge 10 per cent. interest. In 1624, the legal rate was reduced to 8 per cent.; and in the reign of Queen Anne it was further reduced to 5 per cent., at which it still continues. It is enacted, by the statute (12 Ann. c. 16.) making this reduction, that "all persons who shall receive, by means of any corrupt bargain, loan, exchange, chevizance, or interest of any wares, merchandise, or other thing whatever, or by any deceitful way or means, or by any covin, engine, or deceitful conveyance for the forbearing or giving day of payment, for one whole year for their money or other thing, above the sum of 5*l.* for 100*l.* for a year, shall forfeit for every such offence, the *treble* value of the monies, or other things, so lent, bargained," &c.

It is needless to waste the reader's time by entering into any lengthened arguments to show the inexpediency and mischievous effect of such interferences. This has been done over and over again. It is plainly in no respect more desirable to limit the rate of interest, than it would be to limit the rate of insurance, or the prices of commodities. And though it were desirable, it cannot be accomplished. The real effect of all legislative enactments having such an object in view, is to increase, not diminish, the rate of interest. When the rate fixed by law is less than the market or customary rate, lenders and borrowers are obliged to resort to circuitous devices to evade the law; and as these devices are always attended with more or less trouble and risk, the rate of interest is proportionally enhanced. During the late war it was not uncommon for a person to be paying 10 or 12 per cent. for a loan, which, had there been no usury laws, he might have got for 6 or 7 per cent. Neither is it by any means uncommon, when the rate fixed by law is more than the market rate, for borrowers to be obliged to pay more than they really stipulated for. It is singular than an enactment which contradicts the most obvious principles, and has been repeatedly condemned by committees of the legislature, should still be allowed to preserve a place in the statute book.

Distinction of Simple and Compound Interest.—When a loan is made, it is usual to stipulate that the interest upon it should be regularly paid at the end of every year, half year, &c. A loan of this sort is said to be at simple interest. It is of the essence of such loan, that no part of the interest accruing upon it should be added to the principal to form a new principal; and though payment of the interest were not made when it becomes due, the lender would not be entitled to charge interest upon such unpaid interest. Thus, suppose 100*l.* were lent at simple interest at 5 per cent., payable at the end of each year; the lender would, at the end of 3 or 4 years, supposing him to have received no previous payments, be entitled to 15*l.* or 20*l.*, and no more.

Sometimes, however, money or capital is invested so that the interest is not paid at the periods when it becomes due, but is progressively added to the principal; so that at every term a new principal is formed, consisting of the original principal, and the successive accumulations of interest upon interest. Money invested in this way is said to be placed at *compound interest*.

It appears not unreasonable, that when a borrower does not pay the interest he has contracted for at the period when it is due, he should pay interest upon such interest. This, however, is not allowed by the law of England; nor is it allowed to make a loan at compound interest. But this rule is often evaded, by taking a new obligation for the principal with the interest included, when the latter becomes due. Investments at compound interest are also very frequent. Thus, if an individual buy into the funds, and regularly buy fresh stock with the dividends, the capital will increase at compound interest; and so in any similar case.

Calculation of Interest.—Interest is estimated at so much per cent. per annum, or by dividing the principal into 100 equal parts, and specifying how many of these parts are paid yearly for its use. Thus 5 per cent., or 5 parts out of 100, means that 5*l.* are paid for the use of 100*l.* for a year, 10*l.* for the use of 200*l.*, and 2*l.* 10*s.* for the use of 50*l.* for the same period, and so on.

Suppose, now, that it is required to find the interest of 210*l.* 13*s.* for 3½ years at 4 per cent. simple interest. In this case we must first divide the principal, 210*l.* 13*s.* into 100 parts, 4 of which will be the interest for 1 year; and this being multiplied by 3½ will give the interest for 3½ years. But instead of first dividing by 100, and then multiplying by 4, the result will be the same, and the process more expeditious, if we first multiply by 4, and then divide by 100. Thus,—

	L.	*s.*		
	210	13	principal.	
		4	rate per cent.	
1,00)	8,42	12 (	*L.* *s.* *d.* 8 8 4½	1 year's interest.
	20		3½	
	8,52		25 5 6½	3 years' interest.
	12		4 4 5	½ a year's interest.
	6,24		*L.* 29 9 9½	3½ years' interest.
	4			
	96			

It is almost superfluous to observe, that the same result would have been obtained by multiplying the product of the principal and rate by the number of years, and then dividing by 100.

Hence, to find the interest of any sum at any rate per cent. for a year, multiply the sum by the rate per cent., and divide the product by 100.

To find the interest of any sum for a number of years, multiply its interest for one year by the number of years; or, without calculating its interest for one year, multiply the principal by the rate per cent. and that product by the number of years, and divide the last product by 100.

When the interest of any sum is required for a number of days, they must be treated as fractional parts of a year; that is, we must multiply the interest of a year by them, and divide by 365.

Suppose that it is required to find the interest of 210*l.* for 4 years 7 months and 25 days, at 4½ per cent.—

Principal -	*L.* 210	Interest for 4 years =	*L.* 37·8000
Rate per cent. -	4½	6 months = ½ of 1 year =	4·7250
	840	1 month = 1-6 of 6 months =	·7875
	105	25 days =	·6472
Interest for 1 year -	*L.* 9·45 × 4 = *L.* 37·80 do for 4 years.		*L.* 43·9597 = *L.* 43 19*s.* 2½*d.*

The interest for 25 days is $\frac{9\cdot45 \times 25}{365}$ = ·6472; that is, it is equal to the interest for a year multiplied by the fraction $\frac{25}{365}$.

Division by 100 is performed by cutting off two figures to the right.

Many attempts have been made to contrive more expeditious processes than the above for calculating interest. The following is the best:—

Suppose it were required to find the interest upon 172*l.* for 107 days at 5 per cent.

This forms what is called in arithmetical books a double rule of three question, and would be stated as follows:—

£ *Days.* *£* *£* *Days.*
100 × 365 : 5 : : 172 × 107 : 2*l.* 10*s.* 4½*d.* the interest required.

Hence, to find the interest of any sum for any number of days at any rate per cent., multiply the sum by the number of days, and the product by the rate, and divide by 36,500 (365 × 100); the quotient is the interest required.

When the rate is 5 per cent., or 1-20th of the principal, all that is required is to divide the product of the sum multiplied by the days by 7,300 (365, the days in a year, multiplied by 20).

Five per cent. interest being found by this extremely simple process, it is usual in practice to calculate 4 per cent. interest by deducting 1-5th; 3 per cent. by deducting 2-5ths; 2½ per cent. by dividing by 2; 2 per cent. by taking the half of 4, and so on.

In calculating interest upon accounts current, it is requisite to state the number of days between each receipt, or payment, and the date (commonly the 31st of December) to which the account current is made up. Thus, 172*l.* paid on the 15th of September, bearing interest to the 31st of December, 107 days. The amount of such interest may, then, be calculated as now explained, or by the aid of Tables. The reader will find, in the article BOOKKEEPING (p. 161.) an example of interest on an account current computed as above, without referring to Tables.

The 30th of June is, after the 31st of December, the most usual date to which accounts current are made up, and interest calculated. In West India houses, the 30th of April is the common date, because at that season the old crop of produce is generally sold off, and the new begins to arrive.

It is of great importance, in calculating interest on accounts current, to be able readily to find the number of days from any day in any one month to any day in any other month. This may be done with the utmost ease by means of the Table on the following page.

By this Table may be readily ascertained the number of days from any given day in the year to another. For instance, from the 1st of January to the 14th of August (first and last days included), there are 226 days. To find the number, look down the column headed January, to Number 14, and then look along in a parallel line to the column headed August, you find 226, the number required.

To find the number of days between any other two given days, when they are both after the 1st of January, the number opposite the 1st day must, of course, be deducted from that opposite to the second. Thus, to find the number of days between the 13th of March and the 19th of August, deduct from 231, the number in the Table opposite to 19 and under August, 72, the number opposite to 13 and under March, and the remainder, 159, is the number required, last day included.

In leap years, *one* must be added to the number after the 28th of February.

For the mode of calculating discount, or of finding the present values of sums due at some future date, at simple interest, see DISCOUNT.

Table for ascertaining the Number of Days from any one Day in the Year to any other Day.

Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	March	April	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
1	32	60	91	121	152	182	213	244	274	305	335	17	48	76	107	137	168	198	229	260	290	321	351
2	33	61	92	122	153	183	214	245	275	306	336	18	49	77	108	138	169	199	230	261	291	322	352
3	34	62	93	123	154	184	215	246	276	307	337	19	50	78	109	139	170	200	231	262	292	323	353
4	35	63	94	124	155	185	216	247	277	308	338	20	51	79	110	140	171	201	232	263	293	324	354
5	36	64	95	125	156	186	217	248	278	309	339	21	52	80	111	141	172	202	233	264	294	325	355
6	37	65	96	126	157	87	218	249	279	310	340	22	53	81	112	142	173	203	234	265	295	326	356
7	38	66	97	127	158	188	219	250	280	311	341	23	54	82	113	143	174	204	235	266	296	327	357
8	39	67	98	128	159	189	220	251	281	312	342	24	55	83	114	144	175	205	236	267	297	328	358
9	40	68	99	129	160	190	221	252	282	313	343	25	56	84	115	145	176	206	237	268	298	329	359
10	41	69	100	130	161	191	222	253	283	314	344	26	57	85	116	146	177	207	238	269	299	330	360
11	42	70	101	131	162	192	223	254	284	315	345	27	58	86	117	147	178	208	239	270	300	331	361
12	43	71	102	132	163	193	224	255	285	316	346	28	59	87	118	148	179	209	240	271	301	332	362
13	44	72	103	133	164	194	225	256	286	317	347	29		88	119	149	180	210	241	272	302	333	363
14	45	73	104	134	165	195	226	257	287	318	348	30		89	120	150	181	211	242	273	303	334	364
15	46	74	105	135	166	196	227	258	288	319	349	31		90		151		212	243		304		365
16	47	75	106	136	167	197	228	259	289	320	350												

In counting-houses, Interest Tables are very frequently made use of. Such publications have, in consequence, become very numerous. Most of them have some peculiar recommendation; and are selected according to the object in view.

When interest, instead of being simple, is compound, the first year's or term's interest must be found, and being added to the original principal, makes the principal upon which interest is to be calculated for the second year or term; and the second year's or term's interest being added to this last principal, makes that upon which interest is to be calculated for the third year or term; and so on for any number of years.

But when the number of years is considerable, this process becomes exceedingly cumbersome and tedious, and to facilitate it Tables have been constructed, which are subjoined to this article.

The first of these Tables (No. I.) represents the amount of 1*l.* accumulating at compound interest, at 3, 3½, 4, 4½, and five per cent. every year, from 1 year to 70 years, in pounds and decimals of a pound. Now, suppose that we wish to know how much 500*l.* will amount to in 7 years at 4 per cent. In the column marked 4 per cent. and opposite to 7 years, we find 1·315,932*l.*, which shows that 1*l.* will, if invested at 4 per cent. compound interest amount to 1·315,932 in 7 years; and consequently, 500*l.* will, in the same time and at the same rate, amount to 500 × 1·315,932*l.* or 657·966*l.*; that is, 657*l.* 19*s.* 4*d.*

For the same purpose of facilitating calculation, the present value of 1*l.* due any number of years hence, not exceeding 70, at 3, 3½, 4, 4½, and 5 per cent. compound interest, is given in the subjoined Table No. II. The use of this Table is precisely similar to the foregoing. Let it, for example, be required to find the present worth of 500*l.* due 7 years hence, reckoning compound interest at 4 per cent. Opposite to 7 years, and under 4 per cent., we find ·75291,781*l.*, the present worth of 1*l.* due at the end of 7 years; and multiplying this sum by 500*l.*, the product, being 379·8589*l.*, or 379*l.* 19*s.* 2*d.*, is the answer required.

Annuities.

1. *Annuities certain.*—When a sum of money is to be paid yearly for a certain number of years, it is called an annuity. The annuities usually met with are either for a given number of years, which are called *annuities certain*; or they are to be paid so long as one or more individuals shall live, and are thence called *contingent annuities*.

By the amount of an annuity at any given time, is meant the sum to which it will then amount, supposing it to have been regularly improved at compound interest during the intervening period.

The present value of an annuity for any given period, is the sum of the present value of all the payments of that annuity.

Numbers III. and IV. of the subjoined Tables represent the amount and present value of an annuity of 1*l.*, reckoning compound interest at 2½, 3, 3½, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per cent., from 1 year to 70. They, as well as Nos. I. and II., are taken from "Tables of Interest, Discount, and Annuities, by John Smart, Gent., 4to. London, 1726." They are carried to 8 decimal places, and enjoy the highest character both here and on the Continent, for accuracy and completeness. The original work is now become very scarce.

The uses of these Tables are numerous; and they are easily applied. Suppose, for example, it were required to tell the amount of an annuity of 50*l.* a year for 17 years at 4 per cent. compound interest.

Opposite to 17 (Table III.) in the column of years, and under 4 per cent., is 23·69751,939, being the amount of an annuity of 1*l.* for the given time at the given rate per cent.; and this multiplied by 50 gives 1184 8756195, or 1,184*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.*, the amount required.

Suppose now that it is required what sum one must pay down to receive an annuity of 50*l.* to continue for 17 years, compound interest at 4 per cent.?

Opposite to 17 years (Table IV.) and under 4 per cent. is 12·16566,886, the present value of an annuity of 1*l.* for the given time and at the given rate per cent.; and this multiplied by 50 gives 608 2·3443, or 608*l.* 5*s.* 8*d.*, the present value required.

When it is required to find the *time* which must elapse, in order that a given sum improved at a specified rate of compound interest may increase to some other given sum, divide the latter sum by the former, and look for the quotient, or the number nearest to it, in Table No. I. under the given rate per cent., and the years opposite to it are the answer.—Thus,

In what time will 523*l.* amount to 1,067*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.* at 5 per cent. compound interest?

Divide 1067·3794, &c., by 523, and the quotient will be 2·0789, &c., which under 5 per cent. in Table I. is opposite to 15 years, the time required.

If it had been required to find the time in which a given annuity, improved at a certain rate of compound interest, would have increased to some given sum, the question would have been answered by dividing, as above, the given sum by the annuity; and looking for the quotient (not in Table No. I., but) in Table No. III., under the given rate per cent., it would be found on a line with the time required. Thus,

A. owes 1,000*l.* and resolves to appropriate 10*l.* a year of his income to its discharge: in what time will the debt be extinguished, reckoning compound interest at 4 per cent.?

1,000 divided by 10 gives 100, the number in Table No. III. under 4 per cent., and nearest to this quotient is 99·8265, &c. opposite to 41 years, the required time. Had the rate of interest been 5 per cent., the debt would have been discharged in somewhat less than 37 years. This example is given by Dr. Price (*Annuities*, 6th ed. vol. ii. p. 289.); and on this principle the whole fabric of the sinking fund was constructed. Of the abstract truth of the principle there cannot, indeed, be a doubt. But every thing depends on the increasing sums annually produced being immediately invested on the same terms; and this, when the sum is large, and the period long, is altogether impracticable.

Let it next be required to find an annuity which, being increased at a given rate of compound interest during a given time, will amount to a specified sum: in this case we divide the specified sum by the amount of 1*l.* for the time and rate given, as found in Table III., and the quotient is the answer.—Thus,

What annuity will amount to 1,067*l.* 5*s.* 7*d.* in 15 years at 5 per cent. compound interest?

Opposite to 15 years in Table III., and under 5 per cent., is 21·5785, &c., the amount of 1*l.* for the given time and rate; and dividing 1067·3794, &c., by this sum, the quotient 50·367, &c., or 50*l.* 7*s.* 9*d.*, is the annuity required.

Deferred Annuities are those which do not commence till after a certain number of years; and *reversionary annuities*, such as depend upon the concurrence of some uncertain event, as the death of an individual, &c.

The present value of a deferred annuity is found by deducting, from the value of an annuity for the whole period, the value of an annuity to the term at which the reversionary annuity is to commence.—Thus,

What is the present value of an annuity of 50*l.* to continue for 25 years, commencing at 7 years from the present time, interest at 4 per cent.?

According to Table No. IV., the value of an annuity of 1*l.* for 25 years at 4 per cent. is 15·62207,995, and that of 1*l.* for 7 years is 6·00205,467, which being deducted from the other, leaves 9·62002,528, which multiplied by 50 gives 481*l.*, the answer required.

Supposing the annuity, instead of being for 25 years, had been a perpetuity, it would have been worth 1,250*l.*, from which deducting 300*l.* 2*s.*, the value of an annuity for 7 years at 4 per cent., there remains 949*l.* 18*s.*, the value of the reversion.

For a selection of problems that may be solved by Tables of annuities certain, see *Smart's Tables*, pp. 92—100.

2. *Life Annuities.*—After what has been stated in the article on Insurance (General Principles of), respecting Tables of mortality, it will be easy to see how the value of a life annuity is calculated. Supposing,—to revert to the example given before (p. 73.),—that it were required to find the present value of 1*l.*, the receipt of which is dependent on the contingency of a person, now 56 years of age, being alive 10 years hence, taking the Carlisle Table of mortality, and interest at 4 per cent.: Now, according to that Table, of 10,000 persons born together, 4,000 attain to 56, and 2,894 to 66 years of age. The probability that a person, now 56 years, will be alive 10 years hence, is consequently, $\frac{2,894}{4,000}$; and the present value of 1*l.*, to be received certain 10 years hence being 0·675564*l.*, it follows, that if its receipt be made to depend on a life 56 years of age, attaining to 66, its value will be reduced by that contingency to $\frac{2,894 \times 0{\cdot}675564l.}{4,000} = 0{\cdot}488777l.$, or 9*s.* 9¼*d.* If, then, we had to find the present value of an annuity of 1*l.* secured on the life of a person now 56, we should calculate in this way the present value of each of the 48 payments, which, according to the Carlisle Table, he might receive, and their sum would, of course, be the present value of the annuity.

This statement is enough to show the principle on which all calculations of annuities depend; and this also was, in fact, the method according to which they were calculated, till Mr. Simpson and M. Euler invented a shorter and easier process, deriving from the value of an annuity at any age, that of an annuity at the next younger age. There is a considerable discrepancy in the sums at which different authors, and different insurance offices, estimate the present value of life annuities payable to persons of the same age. This does not arise from any difference in the mode of calculating the annuities, but from differences in the Tables of mortality employed. These can only be accurate when they are deduced from multiplied and careful observations made, during a long series of years, on a large body of persons; or when the average numbers of the whole population, and of the deaths at every age, for a lengthened period, have been determined with the necessary care. It is to be regretted, that governments, who alone have the means of ascertaining the rate of mortality by observations made on a sufficiently large scale, have been singularly inattentive to their duty in this respect. And until a very few years since, when Mr. Finlaison was employed to calculate Tables of the value of annuities from the ages of the nominees in public tontines, and of individuals on whose lives government had granted annuities, all that had been done in this country to lay a solid foundation on which to construct the vast fabric of life insurance had been the work of a few private persons, who had, of course, but a limited number of observations to work upon.

The celebrated mathematician, Dr. Halley, was the first who calculated a Table of mor

tality, which he deduced from observations made at Breslaw, in Silesia. In 1724, M. De Moivre published the first edition of his tract on *Annuities on Lives*. In order to facilitate the calculation of their values, M. De Moivre assumed the annual decrements of life to be equal; that is, he supposed that out of 86 (the utmost limit of life on his hypothesis) persons born together, one would die every year till the whole were extinct. This assumption agreed pretty well with the true values between 30 and 70 years of age, as given in Dr. Halley's Table; but was very remote from the truth in the earlier and later periods. Mr. Thomas Simpson, in his work on *Annuities and Reversions*, originally published in 1742, gave a Table of mortality deduced from the London bills, and Tables founded upon it of the values of annuities. But at the period when this Table was calculated, the mortality in London was so much higher than in the rest of the country, that the values of the annuities given in it were far too small for general use. In 1746, M. Deparcieux published, in his *Essai sur les Probabilités de la Durée de la Vie Humaine*—a work distinguished by its perspicuity and neatness,—Tables of mortality deduced from observations made on the mortuary registers of several religious houses, and on the list of the nominees in several tontines. In this work, separate Tables were first constructed for males and females, and the greater longevity of the latter rendered apparent. M. Deparcieux's Tables were a very great acquisition to the science; and are decidedly superior to some that are still extensively used. Dr. Price's famous work on *Annuities*, the first edition of which was published in 1770, contributed powerfully to direct the public attention to inquiries of this sort; and was, in this respect, of very great utility. Of the more recent works, the best are those of Mr. Baily and Mr. Milne, which indeed, are both excellent. The latter, besides all that was previously known as to the history, theory, or practice of the science, contains much new and valuable matter; and to it we beg to refer such of our readers as wish to enter fully into the subject.

The Table on which Dr. Price laid the greatest stress, was calculated from the burial registers kept in the parish of All Saints in Northampton, containing little more than half the population of the town. There can be no doubt, however, as well from original defects in the construction of the Table, as from the improvement that has since taken place in the healthiness of the public, that the mortality represented in the Northampton Table is, and has long been decidedly above the average rate of mortality in England. Mr. Morgan, indeed, the late learned actuary of the Equitable Society, contended that this is not the case, and that the Society's experience shows that the Northampton Table is still remarkably accurate. But the facts Mr. Morgan disclosed in his *View of the Rise and Progress of the Equitable Society* (p. 42.), published in 1828, are quite at variance with this opinion: for he there states, that the deaths of persons insured in the Equitable Society, from 50 to 60 years of age, during the 12 years previously to 1828, were 339; whereas, according to the Northampton Table, they should have been 545! And Mr. Milne has endeavoured to show (Art. *Annuities*, new ed. of *Ency. Brit.*) that the discrepancy is really much greater.

The only other Table used to any extent in England for the calculation of life annuities, is that framed by Mr. Milne from observations made by Dr. Heysham on the rate of mortality at Carlisle. It gives a decidedly lower rate of mortality than the Northampton Table; and there are good grounds for thinking that the mortality which it represents is not very different from the actual rate throughout most parts of England; though it cannot be supposed that a Table founded on so narrow a basis should give a perfectly fair view of the average mortality of the entire kingdom.

In life insurance, the first annual premium is always paid at the commencement of the assurance, and the others at the termination of each year so long as the party assured survives. Hence, at the beginning of the assurance, the whole of the annual premiums payable for it exceed the value of an equal annuity on the life by one year's purchase. And, therefore, when the value of an assurance in present money is given, to find the equivalent annual premium during the life, the whole present value must be divided by the number of years' purchase an annuity on the life is worth, increased by 1. Thus, for an assurance of 100*l.* on a life 40 years of age, an office, calculating by the Carlisle Table of mortality, and at 4 per cent. interest, requires 53·446*l.* in present money. Now according to that Table and rate of interest, an annuity on a life just 40 years of age is worth 15·074 years' purchase, so that the equivalent annual premium is $\frac{53\cdot446}{15\cdot074+1} = 3\cdot325l.$, or 3*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* The annual premium may, however, be derived directly from the value of an annuity on the life, without first calculating the total present value of the assurance.—(See Mr. Milne's *Treatise on Annuities*, or the art. *Annuities* in the new edition of the *Ency. Britannica*.)

In order to exhibit the foundations on which Tables of life annuities and insurance have been founded in this and other countries, we have given, in No. V. of the following Tables, the rate of mortality that has been observed to take place among 1,000 children born together, or the numbers alive at the end of each year, till the whole become extinct, in England, France, Sweden, &c., according to the most celebrated authorities.* The rate of mortality

* The greater part of this Table was originally published by Dr. Hutton in his *Mathematical Dictionary*, art. *Life Annuities*. Mr. Baily inserted it with additions in his work on *Annuities*; and it

at Carlisle, represented in this Table, is less than that observed any where else: the rates which approach nearest to it are those deduced from the observations already referred to, of M. Deparcieux, and those of M. Kersseboom, on the nominees of life annuities in Holland.

In order to calculate from this Table the chance which a person of any given age has of attaining to any higher age, we have only to divide the number of persons alive at such higher age, given in that column of the Table selected to decide the question, by the number of persons alive at the given age, and the fraction resulting is the chance.

We have added, by way of supplement to this Table, Mr. Finlaison's Table (No. VI.) of the rate of mortality among 1,000 children born together, according to the decrement of life observed to take place among the nominees in government tontines and life annuities in this country, distinguishing males from females. The rate of mortality which this Table exhibits is decidedly less than that given in the Carlisle Table; but the lives in the latter are the average of the population, while those in the former are all picked. The nominees in tontines are uniformly chosen among the healthiest individuals; and none but those who consider their lives as good ever buy an annuity. Still, however, the Table is very curious; and it sets the superiority of female life in a very striking point of view.

Tables VII. and VIII. give the *expectation of life*, according to the mortality observed at Northampton and Carlisle; the former by Dr. Price, and the latter by Mr. Milne.

The next Table, No. IX., extracted from the *Second Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on Friendly Societies*, gives a comparative view of the results of some of the most celebrated Tables of mortality, in relation to the rate of mortality, the expectation of life, the value of an annuity, &c. The coincidence between the results deduced from M. Deparcieux's Table, and that for Carlisle, is very striking. And to render the information on these subjects laid before the reader as complete as the nature of this work will admit, we have given Tables (Nos. X.—XV.) of the value of an annuity of 1*l.* on a single life, at every age, and at 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 per cent., according to the Northampton and Carlisle Tables; we have also given Tables of the value of an annuity of 1*l.* on 2 equal lives, and on 2 lives differing by 5 years, at 3, 4, 5, and 6 per cent., according to the same Tables. It is but seldom, therefore, that our readers will require to resort to any other work for the means of solving the questions that usually occur in practice with regard to annuities; and there are not many works in which they will find so good a collection of Tables.—We subjoin one or two examples of the mode of using the Tables of life annuities.

Suppose it were required, what ought a person, aged 45, to give, to secure an annuity of 50*l.* a year for life, interest at 4 per cent., according to the Carlisle Table?

In Table No. XI., under 4 per cent., and opposite 45, is 14·104, the value of an annuity of 1*l.*, which being multiplied by 50, gives 705·2, or 705*l.* 4*s.*, the value required. According to the Northampton Table, the annuity would only have been worth 614*l.* 3*s.*

The value of an annuity on 2 lives of the same age, or on 2 lives differing by 5 years, may be found in precisely the same way.

Some questions in *reversionary* life annuities admit of an equally easy solution. Thus, suppose it is required to find the present value of A.'s interest in an estate worth 100*l.* a year, falling to him at the death of B., aged 40, interest 4 per cent., according to the Carlisle Table?

The value of the perpetuity of 100*l.* a year, interest 4 per cent., is 2,500*l.*; and the value of an annuity of 100*l.* on a person aged 40, interest at 4 per cent., is 1,507*l.* 8*s.*, which deducted from 2,500*l.* leaves 992*l.* 12*s.*, the present value required.

A person, aged 30, wishes to purchase an annuity of 50*l.* for his wife, aged 25, provided she survive him; what ought he to pay for it, interest at 4 per cent., according to the Carlisle Table?

The value of an annuity of 1*l.* on a life aged 30 is 16·852; from which subtracting the value of an annuity of 1*l.* on 2 joint lives of 25 and 30, 14·339, the difference, 2·513 × 50 = 125·650, or 125*l.* 13*s.*, the sum required.

For the solution of the more complex cases of survivorship, which do not often occur in practice, recourse may be had to the directions in Mr. Milne's *Treatise on Annuities*, and other works of that description. To attempt explaining them here would lead us into details quite inconsistent with the objects of this work.

was published with the column for Carlisle added, in the *Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on Friendly Societies.*

Tables of Interest and Annuities.

Table showing the Amount of £1 improved at Compound Interest, at 2½, 3, 3½, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per Cent., at the End of every Year, from 1 to 70.

Years	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
1	1·02500,000	1·03000,000	1·03500,000	1·04000,000	1·04500,000	1·05000,000	1·06000,000
2	1·05062,500	1·06090,000	1·07122,500	1·08160,000	1·09202,500	1·10250,000	1·12360,000
3	1·07689,062	1·09272,700	1·10871,787	1·12486,400	1·14116,512	1·15762,500	1·19101,600
4	1·10381,289	1·12550,881	1·14752,300	1·16985,856	1·19251,860	1·21550,625	1·26247,696
5	1·13140,821	1·15927,407	1·18768,631	1·21665,290	1·24618,194	1·27628,156	1·33822,558
6	1·15969,342	1·19405,230	1·22925,533	1·26531,902	1·30226,012	1·34009,564	1·41851,911
7	1·18868,575	1·22987,387	1·27237,926	1·31593,178	1·36086,183	1·40710,042	1·50363,026
8	1·21840,290	1·26677,008	1·31680,904	1·36856,905	1·42210,061	1·47745,544	1·59384,807
9	1·24886,297	1·30477,318	1·36290,735	1·42331,181	1·48609,514	1·55132,822	1·68947,896
10	1·28008,454	1·34891,638	1·41059,876	1·48094,469	1·55303,943	1·62889,463	1·79084,770
11	1·31208,666	1·38423,387	1·45996,972	1·53945,406	1·62255,305	1·71033,936	1·89829,856
12	1·34488,882	1·42576,089	1·51106,866	1·60103,222	1·69565,143	1·79585,633	2·01219,647
13	1·37851,104	1·46853,371	1·56395,606	1·66507,351	1·77219,610	1·88564,914	2·13292,826
14	1·41297,382	1·51258,972	1·61869,452	1·73167,645	1·85194,492	1·97993,160	2·26090,396
15	1·44829,817	1·55796,742	1·67534,883	1·80094,351	1·93528,244	2·07892,818	2·39655,819
16	1·48450,562	1·60470,644	1·73398,604	1·87298,125	2·02237,015	2·18287,459	2·54035,168
17	1·52161,826	1·65284,763	1·79467,555	1·94790,050	2·11337,681	2·29201,832	2·69277,279
18	1·55965,872	1·70243,306	1·85748,930	2·02581,652	2·20847,877	2·40661,923	2·85434,915
19	1·59865,019	1·75350,605	1·92250,132	2·10684,918	2·30786,031	2·52695,020	3·02560,020
20	1·63861,644	1·80611,123	1·98978,886	2·19112,314	2·41171,402	2·65329,771	3·20713,547
21	1·67958,185	1·86029,457	2·05943,147	2·27876,807	2·52024,116	2·78596,259	3·39956,360
22	1·72157,140	1·91610,341	2·13151,158	2·36991,879	2·63365,201	2·92526,072	3·60353,742
23	1·76461,068	1·97358,651	2·20611,448	2·46471,565	2·75216,635	3·07152,376	3·81974,966
24	1·80872,595	2·03279,411	2·28333,849	2·56330,417	2·87601,383	3·22509,994	4·04893,464
25	1·85394,410	2·09377,793	2·36324,498	2·66583,633	3·00543,446	3·38635,494	4·29187,072
26	1·90029,270	2·15659,127	2·44595,856	2·77246,979	3·14067,001	3·55567,269	4·54938,296
27	1·94780,002	2·22128,901	2·53156,711	2·88336,858	3·28200,956	3·73345,632	4·82234,594
28	1·99649,502	2·28792,768	2·62017,096	2·99870,332	3·42969,999	3·92012,914	5·11168,670
29	2·04640,739	2·35656,551	2·71187,768	3·11865,145	3·58403,649	4·11613,560	5·41838,790
30	2·09756,758	2·42736,247	2·80679,370	3·24339,751	3·74531,813	4·32194,238	5·74349,117
31	2·15000,677	2·50000,035	2·90503,148	3·37313,341	3·91385,745	4·53803,949	6·08810,064
32	2·20375,694	2·57508,976	3·00670,759	3·50805,875	4·09098,104	4·76494,147	6·45338,668
33	2·25885,086	2·65233,594	3·11194,335	3·64838,110	4·27403,018	5·00318,854	6·84058,988
34	2·31532,213	2·73190,530	3·22086,033	3·79431,634	4·46636,154	5·25334,797	7·25102,528
35	2·37320,519	2·81386,345	3·33359,015	3·94608,899	4·66734,781	5·51601,537	7·68608,679
36	2·43253,532	2·89827,933	3·45026,611	4·10393,255	4·87737,846	5·79181,614	8·14725,200
37	2·49334,870	2·98522,668	3·57102,543	4·26808,986	5·09686,049	6·08140,694	8·63808,712
38	2·55568,242	3·07478,348	3·69601,129	4·43881,345	5·32631,921	6·38547,729	9·15425,235
39	2·61957,448	3·16702,698	3·82537,171	4·61636,599	5·56589,908	6·70475,115	9·70350,749
40	2·68506,384	3·26203,779	3·95925,972	4·80102,063	5·81636,454	7·03998,871	10·28571,794
41	2·75219,043	3·35989,893	4·09783,381	4·99306,145	6·07810,094	7·39198,815	10·90286,101
42	2·82099,520	3·46069,589	4·24125,799	5·19278,391	6·35161,548	7·76158,755	11·55703,267
43	2·89152,008	3·56451,677	4·38970,202	5·40049,527	6·63743,818	8·14966,693	12·25045,463
44	2·96382,808	3·67145,227	4·54334,160	5·61651,508	6·93612,290	8·55715,028	12·98548,191
45	3·03790,328	3·78150,584	4·70235,855	5·84117,568	7·24824,843	8·98500,779	13·76461,083
46	3·11385,086	3·89504,372	4·86694,110	6·07482,271	7·57441,961	9·43425,818	14·59048,748
47	3·19169,713	4·01189,503	5·03728,404	6·31781,562	7·91526,849	9·90597,109	15·46591,673
48	3·27148,956	4·13225,188	5·21358,808	6·57053,824	8·27145,567	10·40196,695	16·39387,173
49	3·35327,680	4·25621,944	5·39606,459	6·83334,057	8·64367,107	10·92133,313	17·37750,403
50	3·43710,872	4·38390,602	5·58492,686	7·10668,335	9·03263,027	10·46739,978	18·42015,427
51	3·52303,644	4·51542,320	5·78039,930	7·39095,068	9·43910,490	12·04076,977	19·52536,352
52	3·61111,235	4·65088,590	5·98271,327	7·68658,871	9·86386,463	12·64280,826	20·69688,534
53	3·70139,016	4·79041,247	6·19210,624	7·99405,226	10·30773,853	13·27494,868	21·93369,846
54	3·79392,491	4·93412,485	6·40883,296	8·31381,435	10·77158,677	13·93869,611	23·25502,037
55	3·88877,303	5·08214,859	6·63314,114	8·64636,692	11·25630,817	14·62563,092	24·65032,159
56	3·98599,236	5·23461,305	6·86530,108	8·99222,160	11·76284,204	15·36741,246	26·12934,089
57	4·08564,217	5·39165,144	7·10558,662	9·35191,046	12·29216,993	16·13578,308	27·69710,134
58	4·18778,322	5·55340,098	7·35428,315	9·73598,688	12·84531,758	16·94257,224	29·35892,742
59	4·29247,780	5·72000,301	7·61168,203	10·11502,636	13·42335,687	17·78970,085	31·12046,307
60	4·39978,975	5·89160,310	7·87809,090	10·51962,741	14·02740,793	18·67918,589	32·98769,065
61	4·50978,419	6·06835,120	8·15382,408	10·94041,251	14·65864,129	19·61314,519	34·96695,330
62	4·62252,910	6·25040,173	8·43920,793	11·37802,901	15·31828,014	20·60380,245	37·06496,944
63	4·73809,233	6·43791,379	8·73458,020	11·83315,017	16·00760,375	21·63349,257	39·28886,761
64	4·85654,464	6·63105,120	9·04029,051	12·30647,617	16·72794,467	22·70466,720	41·64619,967
65	4·97795,826	6·82998,273	9·35670,068	12·79873,522	17·48070,239	23·83990,056	44·14497,165
66	5·10240,721	7·03488,222	9·68418,520	13·31068,463	18·26733,400	25·03189,559	46·79366,994
67	5·22996,739	7·24592,868	10·02313,168	13·84311,201	19·08936,403	26·28849,036	49·60129,014
68	5·36071,658	7·46330,654	10·37394,129	14·39683,649	19·94838,541	27·59706,488	52·57736,755
69	5·49473,449	7·68720,574	10·73702,924	14·97270,995	20·84606,276	28·97754,813	55·73260,960
70	5·63210,286	7·91782,191	11·11282,526	15·57161,835	21·78413,558	30·42642,553	59·07593,018

II. Table showing the P
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Years	2½ per Cent.	3
1	0·97560,976	0
2	·95181,440	
3	·92859,941	
4	·90595,064	
5	·88385,429	
6	·86229,687	
7	·84126,524	
8	·82074,657	
9	·80072,836	
10	·78119,840	
11	·76214,478	
12	·74355,589	
13	·72541,038	
14	·70771,730	
15	·69046,556	
16	·67364,498	
17	·65719,506	
18	·64116,594	
19	·62553,773	
20	·61027,094	
21	·59536,679	
22	·58086,467	
23	·56669,724	
24	·55287,535	
25	·53939,059	
26	·52623,472	
27	·51339,973	
28	·50087,778	
29	·48866,125	
30	·47674,269	
31	·46511,481	
32	·45377,055	
33	·44270,298	
34	·43190,534	
35	·42137,107	
36	·41109,372	
37	·40106,705	
38	·39128,493	
39	·38174,139	
40	·37243,062	
41	·36334,695	
42	·35448,483	
43	·34583,886	
44	·33740,376	
45	·32917,440	
46	·32114,576	
47	·31331,294	
48	·30567,116	
49	·29821,576	
50	·29094,221	
51	·28384,606	
52	·27692,298	
53	·27016,876	
54	·26357,928	
55	·25715,052	
56	·25087,855	
57	·24475,957	
58	·23878,992	
59	·23296,568	
60	·22728,359	
61	·22174,009	
62	·21633,179	
63	·21105,541	
64	·20590,771	
65	·20088,557	
66	·19598,593	
67	·19120,578	
68	·18654,223	
69	·18199,242	
70	·17755,358	

II. Table showing the PRESENT VALUE of £1 receivable at the End of any given Year, from 1 to 70, reckoning Compound Interest, at 2½, 3, 3½, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per Cent.

Years	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
1	0·97560,976	0·97087,379	0·96618,357	0·96153,846	0·95693,780	0·95238,095	0·94339,623
2	·95181,440	·94259,591	·93351,070	·92455,621	·91573,995	·90702,948	·88999,644
3	·92859,941	·91514,166	·90194,270	·88899,636	·87629,660	·86383,760	·83961,928
4	·90595,064	·88848,705	·87144,223	·85480,419	·83856,134	·82270,247	·79209,366
5	·88385,429	·86260,878	·84197,317	·82193,711	·80245,105	·78352,616	·74725,817
6	·86229,687	·83748,426	·81350,064	·79031,453	·76789,574	·74621,540	·70496,054
7	·84126,524	·81309,151	·78599,096	·75991,781	·73482,846	·71068,133	·66505,711
8	·82074,657	·78940,923	·75941,156	·73069,020	·70318,513	·67683,936	·62741,237
9	·80072,836	·76641,673	·73373,097	·70258,674	·67290,443	·64460,892	·59189,846
10	·78119,840	·74409,391	·70891,881	·67556,417	·64392,768	·61391,325	·55839,478
11	·76214,478	·72242,128	·68494,571	·64958,093	·61619,874	·58467,929	·52678,753
12	·74355,589	·70137,988	·66178,330	·62459,705	·58966,861	·55683,742	·49696,936
13	·72542,038	·68095,134	·63940,415	·60057,409	·56427,164	·53032,135	·46883,903
14	·70772,720	·66111,781	·61778,179	·57747,508	·53997,286	·50506,795	·44230,096
15	·69046,556	·64186,195	·59689,062	·55526,450	·51672,044	·48101,710	·41726,506
16	·67362,498	·62316,694	·57670,591	·53390,818	·49446,932	·45811,152	·39364,628
17	·65719,510	·60501,645	·55720,378	·51337,325	·47317,639	·43629,669	·37136,442
18	·64116,594	·58739,461	·53836,114	·49362,812	·45280,037	·41552,065	·35034,379
19	·62552,775	·57028,608	·52015,569	·47464,242	·43330,179	·39573,396	·33051,301
20	·61027,094	·55367,575	·50256,598	·45638,695	·41464,286	·37688,948	·31180,473
21	·59538,629	·53754,928	·48557,090	·43883,360	·39678,743	·35894,236	·29415,540
22	·58086,467	·52189,250	·46915,063	·42195,539	·37970,089	·34184,987	·27750,510
23	·56669,724	·50669,175	·45328,563	·40572,633	·36335,013	·32557,131	·26179,726
24	·55287,535	·49193,374	·43795,713	·39012,147	·34770,347	·31006,791	·24697,855
25	·53939,059	·47760,556	·42314,699	·37511,680	·33273,900	·29530,277	·23299,863
26	·52623,472	·46369,473	·40883,767	·36068,923	·31840,248	·28124,073	·21981,003
27	·51339,973	·45018,906	·39501,234	·34681,657	·30469,137	·26784,832	·20736,795
28	·50087,778	·43707,675	·38165,434	·33347,747	·29157,069	·25509,364	·19563,014
29	·48866,125	·42434,636	·36874,815	·32065,141	·27901,508	·24294,632	·18455,674
30	·47674,269	·41198,676	·35627,841	·30831,867	·26700,001	·23137,745	·17411,013
31	·46511,481	·39996,774	·34423,035	·29646,026	·25550,241	·22035,947	·16425,484
32	·45377,055	·38832,703	·33258,971	·28505,794	·24449,991	·20986,617	·15495,740
33	·44270,298	·37705,535	·32134,371	·27409,417	·23397,121	·19987,254	·14618,622
34	·43190,534	·36604,490	·31047,605	·26355,209	·22389,589	·19035,480	·13791,153
35	·42137,107	·35538,340	·29997,686	·25341,547	·21425,444	·18129,029	·13010,522
36	·41109,372	·34503,243	·28983,272	·24366,872	·20502,817	·17265,741	·12274,077
37	·40106,705	·33498,294	·28003,161	·23429,685	·19619,921	·16443,563	·11579,318
38	·39128,493	·32522,615	·27056,194	·22528,543	·18775,044	·15660,536	·10923,885
39	·38174,139	·31575,355	·26141,250	·21662,061	·17966,549	·14914,797	·10305,552
40	·37243,062	·30655,684	·25257,247	·20828,904	·17192,870	·14204,568	·09722,219
41	·36334,695	·29762,800	·24403,137	·20027,793	·16452,507	·13528,160	·09171,905
42	·35448,483	·28895,922	·23577,910	·19257,493	·15744,026	·12883,962	·08652,740
43	·34583,886	·28054,294	·22780,590	·18516,820	·15066,054	·12270,440	·08161,075
44	·33740,376	·27237,178	·22010,231	·17804,635	·14417,276	·11686,133	·07700,066
45	·32917,440	·26443,862	·21265,924	·17119,841	·13795,437	·11129,651	·07265,007
46	·32114,576	·25673,653	·20546,787	·16461,390	·13200,323	·10599,668	·06853,781
47	·31331,294	·24925,877	·19851,968	·15828,250	·12631,810	·10094,921	·06465,831
48	·30567,116	·24199,880	·19180,645	·15219,476	·12089,771	·09614,211	·06099,840
49	·29821,576	·23495,029	·18532,034	·14634,112	·11569,158	·09156,391	·05754,566
50	·29094,221	·22810,708	·17906,337	·14071,262	·11070,965	·08720,373	·05428,836
51	·28384,606	·22146,318	·17299,843	·13530,059	·10594,225	·08305,117	·05121,544
52	·27692,298	·21501,280	·16714,834	·13009,672	·10138,014	·07909,635	·04831,645
53	·27016,876	·20875,029	·16149,589	·12509,300	·09701,449	·07532,986	·04558,156
54	·26357,928	·20267,019	·15603,467	·12028,173	·09283,662	·07174,272	·04300,147
55	·25715,052	·19676,717	·15075,814	·11565,551	·08883,907	·06832,640	·04056,742
56	·25087,855	·19102,609	·14566,004	·11120,722	·08501,347	·06507,276	·03827,115
57	·24475,957	·18547,193	·14073,433	·10693,002	·08135,260	·06197,406	·03610,486
58	·23878,982	·18006,984	·13597,520	·10281,733	·07784,938	·05902,291	·03406,119
59	·23296,568	·17482,508	·13137,701	·09886,282	·07449,701	·05621,230	·03213,320
60	·22728,359	·16973,309	·12693,431	·09506,040	·07128,901	·05353,552	·03031,434
61	·22174,009	·16478,941	·12264,184	·09140,423	·06821,915	·05098,621	·02859,843
62	·21633,179	·15998,972	·11849,453	·08788,868	·06528,148	·04855,830	·02697,965
63	·21105,541	·15533,982	·11448,747	·08450,835	·06247,032	·04624,600	·02545,250
64	·20590,771	·15080,565	·11061,591	·08125,803	·05978,021	·04403,381	·02401,179
65	·20088,557	·14641,325	·10687,526	·07813,272	·05720,594	·04191,648	·02265,264
66	·19598,593	·14214,879	·10326,114	·07512,760	·05474,253	·03994,903	·02137,041
67	·19120,578	·13800,853	·09976,922	·07223,809	·05238,519	·03804,670	·02016,077
68	·18654,223	·13398,887	·09639,538	·06945,970	·05012,937	·03623,495	·01901,959
69	·18199,242	·13008,628	·09313,563	·06678,818	·04797,039	·03450,948	·01794,301
70	·17755,358	·12629,736	·08998,612	·0642[illegible]·210	·04590,497	·03286,617	·01692,737

III. Table showing the AMOUNT OF AN ANNUITY of £1 per Annum, improved at Compound Interest, at 2½, 3, 3½, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per Cent. at the End of each Year, from 1 to 70.

Years.	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent
1	1·00000,000	1·00000,000	1·00000,000	1·00000,000	1·00000,000	1·00000,000	1·00000,000
2	2·02500,000	2·03000,000	2·03500,000	2·04000,000	2·04500,000	2·05000,000	2·06000,000
3	3·07562,500	3·09090,000	3·10622,500	3·12160,000	3·13702,500	3·15250,000	3·18360,000
4	4·15251,562	4·18362,700	4·21494,287	4·24646,400	4·27819,112	4·31012,500	4·37461,600
5	5·25632,852	5·30913,581	5·36246,586	5·41632,256	5·47070,973	5·52563,125	5·63709,296
6	6·38773,673	6·46840,988	6·55015,218	6·63297,546	6·71689,166	6·80191,281	6·97831,854
7	7·54743,015	7·66246,218	7·77940,751	7·89829,448	8·01915,179	8·14200,845	8·39383,765
8	8·73611,590	8·89233,605	9·05168,677	9·21422,626	9·38001,362	9·54910,888	9·89746,791
9	9·93451,880	10·15910,613	10·36849,581	10·58279,531	10·80211,423	11·02656,432	11·49131,598
10	11·20336,177	11·46387,931	11·73139,316	12·00611,712	12·28820,937	12·57789,254	13·18079,494
11	12·48246,581	12·80779,569	13·14199,198	13·48635,141	13·84117,879	14·20678,716	14·97164,264
12	13·79555,397	14·19202,956	14·60196,164	15·02580,546	15·46403,184	15·91712,652	16·86994,120
13	15·14044,179	15·61779,045	16·11263,029	16·62683,768	17·15991,327	17·71298,285	18·88213,767
14	16·51895,284	17·08632,416	17·67698,636	18·29191,119	18·93211,937	19·59863,199	21·01506,593
15	17·93192,666	18·59891,389	19·29568,088	20·01358,764	20·78405,429	21·57856,359	23·27596,988
16	19·38022,483	20·15688,130	20·97102,971	21·82453,114	22·71933,673	23·65749,177	25·67252,806
17	20·86473,045	21·76158,774	22·70501,575	23·69751,239	24·74170,669	25·84036,636	28·21287,976
18	22·38634,871	23·41443,577	24·49969,130	25·64541,288	25·85306,370	28·13238,467	30·90565,255
19	23·94600,743	25·11686,844	26·35718,050	27·67122,940	29·06356,946	30·53900,391	33·75999,170
20	25·54465,761	26·87037,449	28·27068,181	29·77807,858	31·37142,977	33·06595,410	36·78559,120
21	27·18327,405	28·67648,572	30·23947,068	31·96920,172	33·78312,660	35·71925,181	39·99272,668
22	28·86285,590	30·53678,030	32·26890,315	34·24796,979	36·30237,795	38·50521,440	43·39229,028
23	30·58442,730	32·45288,370	34·46041,373	36·61788,858	38·93702,996	41·43047,512	46·99583,769
24	32·34903,798	34·42647,022	36·66552,821	39·08260,413	41·68919,631	44·50199,887	50·81557,795
25	34·15776,393	36·45926,432	38·94485,669	41·64590,830	44·56521,014	47·72709,882	54·86451,260
26	36·01170,803	38·55304,225	41·31310,168	44·31174,463	47·57064,460	51·11345,376	59·15638,378
27	37·91200,073	40·70963,352	43·75906,024	47·08421,441	50·71132,361	54·66912,645	63·70576,568
28	39·85980,075	42·93092,252	46·29062,734	49·96758,299	53·99333,317	58·40258,277	68·52811,162
29	41·85629,577	45·21885,020	48·91079,930	52·96628,631	57·42303,316	62·32271,191	73·63979,832
30	43·90270,316	47·57541,571	51·62367,728	56·08493,776	61·00706,966	66·43884,750	79·05818,622
31	46·00027,074	50·00267,818	54·43947,008	59·32233,527	64·75238,779	70·76078,988	84·80167,739
32	48·15027,751	52·50975,852	57·33450,247	62·70146,868	68·66624,594	75·29882,936	90·88977,803
33	50·35403,145	55·07784,128	60·34121,005	66·20952,743	72·75622,628	80·06377,083	97·34316,471
34	52·61288,531	57·73017,652	63·45315,340	69·85790,852	77·03025,646	85·06695,937	104·18375,460
35	54·92820,744	60·46208,181	66·67401,274	73·65222,487	81·49661,800	90·32030,734	111·43477,987
36	57·30141,263	63·27594,427	70·00760,318	77·59831,387	86·16396,581	95·83632,271	119·12066,666
37	59·73394,794	66·17422,259	73·45786,930	81·70224,642	91·04134,427	101·62813,884	127·26811,666
38	62·22729,664	69·15944,927	77·02889,472	85·97033,628	96·13820,476	107·76954,579	135·90420,378
39	64·78297,906	72·23423,275	80·72490,604	90·40914,973	101·46443,398	114·09502,308	145·05845,813
40	67·40255,354	75·40126,973	84·55087,775	95·02551,572	107·03088,306	120·79977,423	154·76196,562
41	70·08761,737	78·66329,782	88·50953,747	99·82653,635	112·84668,759	127·83976,294	165·04768,356
42	72·83980,781	82·02319,645	92·60737,128	104·81959,780	118·92478,854	135·23175,109	175·95054,457
43	75·66080,300	85·48389,234	96·84862,928	110·01238,171	125·27640,409	142·99333,864	187·50767,784
44	78·55232,308	89·04840,911	101·23823,130	115·41287,698	131·91284,229	151·14300,558	199·75803,188
45	81·51613,116	92·71986,139	105·78167,890	121·02939,206	138·84496,519	159·70015,586	212·74351,379
46	84·55403,443	96·50145,723	110·48403,145	126·87056,774	146·09681,362	168·68516,365	226·50812,462
47	87·66788,529	100·39650,095	115·35097,255	132·94539,045	153·67263,314	178·11942,183	241·09861,209
48	90·85958,243	104·40839,598	120·38825,659	139·26380,607	161·58790,163	188·02539,292	256·56452,882
49	94·13107,199	108·54064,785	125·60184,557	145·83373,431	169·85935,720	198·42666,257	272·95840,055
50	97·48434,879	112·79986,729	130·99791,016	152·66708,368	178·50302,928	209·34799,570	290·33590,458
51	100·92145,751	117·18077,331	136·58283,709	159·77376,703	187·53566,455	220·81539,548	308·75605,886
52	104·44449,395	121·69619,651	142·36323,631	167·16471,771	196·97476,946	232·85616,526	328·28142,239
53	108·05560,630	126·34708,240	148·34594,988	174·85130,642	206·83962,406	245·49697,352	348·97830,773
54	111·75699,645	131·13749,488	154·53805,763	182·84535,868	217·14657,261	258·77382,220	370·91700,620
55	115·55092,136	136·07161,973	160·94688,984	191·15917,302	227·91795,938	272·71251,331	394·17202,657
56	119·43969,440	141·15376,831	167·58003,099	199·80553,994	239·17426,755	287·34894,922	418·82234,816
57	123·42568,676	146·38878,136	174·44533,907	208·79776,154	250·93710,959	302·71566,168	444·95168,905
58	127·51132,893	151·78003,280	181·55091,589	218·14967,200	263·22027,953	318·85144,477	472·64879,039
59	131·69911,215	157·33243,379	188·90246,085	227·87565,888	276·04759,710	335·79401,700	502·00771,782
60	135·99156,995	163·05343,680	196·51668,298	237·99068,524	289·43795,397	353·58371,785	533·12818,089
61	140·39137,970	168·94508,991	204·39407,378	248·51031,265	303·41536,190	372·26290,375	566·11587,174
62	144·90116,419	175·01339,110	212·54879,786	259·45072,516	318·00400,319	391·87604,893	601·06282,404
63	149·52369,330	181·26379,284	220·98800,579	270·82875,416	333·23022,333	412·46985,138	638·14779,349
64	154·26175,563	187·70170,662	229·72358,599	282·66190,433	349·11023,608	434·09334,395	677·43666,110
65	159·11823,027	194·33275,782	238·76287,650	294·96838,050	365·66783,096	456·79801,115	719·09286,076
66	164·09598,853	201·16274,055	248·11957,718	307·76711,573	382·91853,235	480·63791,170	763·22783,941
67	169·19869,574	208·19762,277	257·80376,238	321·07780,035	401·88586,735	505·66980,729	810·02150,335
68	174·42966,313	215·44355,145	267·82689,406	334·92091,236	421·59253,136	531·95329,765	859·62279,349
69	179·78037,971	222·90665,800	278·20083,535	349·31774,886	442·05361,679	559·55096,254	912·20016,004
70	185·28411,421	230·59485,374	288·93786,459	364·29045,881	463·29067,955	588·52851,066	967·93216,964

IV. Table showing the PRESENT VALUE OF AN ANNUITY of £1 per Annum, to continue for any given Number of Years, from 1 to 70, reckoning Compound Interest, at 2½, 3, 3½, 4, 4½, 5, and 6 per Cent.

Years.	2½ per Cent.	3 per Cent.	3½ per Cent.	4 per Cent.	4½ per Cent.	5 per Cent.	6 per Cent.
1	0·97560,976	0·97087,379	0·96618,357	0·96153,846	0·95693,780	0·95238,095	0·94339,623
2	1·92742,415	1·91346,969	1·89969,487	1·88609,467	1·87266,775	1·85941,043	1·83339,267
3	2·85624,356	2·82861,135	2·80163,698	2·77509,103	2·74896,435	2·72321,803	2·67301,195
4	3·76197,421	3·71709,840	3·67307,921	3·62989,522	3·58752,570	3·54595,050	3·46510,561
5	4·64582,849	4·57970,719	4·51505,237	4·45182,233	4·39997,674	4·32947,667	4·21236,378
6	5·50812,536	5·41719,144	5·32855,308	5·24213,686	5·15787,248	5·07569,207	4·91732,422
7	6 34939,060	6·23028,295	6·11454,396	6·00205,467	5·89270,094	5·78637,340	5·58238,144
8	7·17013,717	7·01969,219	6·87395,553	6·73274,488	6·59588,607	6·46321,276	6·20979,381
9	7·97086,553	7·78610,892	7·60768,651	7·43533,161	7·26879,049	7·10782,167	6·80169,227
10	8·75206,393	8·53020,284	8·31660,528	8·11089,578	7·91271,818	7·72173,493	7·36008,705
11	9·51420,871	9·25262,410	9·00155,103	8·76047,671	8·52891,692	8·30641,422	7·88687,457
12	10·25776,460	9·95400,398	9·66333,433	9·38507,376	9·11858,078	8·86325,164	8·38384,393
13	10·98318,497	10·63495,532	10·30273,648	9·98564,785	9·68285,242	9·39357,299	8·85268,295
14	11·69091,217	11·29607,312	10·92552,027	10·56312,293	10·22282,528	9·89864,094	9·29498,392
15	12·38137,773	11·93793,507	11·51741,089	11·11838,744	10·73954,573	10·37965,804	9·71224,898
16	13·05500,266	12·56110,201	12·09411,681	11·65229,561	11·23401,505	10·83776,956	10·10589,526
17	13·71219,772	13·16611,845	12·65139,038	12·16566,886	11·70719,143	11·27406,625	10·47725,968
18	14·35336,363	13·75351,306	13·18968,173	12·65929,698	12·15999,180	11·68958,690	10·82760,347
19	14·97889,134	14·32379,909	13·70983,741	13 13893,940	12·59349,359	12·08532,086	11·15811,648
20	15·58916,228	14·87747,484	14·21240,330	13·59033,635	13·00793,645	12·46221,034	11·46992,121
21	16·18454,857	15·41502,413	14·69797,420	14·02915,993	13·40472,388	12·82115,271	11·76407,661
22	16·76543,824	15 93691,662	15·16712,483	14·45111,534	13·78442,476	13·16300,258	12·04158,171
23	17·33211,048	16·44360,837	15·62041,047	14·85684,167	14·14777,489	13·48857,388	12·30337,897
24	17·88498,583	16·93554,210	16·05836,760	15·24696,314	14·49547,837	13·79864,179	12·55035,752
25	18·42437,642	17·41314,766	16·48151,459	15·62207,995	14·82820,896	14·09394,457	12·78335,615
26	18·95061,114	17·87684,239	16·89035,226	15·98276,918	15·14661,145	14·37518,530	13·00316,618
27	19·46401,087	18·32703,145	17·28536,450	16·32958,575	15·45130,283	14·64303,362	13·21053,413
28	19·96488,865	18·76410,820	17·66701,884	16·66306,322	15·74287,351	14·89813,726	13·40616,426
29	20·45354,991	19·18845,456	18·03576,700	16·98371,464	16·02188,853	15·14107,358	13·59072,101
30	20·93029,259	19·60044,133	18·39204,541	17·29203,330	16·28888,854	15·37245,103	13·76483,115
31	21·39540,741	20·00042,847	18·73627,576	17·58849,356	16·54439,095	15·59281,050	13·92908,599
32	21·84917,796	20·38876,550	19·06886,547	17·87355,150	16·78889,086	15·80267,667	14·08404,338
33	22·29188,093	20·76579,175	19·39020,818	18·14764,567	17·02286,207	16·00254,921	14·23022,961
34	22·72378,628	21·13183,665	19·70068,423	18·41119,776	17 24675,796	16·19290,401	14·36814,114
35	23·14515,734	21·48722,004	20·00066,109	18·66461,323	17·46101,240	16·37419,429	14·49824,636
36	23·55625,107	21·83225,247	20·29049,381	18·90828,199	17·66604,058	16·54685,171	14·62098,713
37	23·95731,811	22·16723,541	20·57052,548	19·14257,880	17·86223,979	16·71128,734	14·73678,031
38	24·34860,304	22·49246,156	20·84108,736	19·36786,424	18·04999,023	16·86789,271	14·84601,916
39	24·73034,443	22·80821,510	21·10249,987	19·58448,484	18·22965,573	17·01704,067	14·94907,468
40	25·10277,505	23·11477,195	21·35507,234	19·79277,389	18·40158,443	17·15908,636	15·04629,687
41	25·46613,200	23·41239,995	21·59910,371	19·99305,181	18·56610,949	17·29436,796	15·13801,591
42	25·82060,683	23·70125,917	21·83488,281	20·18562,674	18·72354,976	17·42320,758	15·22454,331
43	26·16644,569	23·98190,211	22·06268,870	20·37079,494	18·87421,029	17·54591,198	15·30617,294
44	26·50384,945	24·25427,389	22·28279,102	20·54884,129	19·01838,306	17·66277,331	15·38318,209
45	26·83302,386	24·51871,251	22·49545,026	20·72003,970	19·15634,742	17·77406,982	15·45583,209
46	27·15416,968	24·77544,904	22·70091,812	20·88465,356	19·28837,074	17·88006,650	15·52436,990
47	27·46748,255	25·02470,780	22·89943,780	21·04293,612	19·41470,884	17·98101,571	15·58902,821
48	27·77315,371	25·26670,660	23·09124,435	21·19513,088	19·53560,655	18·07715,782	15·65002,661
49	28·07136,947	25·50165,689	23·27656,440	21·34147,200	19·65129,813	18·16872,173	15·70757,227
50	28·36231,168	25·72976,397	23·45561,787	21·48218,462	19·76200,778	18·25592,546	15·76186,063
51	28·64615,774	25·95122,716	23·62861,630	21·61748,521	19·86795,003	18·33897,663	15·81307,607
52	28·92308,072	26·16623,996	23·79576,454	21·74758,193	19·96933,017	18·41807,298	15·86139,252
53	29·19324,948	26·37499,025	23·95726,043	21·87267,493	20·06634,466	18·49340,284	15·90697,407
54	29·45682,877	26·57766,043	24·11329,510	21·99295,667	20·15918,149	18·56514,556	15·94997,554
55	29·71397,928	26·77442,761	24·26405,323	22·10861,218	20·24802,057	18·63347,196	15·99054,296
56	29·96485,784	26·96540,370	24·40971,327	22·21981,940	20·33303,404	18·69854,473	16·02881,412
57	30·20961,740	27·15093,563	24·55044,760	22·32674,943	20·41438,654	18·76051,879	16·06491,898
58	30·44840,722	27·33100,546	24·68642,281	22·42956,676	20·49223,018	18·81954,170	16·09898,017
59	30·68137,290	27·50583,053	24·81779,981	22·52842,957	20·56673,303	18·87575,400	16·13111,336
60	30·90865,649	27·67556,364	24·94473,413	22·62348,997	20·63804,594	18·92928,953	16·16142,770
61	31·13039,657	27·84025,304	25·06737,596	22·71489,421	20·70664,119	18·98027,574	16·19009,613
62	31·34672,836	28·00004,376	25·18587,049	22·80278,289	20·77152,967	19·02885,404	16·21700,579
63	31·55778,377	28·15567,258	25·30035,796	22·88729,124	20·83399,998	19·07508,003	16·24245,829
64	31·76369,148	28·30647,823	25·41097,388	22·96854,927	20·89377,319	19·11912,384	16·26647,008
65	31·96457,706	28·45289,149	25·51784,916	23·04666,199	20·95097,913	19·16107,033	16·28912,272
66	32·16056,298	28·59504,028	25·62111,030	23·12180,959	21·00572,165	19·20101,936	16·31049,313
67	32·35176,876	28·73304,881	25·72087,951	23·19404,768	21·05810,685	19·23906,606	16·33065,390
68	32·53831,099	28·86703,768	25·81727,489	23·26350,739	21·10823,622	19·27530,101	16 34967,349
69	32·72030,341	28·99712,396	25·91041,053	23·33029,556	21·15620,691	19·30981,048	16·36761,650
70	32·89785,698	29·12342,132	26·00039,564	23·39451,497	21·20211,187	19·34267,665	16 38454,387

V. Table of MORTALITY; showing the Number of Persons alive at the End of every Year, from 1 to 100 Years of Age, out of 1,000 born together, in the different Places, and according to the Authorities undermentioned.

Age.	England.			France.			Sweden.	Vienna.	Berlin.	Switzerland.	Silesia.	Holland.
	Simpson, London.	Price, Northampton.	Hayden, Carlisle.	Deparcieux, Annuitants, &c.	Dupré, Bad Population.	Duvillard, whole Population.	Wargentin, whole Population.	Barnard.	Sussmilch.	Muret, Pays de Vaud.	Kelly, Breslau.	Struyckens, Life Annuitants.
1	660	743	846	745	731	766	780	542	633	811	769	804
2	549	635	778	709	632	672	730	471	526	765	638	768
3	498	582	735	682	591	625	695	430	455	735	614	736
4	458	552	700	662	557	599	671	400	434	715	586	709
5	426	536	680	647	540	583	656	377	403	701	563	689
6	410	521	668	634	523	573	644	357	387	688	546	676
7	397	509	659	624	511	566	634	344	376	677	532	664
8	388	499	654	615	501	560	625	337	367	667	522	652
9	380	493	649	607	494	556	618	331	361	659	515	645
10	373	487	645	600	489	551	611	327	356	653	508	639
11	367	483	643	595	486	547	606	323	353	648	502	633
12	361	478	640	590	482	543	602	318	350	642	497	627
13	356	474	637	585	479	538	597	314	347	639	492	621
14	351	470	634	581	476	534	594	310	344	635	488	616
15	347	465	630	578	473	529	590	306	341	631	483	611
16	343	461	626	574	468	524	586	302	338	626	479	606
17	338	457	622	570	464	519	582	299	335	622	474	601
18	334	452	618	565	459	514	578	295	332	618	470	596
19	329	446	613	561	455	508	574	291	329	614	465	590
20	325	441	609	556	449	502	570	288	324	610	461	584
21	321	434	605	551	445	496	566	284	320	606	456	577
22	316	428	601	545	438	490	560	280	315	602	451	571
23	310	421	596	540	432	484	555	276	310	597	446	566
24	305	415	592	534	430	478	551	273	305	593	441	559
25	299	409	588	529	419	471	546	269	297	587	436	551
26	294	403	584	523	414	465	541	265	293	582	431	543
27	288	396	579	517	408	458	535	261	287	577	426	535
28	283	389	575	512	402	452	530	256	281	572	421	526
29	278	383	570	506	398	445	525	251	275	567	415	517
30	272	376	564	500	388	438	519	247	269	563	409	508
31	266	370	559	495	384	432	512	243	264	556	403	499
32	260	364	553	490	377	425	507	239	259	553	397	490
33	254	357	547	484	371	418	501	235	254	548	391	482
34	248	351	542	479	366	411	495	231	249	544	384	474
35	242	344	536	474	355	404	488	226	242	539	377	467
36	236	338	531	469	350	397	482	221	237	533	370	460
37	230	331	525	464	341	390	477	216	230	527	363	452
38	224	325	519	459	334	383	471	211	223	520	356	446
39	218	318	514	454	330	376	465	205	216	513	349	439
40	212	312	508	449	314	369	459	199	209	506	343	432
41	207	305	501	444	310	362	453	194	203	500	335	425
42	201	299	495	439	302	355	445	189	197	494	328	419
43	194	293	487	434	297	348	437	185	192	488	321	413
44	187	285	480	430	292	341	430	181	187	482	314	407
45	180	279	473	424	279	334	423	176	182	476	307	400
46	174	273	466	419	273	327	414	171	177	469	299	393
47	167	265	459	413	269	320	407	165	172	461	291	386
48	159	259	452	408	262	313	400	159	167	451	282	378
49	153	252	446	402	256	305	392	153	162	441	273	370
50	147	245	440	396	242	297	385	147	157	431	267	362
51	141	238	434	390	239	289	376	142	152	422	259	354
52	135	231	428	384	233	282	367	137	147	414	250	345
53	130	224	421	378	229	274	358	133	142	406	241	336
54	125	217	414	371	224	265	349	128	137	397	232	327
55	120	210	407	363	218	256	340	123	132	388	224	318
56	116	203	400	355	207	249	331	117	127	377	216	309
57	111	196	393	346	202	240	322	111	121	364	209	300
58	106	189	384	338	194	228	312	106	115	348	201	291
59	101	183	375	329	190	220	302	101	109	331	193	280
60	96	175	364	319	166	214	293	96	103	314	186	273
61	92	168	352	309	165	204	282	91	97	299	178	264
62	87	161	340	299	157	196	271	87	93	286	170	255
63	83	154	327	286	150	186	259	83	88	274	163	245
64	78	147	314	278	144	176	247	77	84	263	155	235
65	74	140	302	267	135	166	235	73	80	250	147	225
66	70	133	289	256	126	157	224	67	75	236	140	215
67	65	126	277	245	117	147	213	63	70	220	132	205
68	61	119	265	234	106	137	200	57	63	202	124	195
69	56	113	251	223	96	129	187	53	60	184	117	185
70	52	106	240	211	90	118	175	48	55	166	109	175
71	47	99	228	199	86	108	162	44	51	153	101	165
72	43	93	214	187	75	99	149	40	47	140	93	155
73	39	85	200	175	70	89	135	36	43	129	85	145
74	35	79	184	162	63	80	121	33	39	119	77	135
75	32	71	168	148	58	73	106	30	35	109	69	125

Age.	England.		
	Simpson, London.	Price, Northampton.	Hayden, Carlisle.
76	28	65	152
77	25	58	136
78	22	52	121
79	19	46	108
80	17	40	95
81	14	35	84
82	12	30	73
83	10	25	62
84	8	20	53
85	7	16	45
86	6	12	37
87	5	9	30
88	4	7	23
89	3	5	18
90	2	4	14
91	1	3	10
92		2	8
93		1	5
94		1	4
95			3
96			2
97			2
98			1
99			1
100			

VI. Table of the Progressiv according to Mr. Finlaison Tontines and Life Annuitie

Age.	Males	Females.	Age.	Males.
0	1,000	1,000	17	860
1	981	981	18	854
2	963	967	19	846
3	949	958	20	837
4	937	945	21	827
5	927	935	22	816
6	919	926	23	804
7	913	919	24	793
8	906	913	25	782
9	901	908	26	771
10	896	903	27	761
11	891	899	28	751
12	886	895	29	742
13	881	892	30	732
14	876	887	31	722
15	872	883	32	714
16	866	876	33	705

VII. Table showing the Exp

Age.	Expect.	Age.	Exp
0	25·16	17	35
1	32·74	18	34
2	37·79	19	33
3	39·55	20	33
4	40·58	21	32
5	40·84	22	32
6	41·07	23	31
7	41·03	24	31
8	40·79	25	30
9	40·36	26	30
10	39·78	27	29
11	39·14	28	29
12	38·49	29	28
13	37·83	30	28
14	32·17	31	27
15	36·51	32	27
16	35·85		

Table of Mortality.—(*continued.*)

Age.	England.			France.			Sweden.	Vienna.	Berlin.	Switzerland.	Silesia.	Holland.
	Equitable Society.	Price. Northampton.	Morgan. Carlisle.	Deparcieux. Annuitants, &c.	Buffon. Five Populations.	Duvillard. Whole Population.	Wargentin. Whole Population.	Kausler. Annuitants.	Süssmilch. Annuitants.	Muret. Peyrou and Tetzel.	Halley. Breslau.	Kersseboom. Life Annuitants.
78	26	65	152	134	47	63	96	27	22	98	61	114
77	25	58	136	120	42	56	84	24	20	85	53	103
76	23	52	121	106	36	48	75	21	18	71	55	93
75	19	46	106	94	34	41	65	18	23	58	38	82
80	17	40	95	81	33	35	56	16	20	45	32	72
81	14	35	84	70	21	29	47	14	18	36	25	62
82	12	30	73	59	18	24	39	12	16	29	22	53
83	10	25	62	49	15	19	31	10	14	24	18	45
84	8	20	53	40	12	15	24	8	12	20	15	38
85	7	16	45	33	10	12	19	7	10	17	12	31
86	6	12	37	26	8	9	14	6	8	14	9	25
87	5	9	30	21	7	7	11	5	7	11	6	19
88	4	7	23	16	5	6	8	4	6	9	4	14
89	2	5	18	12	4	5	6	3	5	7	2	10
90	2	4	14	8	3	4	5	2	4	5	1	7
91	1	3	10	5	2	3	3	1	3	4		5
92		2	8	3	2	2	2		2	3		4
93		1	5	1	2	2	1		1	2		2
94		1	4	1	1	2				1		1
95			3		1	1						
96			2			1						
97			2			1						
98			1									
99			1									
100												

VI. Table of the Progressive Decrement of Life among 1,000 Infants of each Sex, born together, according to Mr. Finlaison's Observations on the Mortality of the Nominees in the Government Tontines and Life Annuities in Great Britain.

Age.	Males.	Females.	Age.	Males.	Females.	Age.	Males.	Females.	Age.	Males.	Females.	Age.	Males.	Females.	Age.	Males.	Females.
0	1,000	1,000	17	860	870	34	696	748	51	552	616	68	322	442	85	56	117
1	981	981	18	854	863	35	687	740	52	542	608	69	305	429	86	44	103
2	963	967	19	846	855	36	679	732	53	531	601	70	288	415	87	34	89
3	949	955	20	837	848	37	670	724	54	520	593	71	270	395	88	24	76
4	937	945	21	827	841	38	662	716	55	508	585	72	253	377	89	17	64
5	927	935	22	816	834	39	653	708	56	495	576	73	235	358	90	11	52
6	919	926	23	804	827	40	644	700	57	482	568	74	218	339	91	7	41
7	913	919	24	793	820	41	636	692	58	468	559	75	202	319	92	4	30
8	906	913	25	782	813	42	627	685	59	454	549	76	185	298	93	2	21
9	901	908	26	771	805	43	619	677	60	440	539	77	171	277	94	1	14
10	896	903	27	761	798	44	610	669	61	426	529	78	156	255	95		8
11	891	899	28	751	791	45	602	661	62	413	519	79	141	233	96		5
12	886	895	29	742	784	46	594	654	63	399	508	80	125	210	97		2
13	881	892	30	732	777	47	586	646	64	385	496	81	110	189	98		1
14	876	887	31	723	770	48	578	638	65	370	484	82	95	168	99		
15	872	882	32	714	762	49	570	631	66	355	471	83	81	149	100		
16	866	876	33	705	755	50	561	623	67	339	457	84	68	132			

VII. Table showing the Expectation of Life at every Age, according to the Observations made at Northampton.

Age.	Expect.	Age.	Expect.	Age.	Expect.	Age.	Expect.	Age.	Expect.	Age.	Expect.
0	25·16	17	35·20	33	28·73	49	18·49	65	10·86	81	4·41
1	39·74	18	34·58	34	28·20	50	17·99	66	10·42	82	4·09
2	37·79	19	33·92	35	25·66	51	17·50	67	9·96	83	3·80
3	39·55	20	33·42	36	25·16	52	17·02	68	9·50	84	3·58
4	40·38	21	33·00	37	24·64	53	16·54	69	9·05	85	3·37
5	40·84	22	32·39	38	24·12	54	16·06	70	8·60	86	3·19
6	41·07	23	31·88	39	23·60	55	15·58	71	8·17	87	3·01
7	41·03	24	31·36	40	23·08	56	15·10	72	7·74	88	2·86
8	40·79	25	30·83	41	22·56	57	14·63	73	7·33	89	2·66
9	40·36	26	30·33	42	22·04	58	14·15	74	6·93	90	2·41
10	39·78	27	29·82	43	21·54	59	13·68	75	6·54	91	2·09
11	39·14	28	29·30	44	21·03	60	13·21	76	6·18	92	1·75
12	38·49	29	28·79	45	20·52	61	12·75	77	5·82	93	1·37
13	37·83	30	28·27	46	20·02	62	12·28	78	5·48	94	1·05
14	32·17	31	27·76	47	19·51	63	11·81	79	5·11	95	0·75
15	36·51	32	27·24	48	19·00	64	11·35	80	4·75	96	0·50
16	35·85										

VIII. Table showing the EXPECTATION OF LIFE at every Age, according to the Observations made at Carlisle.

Age.	Expect.	Age.	Expect.	Age.	Expect.	Age.	Expect.	Age.	Expect.	Age.	Expect.
0	38·72	16	42·87	36	30·32	53	18·97	70	9·19	87	3·71
1	44·66	17	42·17	37	29·64	54	18·26	71	8·65	88	3·59
2	47·55	18	41·46	38	28·96	55	17·56	72	8·16	89	3·47
3	49·62	21	40·75	39	28·28	56	16·89	73	7·72	90	3·36
4	50·76	22	40·04	40	27·61	57	16·21	74	7·32	91	3·26
5	51·25	23	39·31	41	26·97	58	15·55	75	7·01	92	3·17
6	51·17	24	38·59	42	26·34	59	14·91	76	6·69	93	3·08
7	50·80	25	37·86	43	25·71	60	14·24	77	6·40	94	3·53
8	50·24	26	37·14	44	25·09	61	13·58	78	6·13	95	3·53
9	49·57	27	36·41	45	24·46	62	13·31	79	5·80	96	3·46
10	48·82	28	35·69	46	23·82	63	12·81	80	5·51	97	3·39
11	48·04	29	35·00	47	23·17	64	12·30	81	5·21	98	3·07
12	47·27	30	34·34	48	22·50	65	11·79	82	4·92	99	2·77
13	46·51	31	33·68	49	21·81	66	11·27	83	4·65	100	2·26
14	45·75	32	33·03	50	21·11	67	10·75	84	4·39	101	1·70
15	45·00	33	32·36	51	20·39	68	10·23	85	4·13	102	1·26
16	44·27	34	31·69	52	19·68	69	9·70	86	3·90	103	0·83
17	43·57	35	31·00								

IX. Table giving a COMPARATIVE VIEW of the Results of the undermentioned Tables of Mortality, in Relation to the following Particulars.

	By Dr. Price's Table, founded on the Register of Births and Burials at Northampton.	By the First Swedish Table, as published by Dr. Price; for both Sexes.	By Mr. Deparcieux's Table, founded on the Mortality in the French Tontines, prior to 1745.	By Mr. Milne's Table, founded on the Mortality observed at Carlisle.	By Mr. Griffith Davies's Table, founded on Experience of the Equitable Life Insurance Office.	By Mr. Finlaison's Table, founded on the Experience of the Government Life Annuities.	
						According to his First Investigation, as mentioned in his Evidence in 1829.	According to his Second Investigation, as mentioned in his Evidence in 1857.
						Mean of both Sexes.	Mean of both Sexes.
Of 100,000 persons aged 25, there would be alive at the age of 65 - - - -	34,998	42,127	51,033	51,388	49,220	53,470	53,050
Of 100,000 persons aged 65, there would be alive at the age of 80 - - - -	26,736	23,704	29,597	31,577	27,207	26,658	27,355
Expectation of life at the age of 25 years	30·65	34·39	37·17	37·96	37·45	38·25	38·39
Expectation of life at the age of 65 years	10·68	10·10	11·25	11·79	12·25	12·61	12·50
Value of an annuity on a life aged 25, interest being at 4 per cent. - - - -	£16·426	£16·239	£17·480	£17·645	£17·494	£17·534	£17·534
Value of an annuity on a life aged 65, interest being at 4 per cent. - - - -	£7·761	£7·226	£8·230	£8·307	£8·235	£8·306	£8·751
Value of a deferred annuity commencing at 65, to a life now aged 25, interest at 4 per cent.	£0·55494	£0·62643	£0·65451	£0·66662	£0·67733	£0·66078	£0·66334

Note.—In all the Tables above mentioned, it is to be observed that the mortality is deduced from an equal, or nearly equal, number of each sex; with the single exception of Mr. Davies's Table, founded on the experience of the Equitable, in which office, from the practical objects of life insurance, it is evident the male sex must have composed the vast majority of lives subjected to mortality. But as it is agreed on all hands that the duration of life among females exceeds that of males, it follows that the results of Mr. Davies's Table fall materially short of what they would have been, if the facts on which he has reasoned had comprehended an equal number of each sex. The Tables have not, in all cases, been computed at 4½ per cent., the rate allowed by government.

X. Table showing the V

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.
1	16·031	13·465
2	18·599	15·623
3	19·575	16·462
4	20·210	17·010
5	20·472	17·248
6	20·727	17·482
7	20·853	17·611
8	20·886	17·662
9	20·812	17·625
10	20·663	17·523
11	20·490	17·393
12	20·283	17·251
13	20·061	17·103
14	19·872	16·950
15	19·667	16·791
16	19·435	16·625
17	19·218	16·462
18	19·013	16·309
19	18·820	16·167
20	18·636	16·033
21	18·470	15·912
22	18·311	15·797
23	18·148	15·680
24	17·983	15 560
25	17·814	15 436
26	17·642	15·312
27	17·467	15·184
28	17·280	15·053
29	17·107	14·918
30	16·928	14·781
31	16·738	14·639
32	16·540	14·495

XI. Table sh owing the

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.
1	20 065	16·656
2	21·501	17·726
3	22·053	18·717
4	22·285	19·233
5	23·693	19·598
6	23·846	19·747
7	23·867	19·790
8	23·801	19·766
9	23·677	19·693
10	23·512	19·585
11	23·327	19·460
12	23·143	19·336
13	22·957	19·210
14	22·769	19·082
15	22·582	18·956
16	22·404	18·837
17	22·228	18·723
18	22·058	18·609
19	21·879	18·488
20	21·694	18·363
21	21·504	18·233
22	21·306	18·095
23	21·096	17·951
24	20·885	17·801
25	20·665	17·645
26	20·442	17·486
27	20·219	17·326
28	19·981	17·154
29	19·761	16·997
30	19·556	16·850
31	19·349	16·702
32	19·134	16·553
33	18·910	16·399
34	18·675	16·241
35	18·433	16·084

X. Table showing the VALUE OF AN ANNUITY ON A SINGLE LIFE, according to the Northampton Table of Mortality.

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.
1	16·021	13·466	11·562	33	16·343	14·247	12·740	65	3·304	3·101	2·976
2	18·599	15·632	13·430	34	16·142	14·105	12·623	66	7·094	7·389	7·034
3	19·575	16·462	14·135	35	15·966	14·039	12·562	67	7·068	7·211	6·787
4	20·210	17·010	14·612	36	15·789	13·880	12·377	68	7·267	6·930	6·536
5	20·472	17·246	14·827	37	15·515	13·716	12·240	69	7·051	6·647	6·281
6	20·727	17·482	15·041	38	15·208	13·548	12·116	70	6·734	6·361	6·023
7	20·853	17·611	15·166	39	15·073	13·375	11·970	71	6·416	6·075	5·764
8	20·866	17·662	15·236	40	14·648	13·197	11·837	72	6·103	5·790	5·504
9	20·812	17·625	15·210	41	14·680	13·018	11·686	73	5·794	5·507	5·245
10	20·663	17·523	15·139	42	14·391	12·836	11·531	74	5·491	5·230	4·990
11	20·480	17·393	15·043	43	14·162	12·657	11·407	75	5·199	4·963	4·744
12	20·262	17·251	14·937	44	13·980	12·472	11·266	76	4·925	4·710	4·511
13	20·081	17·103	14·806	45	13·692	12·282	11·105	77	4·658	4·457	4·277
14	19·872	16·950	14·710	46	13·450	12·089	10·947	78	4·378	4·197	4·035
15	19·667	16·791	14·588	47	13·203	11·890	10·784	79	4·077	3·921	3·776
16	19·435	16·625	14·460	48	12·961	11·685	10·616	80	3·716	3·643	3·515
17	19·218	16·462	14·334	49	12·663	11·475	10·443	81	3·490	3·377	3·263
18	19·013	16·309	14·217	50	12·436	11·264	10·269	82	3·239	3·123	3·020
19	18·820	16·167	14·108	51	12·182	11·057	10·097	83	2·982	2·887	2·797
20	18·636	16·033	14·007	52	11·930	10·849	9·925	84	2·722	2·709	2·667
21	18·470	15·912	13·917	53	11·674	10·637	9·478	85	2·620	2·543	2·471
22	18·311	15·797	13·833	54	11·414	10·421	9·567	86	2·461	2·392	2·338
23	18·146	15·680	13·746	55	11·150	10·201	9·392	87	2·312	2·251	2·193
24	17·983	15·560	13·656	56	10·882	9·977	9·192	88	2·185	2·131	2·080
25	17·814	15·438	13·567	57	10·611	9·749	8·990	89	2·015	1·967	1·924
26	17·642	15·312	13·473	58	10·337	9·516	8·801	90	1·794	1·758	1·723
27	17·467	15·184	13·377	59	10·058	9·280	8·599	91	1·501	1·474	1·447
28	17·289	15·053	13·276	60	9·777	9·039	8·393	92	1·190	1·171	1·153
29	17·107	14·918	13·177	61	9·493	8·795	8·181	93	0·839	0·827	0·816
30	16·923	14·781	13·072	62	9·205	8·547	7·966	94	0·536	0·530	0·524
31	16·738	14·639	12·965	63	8·910	8·291	7·742	95	0·242	0·240	0·238
32	16·540	14·495	12·854	64	8·611	8·030	7·514	96	0·000	0·000	0·000

XI. Table showing the VALUE OF AN ANNUITY ON A SINGLE LIFE, according to the Carlisle Table of Mortality.

Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Age.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cen...	5 per Cent.
1	20·085	16·556	13·995	36	18·183	15·856	13·987	70	7·123	6·709	6·336
2	21·501	17·738	14·983	37	17·938	15·666	13·843	71	6·737	6·358	6·015
3	22·083	18·717	15·824	38	17·669	15·471	13·695	72	6·373	6·026	5·711
4	22·285	19·232	16·271	39	17·405	15·272	13·542	73	6·044	5·725	5·435
5	23·093	19·592	16·590	40	17·143	15·074	13·390	74	5·758	5·456	5·190
6	23·845	19·747	16·735	41	16·890	14·883	13·245	75	5·512	5·230	4·989
7	23·867	19·790	16·790	42	16·640	14·694	13·101	76	5·277	5·024	4·798
8	23·801	19·766	16·786	43	16·389	14·505	12·957	77	5·050	4·825	4·609
9	23·677	19·693	16·742	44	16·130	14·308	12·806	78	4·836	4·628	4·422
10	23·518	19·585	16·669	45	15·863	14·104	13·648	79	4·622	4·394	4·210
11	23·327	19·450	16·581	46	15·585	13·889	13·480	80	4·365	4·183	4·015
12	23·143	19·326	16·494	47	15·294	13·668	13·301	81	4·119	3·953	3·799
13	22·937	19·210	16·406	48	14·996	13·419	13·107	82	3·908	3·746	3·606
14	22·769	19·088	16·316	49	14·654	13·153	11·893	83	3·673	3·534	3·408
15	22·583	18·956	16·227	50	14·303	12·869	11·660	84	3·454	3·329	3·211
16	22·404	18·827	16·144	51	13·928	12·566	11·410	85	3·239	3·115	3·009
17	22·228	18·783	16·066	52	13·558	12·258	11·154	86	3·033	2·908	2·820
18	22·056	18·608	15·987	53	13·180	11·946	10·893	87	2·872	2·776	2·685
19	21·879	18·488	15·904	54	12·798	11·627	10·624	88	2·776	2·662	2·567
20	21·694	18·363	15·817	55	12·408	11·300	10·347	89	2·666	2·577	2·495
21	21·504	18·233	15·726	56	12·014	10·968	10·063	90	2·490	2·416	2·339
22	21·304	18·095	15·628	57	11·614	10·625	9·771	91	2·481	2·396	2·321
23	21·098	17·951	15·525	58	11·219	10·290	9·478	92	2·577	2·492	2·412
24	20·885	17·801	15·417	59	10·811	9·933	9·190	93	2·667	2·600	2·518
25	20·665	17·645	15·303	60	10·491	9·653	8·940	94	2·726	2·650	2·569
26	20·442	17·486	15·187	61	10·180	9·398	8·712	95	2·757	2·674	2·596
27	20·212	17·320	15·065	62	9·875	9·137	8·487	96	2·704	2·626	2·555
28	19·981	17·154	14·943	63	9·567	8·872	8·256	97	2·559	2·492	2·428
29	19·761	16·997	14·827	64	9·246	8·593	8·016	98	2·386	2·329	2·273
30	19·556	16·852	14·723	65	8·917	8·307	7·765	99	2·131	2·087	2·045
31	19·348	16·705	14·617	66	8·578	8·010	7·503	100	1·663	1·631	1·604
32	19·134	16·553	14·506	67	8·228	7·700	7·227	101	1·288	1·270	1·198
33	18·910	16·390	14·387	68	7·860	7·380	6·941	102	0·771	0·762	0·752
34	18·675	16·219	14·260	69	7·490	7·049	6·643	103	0·384	0·381	0·317
35	18·433	16·041	14·127								

XII. Table showing the VALUE OF AN ANNUITY ON THE JOINT CONTINUANCE OF TWO LIVES OF EQUAL AGES, according to the Northampton Table of Mortality.

Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.
1 & 1	9·490	8·252	7·287	33 & 33	13·079	10·902	9·212	65 & 65	5·471	5·201	4·960
2— 2	12·789	11·107	9·793	34 — 34	11·902	10·759	9·801	66 — 66	5·231	4·998	4·779
3— 3	14·191	12·325	10·862	35 — 35	11·722	10·612	9·680	67 — 67	4·989	4·760	4·555
4— 4	15·181	13·185	11·631	36 — 36	11·530	10·462	9·555	68 — 68	4·747	4·537	4·348
5— 5	15·838	13·591	11·984	37 — 37	11·351	10·307	9·427	69 — 69	4·504	4·318	4·140
6— 6	16·099	14·005	12·358	38 — 38	11·160	10·149	9·294	70 — 70	4·281	4·087	3·930
7— 7	16·375	14·224	12·596	39 — 39	10·964	9·986	9·158	71 — 71	4·020	3·868	3·719
8— 8	16·510	14·299	12·731	40 — 40	10·764	9·820	9·016	72 — 72	3·781	3·639	3·510
9— 9	16·483	14·206	12·744	41 — 41	10·565	9·654	8·876	73 — 73	3·548	3·421	3·304
10—10	16·339	14·077	12·669	42 — 42	10·369	9·491	8·737	74 — 74	3·324	3·211	3·105
11—11	16·143	14·123	12·546	43 — 43	10·175	9·326	8·599	75 — 75	3·114	3·015	2·917
12—12	15·926	13·966	12·411	44 — 44	9·977	9·161	8·457	76 — 76	2·926	2·833	2·740
13—13	15·702	13·789	12·266	45 — 45	9·775	8·990	8·312	77 — 77	2·741	2·656	2·568
14—14	15·470	13·604	12·116	46 — 46	9·571	8·815	8·162	78 — 78	2·550	2·470	2·410
15—15	15·229	13·411	11·960	47 — 47	9·363	8·637	8·008	79 — 79	2·338	2·271	2·217
16—16	14·979	13·212	11·793	48 — 48	9·149	8·453	7·849	80 — 80	2·122	2·068	2·018
17—17	14·737	13·019	11·630	49 — 49	8·930	8·266	7·686	81 — 81	1·917	1·869	1·827
18—18	14·516	12·841	11·483	50 — 50	8·714	8·080	7·522	82 — 82	1·719	1·681	1·642
19—19	14·316	12·679	11·351	51 — 51	8·507	7·900	7·366	83 — 83	1·538	1·510	1·473
20—20	14·133	12·535	11·232	52 — 52	8·304	7·723	7·213	84 — 84	1·416	1·387	1·357
21—21	13·974	12·409	11·131	53 — 53	8·096	7·544	7·056	85 — 85	1·309	1·289	1·256
22—22	13·830	12·293	11·042	54 — 54	7·891	7·361	6·897	86 — 86	1·218	1·195	1·171
23—23	13·683	12·179	10·951	55 — 55	7·681	7·179	6·735	87 — 87	1·141	1·124	1·098
24—24	13·534	12·068	10·858	56 — 56	7·470	6·993	6·571	88 — 88	1·103	1·030	1·063
25—25	13·383	11·944	10·764	57 — 57	7·256	6·805	6·404	89 — 89	1·036	1·015	1·001
26—26	13·230	11·823	10·667	58 — 58	7·041	6·614	6·234	90 — 90	0·938	0·928	0·909
27—27	13·074	11·699	10·567	59 — 59	6·826	6·421	6·062	91 — 91	0·769	0·756	0·743
28—28	12·915	11·573	10·466	60 — 60	6·606	6·226	5·888	92 — 92	0·591	0·583	0·576
29—29	12·754	11·445	10·362	61 — 61	6·386	6·030	5·712	93 — 93	0·369	0·365	0·361
30—30	12·589	11·313	10·255	62 — 62	6·166	5·831	5·533	94 — 94	0·203	0·201	0·199
31—31	12·422	11·179	10·146	63 — 63	5·938	5·626	5·347	95 — 95	0·060	0·060	0·059
32—32	12·252	11·042	10·034	64 — 64	5·709	5·417	5·158	96 — 96	0·000	0·000	0·000

XIII. Table showing the VALUE OF AN ANNUITY ON THE JOINT CONTINUANCE OF TWO LIVES OF EQUAL AGES, according to the Carlisle Table of Mortality.

Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.
1 & 1	14·079	11·994	10·299	36 & 36	13·477	12·019	11·037	70 & 70	4·556	4.367	4·191
2— 2	16·155	13·671	11·793	37 — 37	14·231	12·794	11·470	71 — 71	4·217	4·050	3·893
3— 3	18·030	15·260	13·162	38 — 38	13·981	12·525	11·209	72 — 72	3·904	3·755	3·615
4— 4	19·065	16·147	13·932	39 — 39	13·737	12·262	11·144	73 — 73	3·631	3·497	3·371
5— 5	19·815	16·801	14·507	40 — 40	13·481	12·125	10·984	74 — 74	3·400	3·279	3·165
6— 6	20·156	17·112	14·789	41 — 41	13·254	11·945	10·839	75 — 75	3·231	3·119	3·015
7— 7	20·280	17·242	14·917	42 — 42	13·036	11·772	10·701	76 — 76	3·068	2·966	2·870
8— 8	20·261	17·251	14·942	43 — 43	13·823	11·602	10·566	77 — 77	2·927	2·833	2·744
9— 9	20·146	17·179	14·898	44 — 44	13·600	11·426	10·425	78 — 78	2·784	2·698	2·617
10—10	19·963	17·049	14·803	45 — 45	13·371	11·243	10·278	79 — 79	2·610	2·533	2·460
11—11	19·748	16·891	14·684	46 — 46	13·138	11·047	10·119	80 — 80	2·459	2·390	2·324
12—12	19·538	16·737	14·568	47 — 47	11·870	10·837	9·947	81 — 81	2·283	2·222	2·163
13—13	19·337	16·582	14·450	48 — 48	11·591	10·607	9·756	82 — 82	2·125	2·079	2·027
14—14	19·115	16·425	14·331	49 — 49	11·279	10·345	9·535	83 — 83	1·978	1·929	1·882
15—15	18·908	16·272	14·215	50 — 50	10·942	10·059	9·291	84 — 84	1·825	1·782	1·741
16—16	18·719	16·134	14·113	51 — 51	10·579	9·748	9·023	85 — 85	1·657	1·619	1·583
17—17	18·542	16·007	14·018	52 — 52	10·215	9·434	8·751	86 — 86	1·509	1·476	1·444
18—18	18·365	15·880	13·925	53 — 53	9·849	9·117	8·474	87 — 87	1·389	1·359	1·331
19—19	18·182	15·748	13·827	54 — 54	9·480	8·796	8·193	88 — 88	1·338	1·301	1·275
20—20	17·993	15·610	13·724	55 — 55	9·103	8·465	7·900	89 — 89	1·248	1·223	1·199
21—21	17·797	13·466	13·616	56 — 56	8·721	8·128	7·600	90 — 90	1·088	1·066	1·044
22—22	17·598	15·319	13·497	57 — 57	8·334	7·783	7·293	91 — 91	1·030	1·008	1·007
23—23	17·373	15·148	13·372	58 — 58	7·954	7·444	7·988	92 — 92	1·130	1·006	1·073
24—24	17·148	14·978	13·240	59 — 59	7·605	7·131	6·705	93 — 93	1·236	1·199	1·173
25—25	16·916	14·800	13·101	60 — 60	7·295	6·854	6·456	94 — 94	1·302	1·273	1·245
26—26	16·681	14·620	12·960	61 — 61	7·044	6·630	6·257	95 — 95	1·333	1·353	1·323
27—27	16·437	14·431	12·811	62 — 62	6·804	6·417	6·067	96 — 96	1·424	1·394	1·364
28—28	16·196	14·244	12·663	63 — 63	6·563	6·202	5·875	97 — 97	1·395	1·366	1·339
29—29	15·976	14·075	12·530	64 — 64	6·308	5·974	5·669	98 — 98	1·375	1·349	1·323
30—30	15·784	13·930	12·419	65 — 65	6·047	5·738	5·456	99 — 99	1·294	1·272	1·251
31—31	15·591	13·784	12·308	66 — 66	5·774	5·490	5·230	100 — 100	0·991	0·976	0·962
32—32	15·393	13·632	12·191	67 — 67	5·486	5·238	4·990	101 — 101	0·687	0·679	0·670
33—33	15·180	13·469	12·061	68 — 68	5·188	4·954	4·737	102 — 102	0·387	0·383	0·379
34—34	14·954	13·294	11·926	69 — 69	4·877	4·666	4·471	103 — 103	0·109	0·107	0·106
35—35	14·720	13·111	11·780								

XIV. Table showing the VA
DIFFERENCE OF AGE

Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.
1& 6	13·346	10·741
2— 7	14·461	12·561
3— 8	15·300	13·319
4— 9	15·809	13·775
5—10	15·974	13·933
6—11	16·110	14·068
7—12	16 137	14·111
8—13	16·089	14·089
9—14	15·937	13·992
10—15	15·763	13·841
11—16	15·538	13·664
12—17	15·308	13·480
13—18	15·086	13·303
14—19	14·870	13·130
15—20	14·660	12·961
16—21	14·457	12·799
17—22	14·265	12·646
18—23	14·082	12·500
19—24	13·908	12·361
20—25	13·741	12·229
21—26	13·584	12·105
22—27	13·433	11·987
23—28	13·280	11·866
24—29	13·124	11·743
25—30	12·966	11·618
26—31	12·805	11·489
27—32	12·641	11·359
28—33	12·474	11·225
29—34	12 304	11·088
30—35	12·131	10·948
31—36	11·956	10·805

XV. Table showing the VA
DIFFERENCE OF A

Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.
1& 6	16·828	14·269
2— 7	18·087	15·341
3— 8	19·100	16·214
4— 9	19·884	16·644
5—10	19·874	16·913
6—11	19·935	16·989
7—12	19·889	16·975
8—13	19·771	16·900
9—14	19·666	16·785
10—15	19·410	16·643
11—16	19·208	16·495
12—17	19·014	16·354
13—18	18·820	16·213
14—19	18·623	16·068
15—20	18·423	15·922
16—21	18·230	15·781
17—22	18·036	15·639
18—23	17·838	15·493
19—24	17·633	15·341
20—25	17·421	15·183
21—26	17·204	15·019
22—27	16·917	14·846
23—28	16·747	14·670
24—29	16·534	14·500
25—30	16·311	14·339
26—31	16·097	14·176
27—32	15·875	14·009
28—33	15·648	13·836
29—34	15·424	13·657
30—35	15·209	13·491
31—36	14·980	13·32
32—37	14·764	13·14
33—38	14·531	12·96

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XIV. Table showing the VALUE OF AN ANNUITY on the Joint Continuance of Two Lives, when the DIFFERENCE OF AGE IS FIVE YEARS, according to the Northampton Table of Mortality.

Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.
1 & 6	13·246	10·741	9·479	32 & 37	11·775	10·659	9·716	62 & 67	5·503	5·285	4·966
2 — 7	14·461	12·581	11·100	33 — 38	11·591	10·508	9·591	63 — 68	5·265	5·017	4·736
3 — 8	15·300	13·319	11·755	34 — 39	11·404	10·354	9·463	64 — 69	5·025	4·798	4·585
4 — 9	15·809	13·775	12·165	35 — 40	11·213	10·196	9·331	65 — 70	4·782	4·573	4·378
5 — 10	15·974	13·933	12·315	36 — 41	11·021	10·037	9·196	66 — 71	4·540	4·349	4·169
6 — 11	16·110	14·068	12·447	37 — 42	10·828	9·877	9·062	67 — 72	4·296	4·124	3·960
7 — 12	16·137	14·111	12·498	38 — 43	10·634	9·716	8·927	68 — 73	4·059	3·901	3·752
8 — 13	16·089	14·089	12·492	39 — 44	10·437	9·550	8·787	69 — 74	3·825	3·683	3·547
9 — 14	15·957	13·992	12·421	40 — 45	10·235	9·381	8·642	70 — 75	3·599	3·471	3·347
10 — 15	15·763	13·841	12·302	41 — 46	10·033	9·210	8·497	71 — 76	3·386	3·270	3·159
11 — 16	15·538	13·664	12·156	42 — 47	9·829	9·037	8·350	72 — 77	3·175	3·070	2·971
12 — 17	15·308	13·480	12·009	43 — 48	9·623	8·862	8·200	73 — 78	2·963	2·869	2·780
13 — 18	15·086	13·303	11·864	44 — 49	9·414	8·683	8·046	74 — 79	2·743	2·659	2·580
14 — 19	14·870	13·130	11·723	45 — 50	9·204	8·503	7·891	75 — 80	2·526	2·448	2·381
15 — 20	14·660	12·961	11·585	46 — 51	8·997	8·326	7·737	76 — 81	2·325	2·258	2·195
16 — 21	14·457	12·799	11·452	47 — 52	8·790	8·147	7·582	77 — 82	2·131	2·077	2·013
17 — 22	14·265	12·646	11·327	48 — 53	8·579	7·965	7·424	78 — 83	1·947	1·899	1·838
18 — 23	14·082	12·500	11·209	49 — 54	8·366	7·780	7·262	79 — 84	1·792	1·751	1·750
19 — 24	13·908	12·361	11·096	50 — 55	8·151	7·593	7·098	80 — 85	1·645	1·608	1·573
20 — 25	13·741	12·229	10·989	51 — 56	7·910	7·409	6·936	81 — 86	1·510	1·478	1·447
21 — 26	13·584	12·105	10·890	52 — 57	7·720	7·225	6·774	82 — 87	1·385	1·356	1·329
22 — 27	13·433	11·987	10·796	53 — 58	7·518	7·039	6·609	83 — 88	1·284	1·259	1·235
23 — 28	13·289	11·866	10·699	54 — 59	7·304	6·850	6·442	84 — 89	1·187	1·164	1·145
24 — 29	13·194	11·743	10·600	55 — 60	7·088	6·659	6·272	85 — 90	1·074	1·054	1·038
25 — 30	12·956	11·618	10·499	56 — 61	6·870	6·465	6·100	86 — 91	0·921	0·902	0·892
26 — 31	12·805	11·489	10·396	57 — 62	6·651	6·270	5·925	87 — 92	0·755	0·736	0·734
27 — 32	12·641	11·359	10·289	58 — 63	6·427	6·070	5·744	88 — 93	0·561	0·554	0·547
28 — 33	12·474	11·225	10·181	59 — 64	6·201	5·867	5·561	89 — 94	0·377	0·373	0·369
29 — 34	12·304	11·088	10·069	60 — 65	5·970	5·658	5·373	90 — 95	0·179	0·177	0·175
30 — 35	12·131	10·948	9·954	61 — 66	5·737	5·447	5·180	91 — 96	0·000	0·000	0·000
31 — 36	11·955	10·805	9·837								

XV. Table showing the VALUE OF AN ANNUITY on the Joint Continuance of Two Lives, when the DIFFERENCE OF AGE IS FIVE YEARS, according to the Carlisle Table of Mortality.

Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.	Ages.	3 per Cent.	4 per Cent.	5 per Cent.
1 & 6	16·828	14·269	12·231	34 & 39	14·290	12·773	11·508	67 & 72	4·580	4·286	4·007
2 — 7	18·087	15·341	13·238	35 — 40	14·048	12·561	11·354	68 — 73	4·297	4·123	3·961
3 — 8	19·100	16·214	14·019	36 — 41	13·813	12·394	11·204	69 — 74	4·035	4·678	3·731
4 — 9	19·584	16·644	14·402	37 — 42	13·579	12·209	11·056	70 — 75	4·804	3·661	3·528
5 — 10	19·874	16·913	14·649	38 — 43	13·346	12·024	10·907	71 — 76	3·568	3 439	3·319
6 — 11	19·935	16·989	14·731	39 — 44	13·107	11·833	10·753	72 — 77	3·353	3·237	3·127
7 — 12	19·889	16·975	14·736	40 — 45	12·868	11·641	10·598	73 — 78	3·152	3·047	2·948
8 — 13	19·771	16·900	14·689	41 — 46	12·630	11·450	10·444	74 — 79	2·958	2·857	2·767
9 — 14	19·606	16·785	14·606	42 — 47	12·389	11·256	10·287	75 — 80	2·790	2·704	2·623
10 — 15	19·410	16·643	14·500	43 — 48	12·139	11·053	10·121	76 — 81	2·615	2·540	2·467
11 — 16	19·208	16·495	14·389	44 — 49	11·868	10·830	9·937	77 — 82	2·471	2·400	2·333
12 — 17	19·014	16·354	14·284	45 — 50	11·580	10·591	9·737	78 — 83	2·318	2·255	2·194
13 — 18	18·820	16·213	14·178	46 — 51	11·271	10·322	9·519	79 — 84	2·155	2·099	2·045
14 — 19	18·633	16·068	14·069	47 — 52	10·955	10·065	9·293	80 — 85	1·993	1·943	1·893
15 — 20	18·423	15·922	13·959	48 — 53	10·638	9·787	9·054	81 — 86	1·834	1·790	1·747
16 — 21	18·230	15·781	13·853	49 — 54	10·284	9·493	8·799	82 — 87	1·704	1·664	1·626
17 — 22	18·036	15·639	13·746	50 — 55	9·924	9·181	8·528	83 — 88	1·606	1·569	1·535
18 — 23	17·838	15·493	13·636	51 — 56	9·509	8·855	8·242	84 — 89	1·496	1·464	1·423
19 — 24	17·633	15·341	13·520	52 — 57	9·172	8·594	7·950	85 — 90	1·835	1·307	1·279
20 — 25	17·421	15·182	13·398	53 — 58	8·797	8·194	7·657	86 — 91	1·255	1·220	1·203
21 — 26	17·204	15·019	13·272	54 — 59	8·439	7·876	7·375	87 — 92	1·245	1·218	1·193
22 — 27	16·917	14·846	13·137	55 — 60	8·096	7·574	7·106	88 — 93	1·272	1·245	1·219
23 — 28	16·747	14·670	13·000	56 — 61	7·768	7·299	6·860	89 — 94	1·266	1·240	1·214
24 — 29	16·594	14·500	12·867	57 — 62	7·480	7·045	6·615	90 — 95	1·217	1·191	1·167
25 — 30	16·311	14·339	12·742	58 — 63	7·175	6·752	6·370	91 — 96	1·210	1·185	1·161
26 — 31	16·097	14·176	12·615	59 — 64	6·875	6·488	6·127	92 — 97	1·230	1·205	1·181
27 — 32	15·875	14·006	12·482	60 — 65	6·589	6·225	5·89	93 — 98	1·262	1·238	1·215
28 — 33	15·648	13·830	12·344	61 — 66	6·323	5·986	5·678	94 — 99	1·234	1·212	1·191
29 — 34	15·424	13·657	12·206	62 — 67	6·054	5·742	5·458	95 — 100	1·072	1·053	1·038
30 — 35	15·209	13·491	12·078	63 — 68	5·779	5·493	5·230	96 — 101	0·851	0·839	0·828
31 — 36	14·989	13·321	11·944	64 — 69	5·490	5·249	4·988	97 — 102	0·568	0·562	0·555
32 — 37	14·764	13·146	11·806	65 — 70	5·193	4·996	4·737	98 — 103	0·254	0·252	0·249
33 — 38	14·531	12·964	11·661	66 — 71	4·882	4·667	4·469				

The Northampton Table (No. 7.), by under-rating the duration of life, was a very advantageous guide for the insurance offices to go by in insuring lives; but to whatever extent it might be beneficial to them in this respect, it became equally injurious when they adopted it as a guide in selling annuities. And yet, singular as it may seem, some of the insurance offices granted annuities on the *same* terms that they insured lives; not perceiving that, if they gained by the latter transaction, they must obviously lose by the former. Government also continued for a lengthened period to sell annuities according to the Northampton Tables, and without making any distinction between male and female lives! A glance at the Tables of M. Deparcieux ought to have satisfied them that they were proceeding on entirely false principles. But, in despite even of the admonitions of some of the most skilful mathematicians, this system was persevered in until within these few years! We understand that the loss thence arising to the public may be moderately estimated at 2,000,000*l.* sterling. Nor will this appear a large sum to those who recollect that, supposing interest to be 4 per cent., there is a difference of no less than 9*l.* 1*s.* in the value of an annuity of 50*l.* for life, to a person aged 45, between the Northampton and Carlisle Tables.

INVOICE, an account of goods or merchandise sent by merchants to their correspondents at home or abroad, in which the peculiar marks of each package, with other particulars, are set forth.—(See example, vol. i. p. 207.)

IONIAN ISLANDS, the name given to the islands of Corfu, Paxo, Santa Maura, Ithaca, Cephalonia, Zante, Cerigo, and their dependent islets. With the exception of Cerigo, which lies opposite to the south-eastern extremity of the Morea, the rest lie pretty contiguous, along the western coasts of Epirus and Greece; the most northerly point of Corfu being in lat. 39° 48′ 15″ N., and the most southerly point of Zante (Cape Kieri, on which there is a light-house) being in lat. 37° 38′ 35″ N. Kapesli, the port of Cerigo, is in lat. 36° 7′ 30″ N., lon. 23° E.

The area and present population of the different islands may be estimated as follows:—

Islands.	Area in Square Miles, 15 to a Degree.	Population.
Corfu	10·76	59,836
Cephalonia	16·20	56,589
Zante	5·60	35,423
Santa Maura	5·25	18,106
Ithaca and Calamos	3·25	9,367
Cerigo and Cerigotto	4·50	8,550
Paxo and Antipaxo	1·90	4,953
Totals	47·12*	192,824

Soil and Climate.—These are very various—Zante is the most fruitful. It consists principally of an extensive plain, occupied by plantations of currants, and having an air of luxuriant fertility and richness. Its climate is comparatively equal and fine, but it is very subject to earthquakes. Corfu and Cephalonia are more rugged and less fruitful than Zante; and the former from its vicinity to the snowy mountains of Epirus, and the latter from the Black Mountain (the Mount Ænos of antiquity) in its interior, are exposed in winter to great and sudden variations of temperature. In January, 1823, the cold was more rigorous than usual, the frost damaging to a great extent the oranges and vines of these islands and those of Santa Maura. The latter is, in the hot season, exceedingly unhealthy,—a consequence of the vapours arising from the marshes, and the shallow seas to the N. E. Cerigo is rocky and sterile; it is subject to continued gales, and the currents seldom permit its waters to remain unruffled.

History, Government, &c.—These islands have undergone many vicissitudes. Corfu, the ancient Corcyra, was famous in antiquity for its naval power, and for the contest between it and its mother state Corinth, which eventually terminated in the Peloponnesian war. Ithaca, the kingdom of Ulysses; Cephalonia, sometimes called Dulichium, from the name of one of its cities; Zante, or Zacynthus; Santa Maura, known to the ancients by the names of Leucas or Leucadia, celebrated for its promontory, surmounted by a temple of Apollo, whence Sappho precipitated herself into the ocean; and Cerigo, or Cythera, the birth-place of Helen, and sacred to Venus;—have all acquired an immortality of renown. But, on comparing their present with their former state, we may well exclaim,—

Hos quantum hæc Niobe, Niobe distabat ab illâ!—

After innumerable revolutions, they fell, about 350 years ago, under the dominion of Venice. Since the downfall of that republic, they have had several protectors, or rather masters, being successively under the dominion of the Russians, the French, and the English. By the treaty of Paris, in 1815, they were formed into a sort of semi-independent state. They enjoy an internal government of their own, under the protection of Great Britain; a Lord High Commissioner, appointed by the king of England, having charge of the foreign relations, and of the internal, maritime, and sanitary police. His Majesty's commander-in-chief has the custody of the fortresses, and the disposal of the forces. It is stipulated in the treaty of Paris, that the islands may be called upon for the pay and subsistence of 2,000 men, as well as for the repair of their fortresses occupied by the British troops. The executive government is vested in a president nominated by the commissioner, and a senate of 5 members (1 for each of the larger islands of Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, and Santa Maura, and 1 representing collectively the smaller ones of Ithaca, Cerigo, and Paxo, by each of which he is elected in rotation). The senators are elected at the commencement of every quinquennial parliament (subject to a negative from the commissioner) from a legislative chamber of 40 members, themselves elected by the constituencies of the different islands, for 5 years. The senate and legislative assembly, together with the commissioner, are thus the supreme authority: they are, when united, termed the Parliament, and, as such, pass, amend, and repeal laws, in the mode prescribed by the constitution of 1817. Besides the general government, there is in each island a local administration, composed of a regent, named by the senate, and from 2 to 5 municipal officers elected by their fellow citizens.

The State of Society, in these islands, is far from being good, and was formerly the most depraved imaginable. The people, when they were placed under the ægis of England, were at once lazy, ignorant, superstitious, cowardly, and bloodthirsty. Their vice may, we believe, be, in a great degree, ascribed to the government and religion established amongst them. The latter consisted of little more than a series of fasts and puerile observances; while the former was both weak and corrupt. The Venetians appointed to situations of power and emolument belonged mostly to noble but decayed families, and looked upon their offices merely as means by which they might repair their shattered fortunes. Hence the grossest corruption pervaded every department. There was no crime for which impunity might not be purchased. Justice, in fact, was openly bought and sold; and suits were decided, not according to the principles of law or equity, but by the irresistible influence of faction or of gold. In consequence, the islands became a prey to all the vices that afflict and degrade a corrupt and semi-barbarous society. Sandys, one of the best English travellers who ever visited the Levant, having touched at Zante in 1610, expresses himself with respect to the inhabitants as follows:—"In habite they imitate the Italians, but transcend them in their revenges, and infinitely less civil. They will threaten to kill a merchant that will not buy their commodities; and make more conscience to breake a fast than to commit a murthor. He is weary of his life that hath a difference with any of them, and will walke abroad after daylight. But cowardice is joined with their crueltie, who dare doe nothing but sodainly upon advantage; and are ever privately armed. They are encouraged to villainies by the remissenesse of their laws. The labourers do go into the fields with swords and par-

* This is equal to 1001·3 English square miles of 69.15 to the degree.

tisans, as if in an enemie's country; bringing home their oils and wines in hogskins, the inside turned out."—(p. 7. ed. 1637.)

If the Zantiotes did not deteriorate during the next 2 centuries, which, indeed, was hardly possible, they certainly did not improve. Dr. Holland, by whom they were visited in 1812, tells us that he heard, 'on core authority, that the number of assassinations in Zante has been more than 1 for each day of the year, though the population was only 40,000!"—(*Travels in the Ionian Isles, &c.* 4to ed. p. 23.)

Matters were, if not quite so bad, very little better in the other islands. In Cephalonia, the inhabitants were divided into factions, entertaining the most implacable animosities, and waging a war of extermination against each other. A little vigour on the part of their rulers would have served to suppress their murderous contests. But this was not an object they wished to attain: on the contrary, their selfish and crooked policy made them seek to strengthen their own power by fomenting the dissensions that prevailed amongst their subjects.—(*Bellin, Description du Golfe de Venise*, p. 165.) Considering the state of society at home, we need not wonder that the Cephalonians, who were distinguished among the islanders for activity and enterprise, were much addicted to emigration. The Venetians attempted to check its prevalence; but, as they neglected the only means by which it could be prevented,—the establishment of security and good order at home,—their efforts were wholly unsuccessful.

The islanders did not, however, satisfy themselves with attempting to stab and prey upon each other. They were much addicted to piracy, particularly the inhabitants of Santa Maura and Cerigo; and it has been alleged that the Venetian government participated in the profits of this public robbery, which, at all events they took little pains to suppress.

A long series of years will be required to eradicate vices so deeply rooted, and to effect that thorough change in the habits and morals of the people that is so indispensable. The power and influence of the British government has already, however, had a very decided effect: assassination has become comparatively unknown; piracy has been suppressed; and a spirit of industry, sincerity, and fair dealing is beginning to manifest itself. The present generation of nobles possess a superior degree of information, and a knowledge of the true interests of their country, which, if not all that could be wished, was, at least, unknown to their fathers. It is not easy to exaggerate the difficulties with which Sir Thomas Maitland had to struggle during the first years of the British government. He was opposed by every means that feudal rancour, corruption, and duplicity could throw in his way. Those accustomed to the treachery, shuffling, and jobbing of the Venetian and Russo-Turkish governments, and the intrigues of the French, could neither appreciate nor understand the plain, straightforward course natural to British officers. These difficulties have, however, materially diminished; and it is to be hoped that the influence of our example, and of that education now pretty generally diffused, will gradually accomplish the regeneration of the islanders.

Manufactures, &c.—These islands possess few manufactures properly so termed. The wives of the villani, or peasants, spin and weave a coarse kind of woollen cloth, sufficient in great part for the use of their families. A little soap is made at Corfu and Zante. The latter manufactures a considerable quantity of silk gros-de-Naples and handkerchiefs; the art of dyeing is, however, too little studied, and the establishments are on too small a scale. The peasantry, in general, are lazy, vain, delighting in display, and very superstitious. Those of Zante and Cephalonia are more industrious than the Corfiotes; in the first particular, their superior condition is probably to be ascribed, in part at least, to the nobles residing more on their estates in the country, and contributing, by their example, to stimulate industry. In Corfu, the taste for the city life, which prevailed in the time of the Venetian government, still operates to a great degree. The Corfiote proprietor resides but little in his villa; his land is neglected, while he continues in the practice of his forefathers, who preferred watching opportunities at the seat of a corrupt government, to improving their fortunes by the more legitimate means of honourable exertion and attention to their patrimony. In this respect, however, a material change for the better has taken place during the last 20 years.

Imports of Grain, &c.—Great part of the land is held under short tenures, on the *metayer system*, the tenant paying half the produce to the landlord. Owing to the nature of the soil, and the superior attention given to the culture of olives and currants, the staple products of the islands, most part of the grain and cattle required for their consumption is imported. The hard wheat of Odessa is preferred, and about 800,000 dollars may be annually sent to the Black Sea in payment. The imports of wheat in 1826 were 178,288 moggi, or about 891,440 bushels. The parliament, in March, 1833, repealed the duties on the introduction of corn; and the grain monopoly of Corfu, which had been established in favour of government, in order to provide against the possibility of a general or partial scarcity, was then also suffered to expire. These 2 sources of revenue, while they existed, did not probably produce less than 20,000*l.* annually.

Cattle.—They are similarly dependent upon Greece and Turkey for supplies of butcher's meat; a small number only of sheep and goats being bred in the islands. Oxen, whether for agriculture or the slaughterhouse, are brought from Turkey, to the annual amount of more than 90,000 dollars. The beef eaten by the troops is 6 weeks or 2 months walking down from the Danube, and the provinces that skirt it, to the shores of Epirus, where they remain in pasture until fit for the table.

Exports.—The staple exports from these islands are oil, currants, valonia, wine, soap, and salt. The first is produced in great abundance in Corfu and Paxo, and in a less quantity in Zante, Santa Maura, and Cephalonia. Corfu has, in fact, the appearance of a continuous olive wood; a consequence, partly, of the extraordinary encouragement formerly given to the culture of the plant by the Venetians. Although there is a harvest every year, the great crop is properly biennial; the tree generally reposing for a year after its effort. (In France and Piedmont the period of inactivity is of 2 and 3 years.) During 5 or 6 months, from October till April, the country, particularly in Corfu, presents an animated appearance, persons of all ages being busily employed in picking up the fruit. It is calculated that the islands produce, one year with another, about 95,000 barrels, of 18 gallons each, and that of this quantity 80,000 are exported, principally to Trieste. The average price may be about *l.* 11*s.* per barrel. Under the old Venetian system, the oil could only be carried to Trieste. An *ad valorem* duty of 19½ per cent., payable on the export, produces upon an average 28,000*l.* annually. The quality might be much improved by a little more care in the manufacture, the trees being generally finer than in any other country.

Currants, originally introduced from the Morea, are grown in the isles of Zante, Cephalonia, and Ithaca, but principally in the first. The plant is a vine of small size and delicate nature, the cultivation of which requires much care. Six or 7 years elapse after a plantation has been made, before it yields a crop. In the beginning of October, the earth about the roots of the plant is loosened, and gathered up in small heaps, away from the vine, which is pruned in March; after which the ground again laid down smooth around the plant, which grows low, and is supported by sticks. The crops are liable to injury in spring from the blight called the "brina," and rainy weather at the harvest season produces great mischief. The currants are gathered towards September, and, after being carefully picked are thrown singly upon a stone floor, exposed to the sun in the open air. The drying process may occupy a fortnight or longer, if the weather be not favourable. A heavy shower or thunderstorm (no unfrequent occurrence at that season) not only interrupts it, but sometimes causes fermentation. The fruit is then only fit to be given to animals. Should it escape these risks, it is

deposited in magazines called "*seraglia*," until a purchaser casts up. The "*seraglierie*," or warehouse keeper, delivers to the depositor a paper acknowledging the receipt of the quantity delivered, which passes currently in exchange from hand to hand till the time of export. Under the old Venetian government, the liberty of traffic in this produce was exceedingly restricted. In Zante, 5 persons chosen out of the council of nobles assembled in presence of the *provveditore*, regulated what should be the price; and those who wished to purchase were under the necessity of declaring to the government the quantity they desired. This system was called the "*sollegatio*."* The export duties consisted of an original duty of 9 per cent. *ad valorem*; a *dazio fisso*, or fixed duty of about 4*s.* 4*d.* per cwt.; and afterwards of a *novissimo*, or most recent duty, of 2*s.* 8*d.* per cwt. This latter was remitted in favour of vessels bringing salt fish, &c. from the northern ports (chiefly English, Danes, and Dutch): it was afterwards relaxed in favour of Russian vessels from Odessa, and abandoned altogether as vexatious and unproductive. The *provveditore* received in addition 2 per cent., and each of his 2 Venetian councillors 1 per cent.; so that the fruit, the original cost of which was about 9*s.* the cwt., stood the exporter in little less than 16*s.* or 18*s.* Even under British protection, the fruit, which some years before had fetched as much as 30*s.* and 32*s.* the cwt., but had declined in 1832 to 6*s.* the cwt. was burdened with the *dazio fisso* of 4*s.* 4*d.*, and a duty of 6 per cent. *ad valorem*, being equivalent together, *at that price*, to an *ad valorem* duty of nearly 60 per cent.! In the mean time the British parliament had, in 1829, raised the import duties payable in England to the enormous amount of 44*s.* 4*d.* the cwt., which, at the same low price, made an *ad valorem* duty of 300 per cent.! The consequence was rapidly visible; a decline took place in the culture of the plant, as well as in the circumstances and in the *affections* of the proprietors, whose staple export and means of existence were almost annihilated. As the prices fell, and the distress became greater, the necessitous grower was obliged to borrow money at ruinous interest from foreign merchants, or from the Jews, who were, consequently, able to dictate the price at which they would take his produce. A legislative enactment, on a scale commensurate with the difficulties which it had to grapple with, was, after much deliberation, matured and adopted by the 4th parliament in its session of 1833. By it the whole of the duties upon currants were commuted for an *ad valorem* tax of 10½ per cent., being the same as that laid upon oil. The same act increased, in a small degree, the duties previously paid on the importation of coffee, tea, and sugar, and upon foreign wines, silks, and gloves,—articles which, being chiefly consumed by the affluent, were more appropriately subjected to an increase of duty, to supply in part the serious defalcation of revenue naturally consequent to the reduction of the currant duty. The duties thus increased upon objects of luxury may now amount to from 20 to 25 per cent., which is far from exorbitant. The good effects of this enactment were manifested by an almost instantaneous rise in the price of the fruit which had remained on hand of the crop of 1832. It is calculated that the average quantity of currants produced during the 4 years ending with 1832, has been 19,686,800 lbs. a year; the export has been 17,885,300 lbs. It appears from the accounts laid before the finance committee, that, in 1826, there were exported from the islands 176,974 lbs. of valonia; 32,063 casks of wine; and 723,646 lbs. of soap.

Tonnage Duty.—The late act of parliament abolished the tonnage duty of 1*s.* 1*d.* per ton payable by every ship sailing under Ionian colours, which, together with the heavy fees demanded by the British consuls in the Levant, had driven most of the Cephalonite vessels to seek for protection under the flag of Russia.

Loan Banks.—Another act, intended to alleviate the distress experienced by the growers who had been the victims of usury in consequence of their pecuniary difficulties, provided for the establishment of loan banks with capitals (in the larger isles of 20,000*l.* each, and in the smaller ones in proportion), for lending money at 6 per cent. to the agricultural interest, on agricultural security, and thus employing the surplus which might otherwise lie idle in the treasury. These measures, it is presumed, will go far towards bettering the condition of the islands; and the anticipated reduction of the oppressive import duty upon currants in this country will do more.—(See CURRANTS.)

Salt may be obtained in considerable quantities in Corfu, Zante, and Santa Maura, for exportation: the latter island alone produced it until the late act of parliament, which provided that government should let the salt pans in all the islands to those bidders who should offer, by sealed tenders, to supply it at the lowest rate to the consumer, paying at the same time the highest price to government. No export duty is charged upon it.

It is apparent from these statements, that heavy duties are levied upon the exportation of the staple products of the islands,—an objectionable system, and one which, if it is to be excused at all, can only be so by the peculiar circumstances under which they are placed. There is no land tax or impost on property in the Ionian Islands, such as exists in many other rude countries; and, supposing it were desirable to introduce such a tax, the complicated state of property in them, the feudal tenures under which it is held, and the variety of usages with respect to it, oppose all but invincible obstacles to its imposition on fair and equal principles. At the same time, too, a large amount of revenue is required to meet the expenses of the general and local governments, to maintain an efficient police, and to prevent smuggling and piracy. However, we cannot help thinking that some very material retrenchments might be made from the expenditure; and it is to this source, more, perhaps, than to any other, that the inhabitants must look for any real or effectual relief from their burdens.

Revenue and expenditure.—In 1830, the revenue and expenditure were as follows:—

Revenue.	£.	s.	d.	Expenditure.	£.	s.	d.
Customs	80,267	14	0 3-4	General and local governments, salaries	26,731	2	8 1-4
Transit duty	846	9	7	Public quarters (hire)	10,119	16	9 3-4
Export { Oil	26,045	7	9 3-4	Education	6,858	11	0 1-4
Export { Currants	38,407	10	10	General and local contingencies, hospital, &c.	8,490	0	1
Wines and spirits	5,767	15	4 1-2	Collection of revenue	11,169	0	6 1-2
Tobacco	2,600	16	6 1-2	Fiscilla	8,598	2	8 1-2
Cattle	2,289	0	9 1-2	Public works, fortresses	25,481	15	6
Corn, in commutation of tithes	13,393	10	1 3-4	Staff pay and contingencies	11,600	1	8 1-2
Salines (salt pans)	3,797	0	4 3-4	Inspectors of Ionian militia	2,629	15	6 1-2
Port duties	960	11	10	Mounted orderlies	440	4	4 1-2
Sanita, post-office, police, judicial tariff, surplus received	2,458	12	7	Half-pay (Ionian officers)	985	12	8 1-2
Valonia and gunpowder monopolies, and municipal balances	9,169	19	9	Barrack stores, pepers of officers, couriers, &c.	2,504	12	6 1-2
	9,145	7	6 3-4	Engineer department	2,478	15	1 1-2
Total income	155,948	3	0 1-4	Total expenditure	157,894	7	6 1-4

* A bill for reviving this institution, brought in by a Zantiote member, passed the legislative assembly in May, 1833: but the senate threw it out, trusting that the enactments mentioned in this article would suffice to relieve the grower from the usurious oppression of the currant speculator.

The Ionian republic affords, perhaps, the only example of a state expending nearly a *fourth* part of its revenue on public works and fortresses. Without, however, questioning the importance of the objects for which so heavy an expense has been incurred, we are inclined to think that the industry and prosperity of the islands would be far more likely to be advanced by the effectual reduction of the duties on the exportation of oil and currants than by any, even the most judicious outlay of the revenue derived from them.

Ports.—The principal ports in the Ionian republic are Corfu and Zante in the islands of the same name, and Argostoli in Cephalonia. The city and port of Corfu lie on the east side of the island, on the canal or channel between it and the opposite continent, which is here about 5 miles wide. The citadel, which projects into the sea, is furnished with a light-house, 240 feet high; the latter being in lat. 39° 37′ N., lon. 19° 55′ E. The town is but indifferently built. Population about 17,000, exclusive of the military. The fortifications are very strong, both towards the sea and the land. The canal has deep water throughout; its navigation, which is a little difficult, has been much facilitated by the erection of a light-house on the rock of Tigneux in the northern entrance, where the channel is less than a mile in width; and by the mooring of a floating light off Point Lascheres, in the southern entrance. Ships anchor between the small but well fortified island of Vido and the city, in from 15 to 17 fathoms water.

The port, or rather gulf, of Argostoli in Cephalonia lies on the south-west side of the island. Cape Ajli, forming its south-western extremity, is in lat. 38° 9′ 40″ N., lon. 20° 29′ 20″ E. Cape San Nicolo, forming the other extremity, is about 4 3-4 miles from Cape Ajli; and between them, within about 1 1-2 mile of the latter, is the small islet of Guardiani, on which is a light-house. From this island the gulf stretches N. 1-2 W. from 7 to 8 miles inland. The town of Argostoli lies on the west side of a haven on the east side of the gulf formed by Point Statura. The situation is low, and rather unhealthy. When visited by Dr. Holland, its population did not exceed 4,000. Its appearance and police, particularly the latter, have been much improved since its occupation by the English. There is deep water and good anchorage ground in most parts of the gulf. The best entrance is between Cape San Nicolo and Guardiani, keeping rather more than a mile to the eastward of the latter, on account of a reef that extends N. E. and S. W. from it nearly that distance.

The port and city of Zante are situated on the eastern side of the island, in lat. 37° 47′ N., lon. 20° 54′ 45″ E. The city, the largest in the Ionian islands, extends along the shore for nearly 1 1-2 mile, but it is no where above 300 yards in breadth, except where it ascends the hill on which the citadel is erected. The style of building is chiefly Italian; and the interior of the city displays every where great neatness, and even a certain degree of magnificence. Population estimated by Dr. Holland at from 16,000 to 18,000. It has a mole or pier of considerable utility, at the extremity of which a light-house is erected; and a lazaretto, situated a little to the south-west. The harbour is capacious. Ships anchor opposite the town at from 500 to 1,000 yards' distance, in from 12 to 15 fathoms, availing themselves of the protection of the mole when the wind is from the N. E. When our troops took possession of Zante, in 1810, the fortifications were found to be in very bad repair; but immense sums have been since expended upon their improvement and extension.

Shipping.—The entries (in tons) for 1826, the last year for which we have seen any detailed statement, were as follows:—

Flags.	Tons.	Flags.	Tons.
Ionian	169,371	Papal	11,866
British	27,116	Sardinian	9,753
Austrian	26,541	Turkish	5,421
Russian	8,869	Greek	7,630
French	2,008	All other	3,393
Neapolitan	13,179	Total	317,057

Trade with England.—This is but of very limited extent; a consequence, principally, of the enormous duty on currants. During the year 1831, we imported from the Ionian Islands 162,365 cwt. currants, 32 1-2 tons tustic, 251 cwt. flax, 100,249 gallons olive oil, 7,46 cwt. valonia, and 582 gallons wine. The real or declared value of the articles of British produce and manufacture exported to them during the same year, amounted to only 50,883*l.*

The total value of the imports from all countries in 1831, is estimated at 510,753*l.*, and that of the exports at 348,058*l.* But a considerable part of the imports is not destined for the consumption of the islands, but is sent thither merely as a convenient entrepôt, being intended for the supply of the contiguous provinces of Greece and Turkey. The amount of exports depends materially on the circumstance whether the year be one in which there is, or is not, a crop of olives.

Money, &c.—Accounts are kept in sterling money. Spanish doubloons pass at 5*s.* 6*d.*, Spanish dollars at 4*s.* 6*d.*, and Venetian dollars at 4*s.* Exchange with England at *d.* per dollar.

Weights.—

The pound, *peso grosso*, or great weight of 12 oz. = 7,564 grains Troy; 94-4 lbs. = 100 lbs. avoirdupois.

The pound, *peso sottile*, or small weight, used for precious metals and drugs, is 1-3d lighter than the foregoing; 12 oz. peso sottile correspondding to 8 oz. peso grosso.

The oke, used in the southern islands, weighs about 18,000 grains Troy, or 2-3 10 lbs. avoirdupois. The Levant cantar, or quintal, should contain 44 okes.

The migliajo (1,000 lbs.), for currants, in Zante, is 1 per cent. lighter than for other articles.

Measures of Length.—

The Venetian foot of 12 once = 12 3-4 inches English.

Passo = 5 Venetian feet.

Braccio, for cloths, &c. = 27 2-46 inches English.

Do. for silks = 25 3-4

Land is measured by the *misura* or 1-2 of a moggio, or bacile; 400 square passi being 1 misura, or bacile, about 3-10 of an acre English.

Vineyards are measured by the zappade; 3 zappade (a computed day's work) being 1 misura.

Fire-wood is measured by the square passo, usually, however, only 3 feet thick, this depending on the quality of the wood.

Stone is measured by the passo cubo.

Measures of Capacity.—

Corn. Corfu and Paxo: Moggio of 6 misure, about 5 Winchester bushels.

Cephalonia: Bacile should contain 80 lbs. peso grosso, best quality wheat.

Zante: Bacile should contain 72 lbs. peso grosso, best quality wheat.

Santa Maura: Cade, of 8 crivelli, 4 = 3 mog.; 1 cade = 3 3-4 bushels English.

Ithaca: 5 Bacile = 1 moggio.

Cerigo: Chilo, the measure of Constantinople, = 1 bushel English.

Wine.—Corfu and Paxo: 32 quartucci = 1 jar, and 4 jars = 1 barrel = 18 English wine gallons.

Cephalonia and Ithaca: 8 quartucci = 1 boccale; 12 boccali = 1 mecchio; 6 mecchio = 1 barrel = 18 English wine gallons.

Zante: 13 1-3 quartucci = 1 lire; 40 quartucci = 1 jar; 3 jars = 1 barrel = 17 5-8 English wine gallons.

Santa Maura: 32 quartucci = 1 stamai; 6 stamai = 1 barrel = 18 English wine gallons.

Cerigo: 2 agostan = 1 boccia; 30 boccie = 1 barrel = 18 English wine gallons.

Oil.—Corfu and Paxo: 4 quartucci = 1 mittro; 6 mittri = 1 jar; 4 jars = 1 barrel = 18 English wine gallons.

Cephalonia: 9 pagliarci = 1 barrel = 18 Eng. wine gals.

Zante: 9 lire, or 3 jars of 48 qu. each = 1 barrel = 17 5-8 English wine gallons.

Santa Maura: 7 stamai = 1 barrel = 18 Eng. wine gals.

Ithaca: 15 pagliarci = 1 — = 18 ——

Cerigo: 24 boxes = 1 — = 14 0-8 ——

Salt.—Centinajo, about 4,000 lbs. Venetian peso grosso.

Linear Measure.—Corfu, measure of 4 English cubic feet.

In compiling this article, we have consulted, besides the works referred to above, the *Voyage Historique, Pittoresque*, &c., by Count Sauvaer,—a diffuse but valuable work. The account of Zante, in the last volume (tome iii. pp. 101—278.), is particularly good. We have also looked into the *Voyage en Grece*, of Scrofani, 3 tomes, Paris, 1801; the *Archives du Commerce*; the *Papers laid before the Finance Committee*, &c. But by far the most important part of the information we have been able to lay before the reader has been derived from manuscript notes obligingly communicated by Lord King, late secretary to the British government in these islands.

IPECACUANHA (Fr. *Ipecacuanha*; Ger. *Amerikanische brechwurzel*; It. *Ipecacuana*; Port. *Cipo de camaras, Ipecacuanha*; Sp. *Ipecacuana, Raiz de ora*), the root of a perennial plant (*Cephaëlis ipecacuanha*) growing in Brazil and other parts of South America. It is, from its colour, usually denominated *white, grey*, or *ash-coloured*, and *brown*. Little of the first variety is found in the shops. The grey and brown varieties are brought to this country in bales from Rio Janeiro. Both are in short, wrinkled, variously bent and contorted pieces, which break with a resinous fracture. The grey is about the thickness of a small quill, full of knots and deep circular fissures, that nearly reach down to a white, woody, vascular cord that runs through the heart of each piece; the external part is compact, brittle, and looks smooth; the brown is smaller, more wrinkled, of a blackish brown colour on the outside, and whitish within: the white is woody, and has no wrinkles. The entire root is inodorous: but the powder has a faint, disagreeable odour. The taste is bitter, sub-acrid, and extremely nauseous. In choosing ipecacuanha, the larger roots, which are compact and break with a resinous fracture, having a whitish grey, somewhat semi-transparent, appearance in the outside of the cortical part, with a pale straw-coloured medullary fibre, are to be preferred. When pounded, ipecacuanha forms the mildest and safest emetic in the whole materia medica. Though probably employed in America from time immemorial, it was not introduced into Europe till the time of Louis XIV., when one Grenier, a French merchant, brought 150 lbs. of it from Spain, with which trials were

made at the Hôtel Dieu. Helvetius first made known its use in dysentery, for which Louis XIV. munificently rewarded him by a douceur of 1,000*l.* sterling.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Thomson's Chemistry.*)

IRON (Dan. *Jern*; Du. *Yzer*; Fr. *Fer*; Ger. *Eisen*; It. *Ferro*; Lat. *Ferrum*, *Mars*; Pol. *Zelazo*; Por. *Ferro*; Rus. *Scheleso*; Sp. *Hierro*; Sw. *Jern*; Gr. Σίδηρος: Sans. *Loha*; Arab. *Hedeed*; Pers. *Ahun*), the most abundant and most useful of all the metals. It is of a bluish white colour; and, when polished, has a great deal of brilliancy. It has a styptic taste, and emits a smell when rubbed. Its hardness exceeds that of most other metals; and it may be rendered harder than most bodies by being converted into steel. Its specific gravity varies from 7·6 to 7·8. It is attracted by the magnet or loadstone, and is itself the substance which constitutes the loadstone. But when iron is perfectly pure, it retains the magnetic virtue for a very short time. It is malleable in every temperature, and its malleability increases in proportion as the temperature augments; but it cannot be hammered out nearly as thin as gold or silver, or even as copper. Its ductility is, however, more perfect; for it may be drawn out into wire as fine at least as a human hair. Its tenacity is such, that an iron wire 0·078 of an inch in diameter, is capable of supporting 549·25 lbs. avoirdupois without breaking.

Historical Notice.—Iron, though the most common, is the most difficult of all the metals to obtain in a state fit for use; and the discovery of the method of working it seems to have been posterior to the use of gold, silver, and copper. We are wholly ignorant of the steps by which men were led to practise the processes required to fuse it and render it malleable. It is certain, however, that it was prepared in ancient Egypt, and some other countries, at a very remote epoch; but it was very little used in Greece till after the Trojan war.—(See the admirable work of *M. Goguet* on the *Origin of Laws, Arts, &c.*, vol. i. p. 140.)

Species of Iron.—There are many varieties of iron, which artists distinguish by particular names; but all of them may be reduced under one or other of the 3 following classes: *cast* or *pig iron*, *wrought* or *soft iron*, and *steel*.

1. Cast or pig iron is the name given to this metal when first extracted from its ores. The ores from which iron is usually obtained are composed of oxide of iron and clay. The object of the manufacturer is to reduce the oxide to the metallic state, and to separate all the clay with which it is combined. This is effected by a peculiar process; and the iron, being exposed to a strong heat in furnaces, and melted, runs out into moulds prepared for its reception, and obtains the name of cast or pig iron.

The cast iron thus obtained is distinguished by manufacturers into different varieties, from its colour and other qualities. Of these the following are the most remarkable:—

a. White cast iron, which is extremely hard and brittle, and appears to be composed of a congeries of small crystals. It can neither be filed, bored, nor bent, and is very apt to break when suddenly heated or cooled.

b. Grey or *mottled* cast iron, so called from the inequality of its colour. Its texture is granulated. It is much softer and less brittle than the last variety; and may be cut, bored, and turned on the lathe. Cannons are made of it.

c. Black cast iron is the most unequal in its texture, the most fusible, and least cohesive, of the three.

2. Wrought or soft iron is prepared from cast iron by a process termed a refinement or finery. The wrought iron manufactured in Sweden is reckoned the finest in the world.

3. Steel consists of pieces of wrought iron hardened by a peculiar process. The Swedish iron imported into this country is mostly used in the manufacture of steel.—(See STEEL.)—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

Uses of Iron.—To enumerate the various uses of iron would require a lengthened dissertation. No one who reflects for a moment on the subject, can doubt that its discovery and employment in the shape of tools and engines has been of the utmost importance to man; and has done more, perhaps, than any thing else, to accelerate his advance in the career of improvement. Mr. Locke has the following striking observations on this subject:—"Of what consequence the discovery of one natural body, and its properties, may be to human life, the whole great continent of America is a convincing instance; whose ignorance in useful arts, and want of the greatest part of the conveniences of life, in a country that abounded with all sorts of natural plenty, I think may be attributed to their ignorance of what was to be found in a very ordinary, despicable stone—I mean the mineral of iron. And whatever we think of our parts or improvements in this part of the world, where knowledge and plenty seem to vie with each other; yet, to any one that will seriously reflect upon it, I suppose it will appear past doubt, that, were the use of iron lost among us, we should in a few ages be unavoidably reduced to the wants and ignorance of the ancient savage Americans, whose natural endowments and provisions came no way short of those of the most flourishing and polite nations; so that he who first made use of that one contemptible mineral, may be truly styled the father of arts and author of plenty."—(*Essay on the Understanding*, book iv. c. 12.)

Manufacture of Iron in Great Britain.—Iron mines have been wrought in this country from a very early period. Those of the Forest of Dean, in Gloucestershire, are known to have existed in the year 1066. In consequence of the great consumption of timber which they occasioned, they were restrained by act of parliament in 1581. Soon after this, Edward Lord Dudley invented the process of smelting iron ore with pit-coal instead of wood fuel; and it is impossible, perhaps, to point out an instance of another invention that has proved more advantageous. The patent which his Lordship had obtained in 1619, was exempted from the operation of the act of 1623 (21 Jac. I. c. 23.), setting aside monopolies: but though in its consequences it has proved of immense value to the country, the works of the inventor were destroyed by an ignorant rabble, and he was well nigh ruined by his efforts to introduce and perfect his process; nor was it till about a century after, that it was brought into general use. In the early part of last century well-founded complaints were repeatedly made of the waste and destruction of woods caused by the smelting of iron; and the dearth and scarcity of fuel that was thus occasioned, led, about 1740, to the general adoption of Lord Dudley's process for using pit-coal, which was found to be in every respect superior to that previously in use. (*Report of Committee of the House of Commons on Patents*, p. 168. &c.). From this period, the progress of the manufacture has exceeded the most sanguine expectations. In 1740, the quantity of pig iron manufactured in England and Wales amounted to about 17,000 tons, produced by 59 furnaces. The quantities manufactured at the undermentioned epochs, in Great Britain, have been as follows:—

1750	22,000 tons.		1806	250,000 tons, produced by 169 furnaces.	
1788	68,000 —	produced by 85 furnaces.	1820	400,000 —	unknown.
1796	125,000 —	121 —			

(See next page.)

The extraordinary increase that has taken place in the production of iron since 1823, is principally to be ascribed to the high prices of 1824, 1825, and 1826, when pig iron met with a ready sale at from 9*l.* to 12*l.* and 13*l.* a ton. But, in consequence partly of the failure or postponement of most of the projects as to rail-roads, &c., that were then on foot, and partly of the vast additional supplies which the extension of the manufacture threw on the market, the price fell in 1828 to from 5*l.* to 7*l.* a ton; and continued gradually to decline, till in 1832 it was only worth 4*l.* 15*s.* So heavy a fall had the effect of introducing the severest economy into every department of the manufacture. In despite, however, of all the saving that could be effected in this way, many of the manufacturers were ill-waired in much distress, and the production of iron is believed to have been considerably diminished. This, coupled with the increasing demand for iron, naturally led to a reaction. Prices began to rise early in 1833; and the advance has been such, that at present (January, 1834), pig iron fetches 6*l.* a ton, and the manufacture is in a state of great activity.

The following statements as to the number of furnaces and the quantity of iron produced in the different districts where the manufacture is carried on, in 1823, 1825, 1828, and 1830, appeared originally in the *Birmingham Journal*.—We have been assured that their accuracy may be depended upon.

Districts.	Number of Furnaces.								Tons of Iron produced.			
	1823.	1825.			1828.			1830.				
	Total.	Total.	In Blast.	Out.	Total.	In Blast.	Out.	Total.	1823.	1825.	1828.	1830.
South Wales	73	109	80	27	100	89	11	115	182,326	230,412	279,412	277,648
Staffordshire	94	108	83	27	130	95	25	125	133,660	182,196	219,468	212,604
Shropshire	26	49	36	13	43	26	17	45	73,418	89,566	91,234	73,418
Yorkshire	23	54	36	18	54	37	17	37	37,311	39,104	32,968	27,926
Scotland	26	25	17	9	25	18	8	27	24,500	33,540	27,700	37,500
Derbyshire	15	19	14	5	18	14	4	18	14,036	22,672	22,360	17,999
North Wales	20	14	8	6	19	12	7	20	12,000	17,764	25,768	24,000
Forest of Dean		14	-	6	8	1	1		-	-	2,600	
Various		1	1	-	1	1	-		2,870		1,960	4,827
Ireland		2	2	-	-	-	-		-	5,000		
Total	377	374	250	105	397	278	90	376	480,561	618,296	705,194	678,417

About 2-10ths of the total quantity of iron produced are used as cast iron, being consumed principally in Great Britain and Ireland; the exports, not exceeding 12,000 tons, go chiefly to the United States and British North America. The other 7-10ths are converted into wrought iron, being formed into bars, bolts, rods, &c. The exports of the different sorts of iron amount at present to about 145,000 tons, which, at 8*l.* 10*s.* a ton, would be worth 1,232,500*l.*

The increase of the iron manufacture has not only led to its exportation in very large quantities, but has reduced our imports of foreign iron for home consumption from about 34,000 tons, which they amounted to at an average of the 5 years ending with 1805, to about 18,000 or 20,000 tons, consisting principally of Swedish iron, which is subsequently manufactured into steel. The following is

An Account of the British Iron (including unwrought Steel) exported from Great Britain in the Year 1833.—*** Quarters of a Hundred Weight and Pounds are omitted in the printing of this Table, but they are taken into account in the summing up.

Countries to which exported.	Bar Iron.	Bolt and Rod Iron.	Pig Iron.	Cast Iron.	Iron Wire.	Wrought, &c.			Of all other Sorts (except Ordnance.	Unwrought Steel.
						Anchors and Grapnels.	Hoops.	Nails.		
	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.
Russia	71 15	56 15	- -	6 0	3 5	60 0	13 7	10 10	25 9	46 6
Sweden	25 0	0 6	- -	55 9	0 9	4 17	0 6	1 11	15 3	2 6
Norway	17 0	26 5	- -	2 11	0 3	4 11	27 16	0 3	55 19	3 14
Denmark	1,570 19	294 6	921 10	10 12	1 10	47 2	261 1	0 19	201 15	1 1
Prussia	103 15	234 6	170 6	5 15	- -	- -	159 17	1 16	58 5	3 3
Germany	5,223 5	1,215 17	614 4	121 3	172 11	42 6	1,254 2	103 14	1,076 4	91 12
Holland	5,317 0	508 2	2,982 15	728 15	78 14	166 17	3,259 15	7 16	1,996 4	117 0
Belgium	15 16	26 0	1,507 10	22 18	105 0	29 7	12 10	0 2	68 15	101 19
France	3,178 17	240 6	10,934 5	167 6	7 16	261 14	545 9	1 6	256 7	259 6
Portugal, Azores, &c.	3,724 18	1,527 17	92 0	214 5	11 4	108 2	1,351 14	125 -	333 1	3 7
Spain, and the Canaries	139 13	111 11	145 0	20 18	19 15	20 18	1,308 14	20 6	184 17	9 18
Gibraltar	267 2	13 0	- -	9 2	4 16	55 17	282 5	10 17	149 17	1 15
Italy	7,962 5	1,985 2	610 0	118 7	28 18	85 19	821 6	0 2	948 17	11 10
Malta	268 7	71 11	- -	0 11	- -	3 1	20 3	26 12	36 10	
The Ionian Islands	208 5	31 5	- -	5 2	- -	1 1	56 5	10 1	29 12	
Turkey and Coast. Greece	6,072 2	1,988 0	- -	64 0	21 1	111 7	120 18	200 2	456 18	2 13
Morea and Greek Islands	201 11	49 13	- -	1 4	- -	26 7	5 0	26 0	8 5	0 3
Asia	17,206 14	9,252 19	216 10	586 19	2 16	665 20	1,153 5	571 15	5,212 0	105 11
Africa	3,046 7	131 10	430 0	1,923 4	1 14	147 9	236 2	180 1	1,157 19	2 2
British colonies, N. Amer.	4,789 18	252 0	607 2	1,422 17	9 19	209 19	654 7	1,107 5	1,253 7	118 1
British West Indies	311 16	96 2	81 0	1,251 17	1 1	26 18	225 6	1,130 16	1,911 15	4 6
Foreign West Indies	1,132 0	101 19	20 0	758 19	1 17	14 1	291 15	400 16	376 8	4 14
United States of America	29,194 3	866 4	13,687 0	8,286 17	62 18	68 6	283 10	339 11	3,584 14	1,986 6
Brazil	2,047 5	196 2	90 0	851 12	0 5	194 10	681 11	916 17	784 7	17 16
Mexico and S. America	1,980 4	24 10	10 0	410 18	0 15	4 6	106 18	180 6	348 8	2 6
Guernsey, Jersey, &c.	574 16	98 9	283 19	207 11	0 10	26 4	51 3	70 7	337 19	7 5
Total	94,333 16	13,331 12	33,078 2	18,604 0	540 17	2,946 19	13,967 0	5,179 19	20,182 19	2,910 9

In 1767, the iron exported from Great Britain amounted to only 11,000 tons. At an average of the 3 years ending with 1806, the exports amounted to 28,000 tons; being less than a *fifth part* of their amount in 1823.

Supposing the total quantity of pig iron produced in Great Britain in 1833 to have amounted to 670,000 tons, and to have been worth at an average, 7*l.* a ton, its total value will have been 4,690,000*l.*; and the additional labour expended in forming the pig iron into bar iron, that is, into bars, bolts, rods, &c., may probably have added about 1,250,000*l.* more to its value; making it worth in all about 5,940,000*l.*

Prices of Hardware.—We noticed, under the article HARDWARE (which see), the extraordinary fall which has taken place in the price of that description of goods since the peace. Since that article was printed, we have obtained from Mr. William Weston, accountant, Birmingham, the following Table of the prices of hardware articles, on which, we believe, every reliance may be placed.

Comparative Prices of Hardware in and near Birmingham, in 1818, 1824, 1828, 1832; and in Jan., 1834.

Articles.		1818.			1824.			1828.			1832.			1834.		
	Per	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Anvils	cwt.	1	5	0	1	0	0	0	16	0	0	12	0	0	14	0
Awls, polished	gross	0	2	6	0	2	0	0	1	6	0	1	0	0	1	0
Bed screws, 6 inch	—	0	18	0	0	15	0	0	8	0	0	4	0	0	6	0
Bolts for doors, &c.	dozen	0	6	0	0	5	0	0	2	3	0	1	6	0	1	6
Braces for carpenters, 12 bits	set	0	9	0	0	6	3	0	4	3	0	2	10	0	3	3
Bits, tinned, for bridles	dozen	0	5	0	0	5	0	0	3	3	0	2	3	0	2	3
Buttons for coats	gross	0	4	6	0	4	6	0	3	0	0	2	0	0	2	0
for waistcoats	—	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	1	6	0	0	7	0	0	7
Curry-combs, 6 barred	dozen	0	2	9	0	2	6	0	1	5	0	1	1	0	1	0
Candlesticks, brass, 6 inch	pair	0	2	11	0	2	0	0	1	7	0	1	2	0	1	0
Commode knobs, brass, 2 inch	dozen	0	4	0	0	3	6	0	1	6	0	1	2	0	1	4
Frying pans	cwt.	1	5	0	1	1	0	0	16	0	0	16	0	0	16	0
Hinges, cast butts, 6 inch	dozen	0	0	10	0	0	7½	0	0	3½	0	0	2½	0	0	4
Shoe hammers	—	0	3	9	0	2	9	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0
Latches for doors, bright thumbs	—	0	2	8	0	2	2	0	1	0	0	0	9	0	0	8
Locks for doors, iron rims, 6 inch	—	1	18	0	1	12	0	0	15	0	0	12	6	0	0	8
for guns, single rollers	each	0	6	0	0	5	2	0	1	10	0	1	6	0	1	8
Plated stirrups	pair	0	4	6	0	3	9	0	1	6	0	1	0	0	0	8
Sad irons and other castings	cwt.	1	2	6	1	0	0	0	14	0	0	11	0	0	10	0
Shovel and tongs, fire-irons	pair	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	9	0	0	7½	0	0	7
Tinned table spoons	gross	2	17	0	0	15	0	0	10	0	0	6	9	0	6	0
Trace chain	cwt.	1	8	0	1	5	0	0	19	6	0	15	6	0	18	6
Vices for blacksmiths	—	1	10	0	1	8	0	1	2	0	0	17	0	0	18	6
Japanned tea trays, 30 inch	each	0	4	6	0	3	6	0	2	0	0	1	5	0	1	4
Iron wire, No. 6.	bundle	0	16	0	0	13	0	0	9	0	0	6	0	0	5	8
Brass wire	lb.	0	1	10	0	1	4	0	1	0	0	0	9	0	0	9½

[Iron ore occurs in great abundance in the United States. Immense masses of it have lately been discovered beyond the Alleghany mountains, especially in Kentucky and Missouri. But it is, perhaps, in Vermont, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, that it has hitherto been chiefly worked.

Extensive, however, as has been the production of American iron, there can be little or no doubt that this branch of our home industry is shortly destined to a very great expansion. In every successive year, iron is applied to uses never dreamed of by the preceding generation: only a few years have elapsed since an extraordinary demand for it was created by the constructing of rail-roads; and it is not improbable that vast quantities of it will be wanted, before long, as the most desirable material for the building of houses and ships.

But the enlarged demand for iron would have comparatively little effect in altering the relative proportions of it produced in the country itself and imported from abroad. The former of these will be augmented in a remarkable degree, at the expense, so to speak, of the latter, on account of the success which has attended the experiments lately made, on the Lehigh, in Schuylkill county, and elsewhere in Pennsylvania, for smelting the ore with anthracite coal instead of wood. This improvement, on account of the vicinity of the anthracite to the ore, cannot but diminish considerably the cost of producing iron, and therefore its price; which will, of course, be followed by an augmented production and consumption of it.

Any diminution of the importation of iron into the country, which may be consequent upon the introduction generally of the improvement just mentioned, ought not to be regarded as in itself a national advantage. It can have no permanent effect in preventing the existence of an undue excess of importation above exportation. These, as every one in a slight degree only conversant with political economy is aware of, have a certain determinate average relation to each other,—a relation which is preserved, by whatever restrictive or forcible measures either the amount of the commodities imported, or that of the commodities exported, may be attempted to be diminished. If less iron than heretofore shall hereafter be procured from other countries, the inevitable result must be that the exports of the products of American capital and labour will be lessened in the same proportion. The indebtedness of the United States to Europe, in an embarrassing and more than ordinary degree, can only be prevented from recurring, at intervals of a very few years, when some mode shall have been devised of effectually guarding against an undue expansion of our currency, which, by causing a general rise of prices, offers an inducement for importing more from abroad, as well as for exporting less to foreign countries.

The importations of iron and steel have been very considerable. They have amounted, in the last five years, to nearly fifty millions of dollars. And the duties remitted on iron,—chiefly rail-road iron,—from the 1st of January, 1832, to June 30th, 1839, exceeded the sum of three millions and a half of dollars; "being in fact," says the Secretary of the Treasury, "a donation, or free subscription, by the general government, to that amount, chiefly in aid of rail-roads."—*Am. Ed.*]

IRON-WOOD (Ger. *Eisenholz*; Du. *Yserhout*; Fr. *Bois de fer*; It. *Legno di ferro*; Sp. *Palo hierro*; Lat. *Sideroxylon, Lignum ferreum*), a species of wood of a reddish cast, so called on account of its corroding as that metal does, and its being remarkably hard and ponderous,—even more so than ebony. The tree which produces it grows principally in the West India islands, and is likewise very common in South America, and in some part of Asia, especially about Siam.

ISINGLASS (Ger. *Hausenblase, Hausblase*; Fr. *Colle de poisson, Carlock*; It. *Cole*

di pesce; Rus. *Klei rübüi, Karluk*), one of the purest and finest of the animal glues. It is a product, the preparation of which is almost peculiar to Russia. It is made of the air-bladders and sounds of different kinds of fish which are found in the large rivers that fall into the North Sea and the Caspian. That prepared from the sturgeon is generally esteemed the best; next to that the beluga; but isinglass is also prepared from sterlets, shad, and barbel, though not so good. The best is usually rolled in little ringlets; the second sort is laid together like the leaves of a book; and the common sort is dried without any care. When fine, it is of a white colour, semi-transparent, and dry. It dissolves readily in boiling water, and it is used extensively in cookery. It is also used for stiffening silk, making sticking plaster, &c. The imports, in 1831 and 1832, amounted, at an average, to 1,984½ cwt. a year. The price varies at present (January, 1834) from 5*s.* to 14*s.* 6*d.* per lb.—(See *Thomson's Chemistry*; and *Tooke's View of Russia*, 2d ed. vol. iii. p. 343.)

ISLE OF MAN. See Man, Isle of.

JUICE OF LEMONS, LIMES, or ORANGES. The 9th section of the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 111. is as follows:—"For ascertaining the degrees of specific gravity or strength, according to which the duty on the juice of lemons, limes, and oranges shall be paid, it is enacted, that the degrees of such specific gravity or strength shall be ascertained by a glass citrometer, which shall be graduated in degrees in such manner, that distilled water being assumed as unity at the temperature of 60° by Fahrenheit's thermometer, every degree of the scale of such citrometer shall be denoted by a variation of $\frac{4}{1000}$ parts of the specific gravity of such water."

JUNIPER BERRIES. See Berries.

IVORY, the name given to the teeth or tusks of the elephant, and of the walrus or sea-horse. Each male elephant come to maturity has 2 tusks. These are hollow at the root, tapering, and of various sizes, depending principally on the age of the animal. Colour externally yellowish, brownish, and sometimes dark, internally white. The best are large, straight, and light-coloured, without flaws; not very hollow in the stump, but solid and thick. The most esteemed come from Africa, being of a closer texture, and less liable to turn yellow, than those from the East Indies.

The trade in London thus divide them:—

First sort, weighing 70 lbs. or upwards; second sort, weighing 56 lbs. to 60 lbs.; third sort, weighing 39 lbs. to 56 lbs.; fourth sort, weighing 28 lbs. to 37 lbs.; fifth sort, weighing 18 lbs. to 27 lbs.

All under 18 lbs. are called *scrivellos*, and are of the least value. In purchasing elephants' teeth, those that are very crooked, hollow, and broken at the ends, or cracked and decayed in the inside, should be rejected; and care taken that lead or any other substance has not been poured into the hollow. The freight is rated at 16 cwt. to the ton.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

Supply of Ivory.—The imports of elephants' teeth, in 1831 and 1832, were, at an average, 4,130 cwt., of which 2,950 cwt. were retained for consumption. The medium weight of a tusk may be taken at about 60 lbs.; so that the yearly imports of 1831 and 1832 may be taken at 7,709 tusks; a fact which supposes the destruction of at least 3,854 male elephants! But, supposing the tusks could only be obtained by killing the animal, the destruction would really be a good deal greater, and would most probably, indeed, amount to 4,500 or 5,000 elephants. Occasionally, however, tusks are accidentally broken, one lost in this way being replaced by a new one; and a good many are, also, obtained from elephants that have died in the natural way. Still it is sufficiently obvious, that the supply from the sources now alluded to cannot be very large; and if to the quantity of ivory required for Great Britain, we add that required for the other countries of Europe, America, and Asia, the slaughter of elephants must, after every reasonable deduction is made, appear immense, and it may well excite surprise, that the breed of this noble animal has not been more diminished. The western and eastern coasts of Africa, the Cape of Good Hope, Ceylon, India, and the countries to the eastward of the Straits of Malacca, are the great marts whence supplies of ivory are derived. The imports from Western Africa into Great Britain, in 1831, amounted to 2,575 cwt.; the Cape only furnished 198 cwt. The imports during the same year from India, Ceylon and other Eastern countries, were 2,173 cwt. —(*Parl. Paper*, No. 550. Sess. 1833.) The Chinese market is principally supplied with ivory from Malacca, Siam, and Sumatra.

The chief consumption of ivory in England is in the manufacture of handles for knives; but it is also extensively used in the manufacture of musical and mathematical instruments, chess-men, billiard-balls, plates for miniatures, toys, &c. Ivory articles are said to be manufactured to a greater extent, and with better success, at Dieppe, than in any other place in Europe. But the preparation of this beautiful material is much better understood by the Chinese than by any other people. No European artist has hitherto succeeded in cutting concentric balls after the manner of the Chinese: and their boxes, chess-men, and other ivory articles, are all far superior to any that are to be met with any where else.

Historical Notice.—It is a curious fact, that the people of all Asiatic countries in which the elephant is found, have always had the art of taming the animal and applying it to useful purposes, but that no such art has ever been possessed by any native African nation. Is this owing to any difference between the Asiatic and African elephants, or to the inferior sagacity

of the African people? We incline to think that the latter is the true hypothesis. Alexander the Great is believed to have been the first European who employed elephants in war. It appears pretty certain, that the elephants made use of by the Carthaginians were mostly, if not wholly, brought from India; and that they were managed by Indian leaders. Some of the latter were captured by the Romans, in the great victory gained by Metellus over Asdrubal.—(See, on this curious subject, two very learned and valuable notes in the *Ancient Universal History*, 8vo ed. vol. xvii. p. 529. and p. 549. *Buffon's Article on the Elephant* is a splendid piece of composition.)

The price per cwt., duty (1*l.* per cwt.) included, of elephants' teeth in the London market, in December, 1832, was—

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1st, 79 to 90 lbs. - -	29	0	0	to 31	0	0	5th, 18 to 27 lbs. - -	18	0	0	to 21	0	0
2d, 56 — 60 — - -	25	0	0	— 33	0	0	Scrivelloes - -	14	0	0	— 35	0	0
3d, 38 — 55 — - -	23	0	0	— 26	0	0	Sea horse teeth - -	0	0	0	— 5	0	0
4th, 28 — 37 — - -	20	0	0	— 24	0	0							

K.

KELP. A substance composed of different materials, of which the fossil or mineral alkali, or, as it is commonly termed, soda, is the chief. This ingredient renders it useful in the composition of soap, in the manufacture of alum, and in the formation of crown and bottle glass. It is formed of marine plants; which, being cut from the rocks with a hook, are collected and dried on the beach to a certain extent; they are afterwards put into kilns prepared for the purpose, the heat of which is sufficient to bring the plants into a state of semifusion. They are then strongly stirred with iron rakes; and when cool, condense into a dark blue or whitish mass, very hard and solid. Plants about 3 years old yield the largest quantity of kelp. The best kelp has an acrid caustic taste, a sulphurous odour, is compact, and of a dark blue greenish colour. It yields about 5 per cent. of its weight of soda.—(*Barry's Orkney Islands*, p. 377.; *Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

The manufacture of kelp is, or rather *was*, principally carried on in the Western Islands, and on the western shores of Scotland, where it was introduced from Ireland, about the middle of last century. Towards the end of the late war, the kelp shores of the island of North Uist let for 7,000*l.* a year. It has been calculated that the quantity of kelp annually manufactured in the Hebrides only, exclusive of the mainland, and of the Orkney and Shetland Isles, amounted, at the period referred to, to about 6,000 tons a year; and that the total quantity made in Scotland and its adjacent isles amounted to about 20,000 tons. At some periods during the war, it sold for 20*l.* a ton; but at an average of the 28 years ending with 1822, the price was 10*l.* 9*s.* 7*d.*—(Art. *Scotland*, *Edinburgh Encyclopædia*.)

Unluckily, however, the foundations on which this manufacture rested were altogether factitious. Its existence depended on the maintenance of the high duties on barilla and salt. Inasmuch, however, as kelp could not be substituted, without undergoing a very expensive process, for barilla, in a great many departments of industry in which the use of mineral alkali is indispensable, it became necessary materially to reduce the high duty laid on barilla during the war. The ruin of the kelp manufacture has been ascribed to this reduction; but though barilla had been altogether excluded from our markets, which could not have been done without great injury to many most important manufactures, the result would have been perfectly the same, in so far as kelp is concerned, unless the high duty on salt had also been maintained. It was the repeal of the latter that gave the kelp manufacture the *coup de grace*. The purification of kelp so as to render it fit for soap-making, is a much more troublesome and expensive process than the decomposition of salt; and the greatest quantity of alkali used, is now obtained by the latter method. Had the duty on salt not been repealed, kelp might still have been manufactured, notwithstanding the reduction of duty on barilla.

The manufacture is now almost extinct. Shores that formerly yielded the proprietors a rent of 200*l.* to 500*l.* a year, are now worth nothing. The price of kelp since 1822 has not been, at an average, above 4*l.* a ton; and the article will, most probably, soon cease to be produced.

This result, though injurious to the proprietors of kelp shores, and productive of temporary distress to the labourers employed in the manufacture, is not to be regretted. It could not have been obviated, without keeping up the price of some of the most important necessaries of life at a forced and unnatural elevation. The high price of kelp was occasioned by the exigencies of the late war, which, besides obstructing the supply of barilla, forced government to lay high duties on it and on salt. The proprietors had not the vestige of a ground for considering that such a state of things would be permanent; they did right in profiting by it while it lasted; but they could not expect that government was to subject the country, during peace, to some of the severest privations occasioned by the war, merely that *they* might continue to enjoy an accidental advantage.

KENTLEDGE, the name sometimes given to the iron pigs cast in a particular form for ballasting ships, and employed for that purpose.

KERMES (Ger. *Scharlachbeeren*; Du. *Grein*, *Scharlakenbessen*; It. *Grana*, *Chermes*, *Cremese*, *Cocchi*; Sp. *Grana Kermes*, *Grana de la coscoja*), an insect (*Coccus ilicis* Lin.) of the same species as the true Mexican cochineal, found upon the *quercus ilex*, a species of oak growing in Spain, France, the Levant, &c. Before the discovery of America, kermes was the most esteemed drug for dyeing scarlet, and had been used for that purpose from a very remote period. Beckmann inclines to think that it was employed by the Phœnicians, and that it excelled even the famous Tyrian purple.—(*Hist. of Invent.* vol. ii. p. 197. Eng. ed.) From the name of *coccum* or *coccus*, cloth dyed with kermes was called *coccinum*, and persons wearing this cloth were said by the Romans to be *coccinati*.—(*Mart* lib i.

epig. 97. lin. 6.) It is singular, however, notwithstanding its extensive use in antiquity, that the ancients had the most incorrect notions with respect to the nature of kermes: many of them supposing that it was the grains (*grana*) or fruit of the *ilex*. This was Pliny's opinion: others after him considered it in the same light, or as an excrescence formed by the puncture of a particular kind of fly, like the gall nut. It was not till the early part of last century that it was finally and satisfactorily established that the kermes is really nothing but an insect, assuming the appearance of a berry in the process of drying. The term kermes is of Persian origin. The Arabians had been acquainted with this production from the earliest periods in Africa, and having found it in Spain, they cultivated it extensively as an article of commerce, as well as a dye drug for their own use. But since the introduction of cochineal, it has become an object of comparatively trifling importance. It is still, however, prepared in some parts of Spain. Cloths dyed with kermes are of a deep red colour; and though much inferior in brilliancy to the scarlet cloths dyed with real Mexican cochineal, they retain the colour better, and are less liable to stain. The old tapestries of Brussels, and other places in Flanders, which have scarcely lost any thing of their original vivacity, though 200 years old, were all dyed with kermes. The history of this production has been treated with great learning by Beckmann (*Hist. of Invent.* vol. i. pp. 171—191. 1st ed. trans.); and by Dr. Bancroft (*Permanent Colours*, vol. i. pp. 393—409.)

KINO (Fr. *Gomme de Kino*; Ger. *Kinoharz*; It. *Chino*), a gum, the produce of trees that grow in the East and West Indies, Africa, Botany Bay, &c. The kino now found in the shops is said by Dr. A. T. Thomson to come from India, and to be the produce of the *nauclea gambir*. The branches and twigs are bruised and boiled in water. The decoction is then evaporated until it acquires the consistence of an extract, which is kino. It is imported in chests containing from 1 to 2 cwt.; and on the inside of the lid of each chest is a paper, inscribed with the name of John Brown, the month and year of its importation, and stating that it is the produce of Amboyna. It is inodorous, very rough, and slightly bitter when first taken into the mouth: but it afterwards impresses a degree of sweetness on the palate. It is in small, uniform, deep brown, shining, brittle fragments, which appear like portions of a dried extract broken down; being perfectly uniform in their appearance. It is easily pulverised, affording a powder of a lighter brown colour than the fragments. But it may be doubted whether the inspissated juice of the *nauclea gambir* ought to be considered as kino. Dr. Ainslie says that Botany Bay kino is the only kind he had seen in an Indian bazaar. The tree which yields it grows to a great height: it flows from incisions made into the wood of the trunk.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Ainslie's Materia Indica.*)

KNIVES (Ger. *Messer*; Du. *Messen*; Fr. *Couteaux*; It. *Coltelli*; Sp. *Cuchillos*; Rus. *Noshi*) well known utensils made of iron and steel, and employed to cut with; they are principally manufactured in London and Sheffield. Knives are made for a variety of purposes, as their different denominations imply; such as table knives, penknives, oyster knives, pruning knives, &c. Although England at present excels every part of the world in the manufacture of knives, as in most branches of cutlery, the finer kinds were imported until the reign of Elizabeth. It is stated by Mr. Macpherson (*Annals of Com. Anno* 1563), that knives were not made for use in England till 1563; but there can be no doubt that this is an error. They had been made, though probably of a rude and clumsy pattern, for centuries before, in the district called Hallamshire, of which Sheffield is the centre; and the cutlers of London were formed into a corporation in 1417.—(*Manufactures in Metal*, vol. ii. c. i. in *Lardner's Cyclopædia.*)

KÖNIGSBERG, the capital of East Prussia, in lat. 54° 42′ 11″ N., lon. 20° 29′ 15″ E. Population 68,000.

Port, &c.—Königsberg is situated on the Pregel, which flows into the Frische Haff, or Fresh Bay, —a large lake having from 10 to 14 feet water. The bar at the mouth of the Pregel has only from 5 to 6 feet water, so that none but flat-bottomed boats can ascend to the city. Pillau, in lat. 54° 33′ 39″ N., lon. 19° 59′ 30″ E., on the north side of the entrance from the Baltic to the Frische Haff, is properly the port of Königsberg. Within these few years, a light-house has been erected on a rising ground, a little to the south of Pillau, the lantern of which is elevated 103 feet above the level of the sea. The light is fixed and brilliant. The entrance to the harbour is marked by buoys; those on the larboard side being surmounted by small flags. A Gothic building, 120 feet above the level of the sea, has been erected to serve for a land-mark; at a distance it looks like a three-masted ship under sail. There is usually from 15 to 16 feet water between the buoys on entering the harbour; but particular winds occasion material differences in this respect.

Trade of Königsberg.—Being situated on a navigable river of considerable importance, Königsberg has a large command of internal navigation, and is the principal emporium of a large extent of country. Wheat, rye, and other species of grain, are the chief articles of export. The wheat is somewhat similar to that of Dantzic, but of inferior quality, being larger in the berry, and thicker skinned. The rye is thin, and also the barley, with few exceptions, and light. Peas are of a remarkably large quality. Oats are common feed, with a slight admixture of tares; but as these last answer in some degree the purpose of beans, the value of the oats is rather enhanced than otherwise by the circumstance. More tares are shipped here than from any other port in the Baltic. The prices of all sorts of grain are usually lower at Königsberg than at the neighbouring Prussian ports. Hemp, flax, lin-

seed, yarn, and bristles, are largely exported; with smaller quantities of wool, ashes, feathers, wax, hides and skins, &c. The bristles are the best in the Baltic. Timber, deals, and staves are as good as at Memel, but are rather scarce. The imports are coffee, sugar, cotton stuffs and yarn, hardware, dye woods, spices, tobacco, coals, rum, &c. Salt is a government monopoly; any person being allowed to import it, but he must either sell it to government at a price fixed by them, or export it again.

Money, Weights, and Measures, same as at DANTZIC; which see.

Account of the Exports of the different Species of Grain from Königsberg during each of the Fourteen Years ending with 1831.

	1818.	1819.	1820.	1821.	1822.	1823.	1824.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.
	Lasts.	*Lasts.*	*Lasts.*	*Lasts.*	*Lasts.*	*Lasts.*	*Lasts.*	*Lasts.*	*Lasts.*	*Lasts.*	*Lasts.*	*Lasts.*	*Lasts.*	*Lasts.*
Wheat	3,129	1,832	2,261	1,559	681	628	1,009	816	1,493	3,734	3,543	7,080	7,505	7,168
Rye	3,429	7,360	6,769	1,459	100	1,080	588	697	694	7,828	12,990	3,754	25,120	16,800
Barley	4,425	2,952	818	315	282	94	208	1,631	201	2,322	1,548	3,870	1,697	200
Oats	3,859	1,513	5,595	864	200	116	1,595	803	5,381	6,480	1,948	3,660	5,310	4,268
Peas	2,953	1,991	1,310	234	108	215	413	718	963	809	919	422	2,960	1,500
Beans		185	41						66	56	} 607	860	} 99	134
Tares		439	458	78		23	266	716	962	318			} 141	848
Linseed, hemp, and rapeseed	1,823	2,497	1,964	3,173	320	1,857	1,016	2,271	2,729	2,864	2,715	3,873	3,321	1,184
Malt	4	28	49	80		2		10						
Total	24,622	18,148	19,665	7,612	1,711	3,094	5,513	7,206	12,315	25,545	30,421	26,456	49,943	32,305

Exclusive of corn, the quantities of the principal articles exported from Königsberg in 1830 and 1831 were—

Articles.	1830.	1831.	Articles.	1830.	1831.
Ashes lbs.	82,170		Hides and skins lbs.	56,707	17,513
Bristles	167,827	107,311	Linseed cakes stone		31,830
Feathers	15,960	15,411	Wax lbs.	31,955	28,702
Flax and flax codilla stone	75,220	26,900	Wool		116,666
Hemp and hemp codilla —	60,976	9,473	Yarn, Lith. and Ermal. bundles	9,000	9,000

Arrivals in 1831.—In 1831, there entered the port of Königsberg (Pillau) 704 ships, of the burden of 43,028 tons. In 1832. 43 British ships, of the burden of 3,502 tons, cleared out.

Prices free on board of the principal Articles of Export from Königsberg, 1st of June, 1832.

Articles.	Prime Cost in Prussian Currency.	Free on board in Sterling Money.	Articles.	Prime Cost in Prussian Currency.	Free on board in Sterling money.
	Sil. gr. *Per last.*	*L. s. d. L. s. d.* *Per quarter.*		*Sil. gr.* *Per ct. 324lb.*	*L. s. d. L. s. d.* *Per ton.*
Wheat, old, mixed and high mixed	450 to 500	2 3 3 to 2 9 4	Hemp, clean	11 1-3	30 5 0
old, inferior kind	400 — 430	1 18 10 — 2 1 8	cut	10 1-2 to 11	28 18 0 to 37 10 0
new, best mixed and high mixed	450 — 500	2 3 3 — 2 8 4	Lagen	9 1-2 — 10	26 11 0 — 34 6 0
new inferior red, mixed and best red	380 — 420	1 16 10 — 2 1 5	Flax, Druzan, crown, No. 1.	10 1-2 — 11½	36 2 0 — 39 3 0
Rye, old and new	230 — 260	1 2 3 — 1 5 9	Pedolia, crown, No. 1.	10 1-2 — 11½	36 2 0 — 39 3 0
Barley, large	190 — 200	0 19 0 — 0 19 6		*Per 320 lbs.*	*Per cwt.*
small	170 — 185	0 17 2 — 0 18 6	Ashes, calcined crown	70	1 5 4
Oats	110 — 130	0 11 6 — 0 13 4		*Per lb.*	
Peas, white, new	240 — 270	1 3 3 — 1 6 7	Bristles, best white	65gr.—72gr.	12 12 0 — 13 9 0
grey	240 — 270	1 3 3 — 1 6 7	crown	42	8 0 0
Beans	210 — 220	1 0 10 — 1 2 9		*Per bundle.*	*Per bundle.*
Tares	150 — 170	0 15 9 — 0 17 2	Yarn, Lith. 12—20 lbs.	5 :4	0 5 8
	Per barrel.	*Per barrel.*	20—40 lbs.	5:8	0 6 3
Linseed, crushing	13 1-3 — 14	1 11 6 — 1 12 10	40—60 lbs.	6	0 6 9 — 0 6 10
sowing	19 — 21	1 0 0 — 1 2 0			

The above prices in sterling money, free on board, are calculated at the exchange of 205 *s. gr.*, and at the proportion of 10½ Imp. qrs. per last.

L.

LAC, or GUM LAC (Ger. *Lack, Gummilack*; Fr. *Laque, Gomme laque*; It. *Lacca, Gommalacca*; Sp. *Goma laca*; Rus. *Laka, Gummilak*; Arab. *Laak*; Hind. *Lak'h*; Sans. *Lákshá*), a substance, which has been improperly called a gum, produced in Bengal, Assam, Pegu, Siam, &c., on the leaves and branches of certain trees, by an insect (*chermes lacca*). The trees selected by the insect on which to deposit its eggs are known by the names of the bihar tree (*Croton laciferum* Lin.), the pepel (*Butea frondosa*), bott, and coosim trees, &c. After being deposited, the egg is covered by the insect with a quantity of this peculiar substance, or lac, evidently intended to serve, in the economy of nature, as a nidus and protection to the ovum and insect in its first stage, and as food for the maggot in its more advanced stage. It is formed into cells, finished with as much art as a honeycomb, but differently arranged. Lac yields a fine red dye, which, though not so bright as the true Mexican cochineal, is said to be more permanent; and the resinous part is extensively used in the manufacture of sealing wax and hats, and as a varnish.

Lac, when in its natural state, encrusting leaves and twigs, is called *stick lac*; it is collected twice a year; and the only trouble in procuring it is in breaking down the leaves and branches, and carrying

them to market. When the twigs or sticks are large, or only partially covered, the lac is frequently separated from them, as it always ought to be when shipped for Europe, to lessen the expense of freight. The best stick lac is of a deep red colour. When held against the light, it should look bright, and when broken should appear in diamond-like points. If it be not gathered till the insects have left their cells, it becomes pale, and pierced at the top; and is of little use as a dye, though probably better for a varnish.

Lac dye, lac lake, or *cake lac*, consists of the colouring matter extracted from the stick lac. Various processes have been adopted for this purpose. It is formed into small square cakes or pieces, like those of indigo. It should, when broken, look dark-coloured, shining, smooth, and compact; when scraped or powdered, it should be of a bright red colour, approaching to that of carmine. That which is sandy, light-coloured and spongy, and which, when scraped, is of a dull brickdust colour, should be rejected.

Notwithstanding the continued fall in the price of cochineal, the use of lac dye has been extending in this country. The annual consumption may at present amount to about 600,000 lbs., having trebled since 1818. The finest qualities of lac dye are seldom met with for sale in Calcutta, being generally manufactured under contract for the European market.

When stick lac has been separated from the twigs to which it naturally adheres, and coarsely pounded, the native silk and cotton dyers extract the colour as far as it conveniently can be done by water. The yellowish, hard, resinous powder which remains, having somewhat of the appearance of mustard seed, is called *seed lac*. When liquified by fire, it is formed into cakes, and denominated *lump lac*. The natives use the latter in making bangles, or ornaments in the form of rings, for the arms of the lower class of females; the best *shellac* being used in manufacturing these ornaments for the superior classes.

Shellac is produced from seed lac, by putting the latter into bags of cotton cloth, and holding it over a charcoal fire, when the lac melts, and being strained through the bag, the resinous part, which is the most liquefiable, is obtained in a considerable degree of purity; it is formed into thin sheets or plates. Thin-transparent, or amber-coloured shellac is best; avoid that which is thick, dark, or speckled; it should always, when broken, be amber-coloured on the edge; that which has a dark brown fracture, however thin, should be rejected. When laid on a hot iron, shellac, if pure, will instantly catch fire, and burn with a strong but not disagreeable smell. It used to be principally employed in this country in the manufacture of sealing wax, and as a varnish; but within these few years it has begun to be very extensively used in the manufacture of hats. Shellac has advanced rapidly in price during the last three or four years; a circumstance which has had a considerable effect in accelerating the fall in the price of lac dye; the quantity of the latter being necessarily increased in consequence of the greater demand for the former.

In Bengal, lac is chiefly produced in the forests of Sylet and Burdwan. The finest dye is said to be obtained from the stick lac of Siam and Pegu; but the shellac or resinous part obtained from the latter, is inferior to that produced from Sylet stick lac. It may be obtained in almost any quantity.

Account of the Quantities of Lac Dye or Lac Lake, Shellac and Seed Lack, and Stick Lac, imported into Great Britain, from the Countries eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, since 1814.

Years.	Lac Dye or Lac Lake.	Shellac and Seed Lac.	Stick Lac.	Years.	Lac Dye or Lac Lake.	Shellac and Seed Lac.	Stick Lac.
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*		*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*
1814	278,829	110,670	44,439	1824	502,197	571,684	427
1815	508,592	575,699	32,677	1825	535,505	708,687	13,521
1816	269,080	587,153	4,200	1826	760,720	443,589	90,396
1817	384,909	653,256	254,005	1827	729,242	499,813	8,835
1818	242,387	839,977	502,051	1828	669,205	681,271	
1819	178,088	531,549	40,478	1829	590,721	725,780	
1820	439,439	845,569	342,340	1830	485,209	649,636	37,598
1821	640,864	718,063	58,880	1831	753,253	1,146,128	149,144
1822	872,907	988,621	18,499	1832	459,379	1,070,961	319,373*
1823	425,231	366,321	15,517				

The finest lac dye is distinguished by the mark D. T.; the second by J. Mc. R.; the third, by C. E., &c. In January, 1834, the prices of the different species of lac in bond in the London market were as follows:—

			L.	*s.*	*d.*		*L.*	*s.*	*d.*
Lac lake	.	per lb.	0	0	4	to	0	1	0
dye, D. T.	.	—	0	2	8	.	0	3	6
— J. Mc. R.	.	—	0	1	8	.	0	1	9
— C. E.	.	—	0	1	4	.	0	1	6
— low and mid.	.	—	0	0	9	.	0	1	1
Seed lac	.	per cwt.	2	0	0	.	4	0	0
Stick lac	.	—	2	10	0	.	3	15	0
Shellac, liver	.	—	6	0	0	.	6	10	0
Shellac, liver, D. T., per cwt.			6	0	0	to	0	0	0
— orange		—	7	0	0	.	7	10	0
— block		—	6	0	0	.	6	10	0

In 1829, D. T. lac dye was as high as 8*s.* 6*d.* and 8*s.* 6*d.* per lb. The duties used to be 5 per cent. on lac dye, seed lac, and stick lac; and 20 per cent. on shellac; but it was obviously absurd to charge shellac, which, as already seen, is prepared from the refuse of the lac dye, with *four* times the duty laid upon the latter. This ridiculous distinction is now, however, put an end to; the present duties being 6*s.* a cwt. on lac dye and shellac, and 1*s.* a cwt. on stick lac.—(*Bancroft on Permanent Colours*, vol. ii. pp. 1—20; *Kinahan's Mat. Med.*; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*; and *private information.*)

LACE (Du. *Kanten*; Fr. *Dentelle*; Ger. *Spitzen*; It. *Merletti, Pizzi*; Rus. *Krushewo*; Sp. *Encajes*), a plain or ornamental net-work, tastefully composed of many fine threads of gold, silver, silk, flax, or cotton, interwoven, from *Lacinia* (Lat.), the guard hem or fringe of a garment.

The origin of this delicate and beautiful fabric is involved in considerable obscurity, but there is no doubt it lays claim to high antiquity. In Mr. Hope's Costumes of the Ancients, many beautiful lace patterns are portrayed on the borders of the dresses of Grecian females; and from the derivation of the word "*lace*," it is probable it was not unknown to the Romans. It is supposed that Mary de' Medici was the first who brought lace into France, from Venice, where, and in the neighbouring states of Italy, it is understood to have been long previously worn; but we find that in England, so early as 1483, "laces of thread, and laces of gold, and silk and gold," were enumerated among the articles prohibited to be imported.—(1 *Rich.* 3. c. 10.) It is, therefore, fair to presume that this manufacture had begun in England *prior* to that period, as this and many subsequent acts were passed—(19 Hen. 7. c. 21.; 5 Eliz. c. 7.; 13 & 14 Car. 2. c. 13.; 4 & 5 W. & M. c. 10., &c.)—

*In addition to the above, an inconsiderable quantity of lac dye, &c. is sometimes imported at second hand from other countries.

for the encouragement and protection of our home manufacture; but it may equally be concluded, that as *pins* (which are indispensable in the process of lace making) were not used in England till 1543, the manufacture of lace must have been vulgar in fabric, and circumscribed in its extent. Tradition says that the lace manufacture was introduced into this country by some refugees from Flanders, who settled at or near Cranfield, now a scattered village on the west side of Bedfordshire, and adjoining Bucks; but there is no certain evidence that we are indebted to the Flemings for the original introduction of this beautiful art, although from them we have undoubtedly derived almost all the different manufactures relating to dress. We have, however, imitated many of their lace fabrics, and greatly improved our manufactures at various periods, from the superior taste displayed in the production of this article in the Low Countries. In 1626, Sir Henry Borlase founded and endowed the free school at Great Marlow, for 24 boys, to read, write, and cast accounts; and for 24 girls to knit, spin, and make *bone lace*—(*Lewis's Topography*); so that there is reason to suppose that at this time the manufacture had commenced in Buckinghamshire, which, by degrees extended to the adjoining counties of Bedford and Northampton. In 1640, the lace trade was a flourishing interest in Buckinghamshire—(*Fuller's Worthies*, and different *Itineraries*); and so greatly had it advanced in England, that by a royal ordinance in France, passed in 1960, a mark was established upon the thread lace *imported from this country* and from Flanders, and upon the point lace from Genoa, Venice, and other foreign countries, in order to secure payment of the customs duties.—(*Universal Dictionary.*)

Pillow Lace,—the original manufacture,—is worked upon a hard stuffed pillow, with silk, flax, or cotton threads, according to a parchment pattern placed upon it, by means of pins, bobbins and spindles, which are placed and displaced, twisting, and interweaving the threads, so as to imitate the pattern designed. This manufacture has been long pursued in almost every town and village in the midland counties, particularly in Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, and Northamptonshire, besides at Honiton, in Devon, and various other places in the west of England. The principal places where it is made in the Netherlands are Antwerp, Brussels, Mechlin, Louvaine, Ghent, Valenciennes, and Lisle. It is also made at Chantilly near Paris (celebrated for veils), Charleville, Sedan, Le Compté de Bourgoyne, Liege, Dieppe, Havre de Grace, Harfleur, Pont l'Evesque, Gosors, Fescamp, Caen, Arras, Bapaume, &c., in France; and at various places in Spain, Portugal, and Italy. We can form no estimate of the number of persons employed on the Continent; but in Brussels alone not less than 10,000 are said to be engaged in this manufacture.—(*Ency. Metrop.*) In England and Ireland, besides the laws passed at different times to encourage and protect the manufacture, associations were formed in various places, with the view of exciting a spirit of emulation and improvement, by holding out premiums for the production of the best pieces of bone lace; and although smuggling of foreign lace was carried on to a great extent, (in 1772, 72,000 ells of French lace were seized in the port of Leigh, and lodged in the king's warehouse there, besides numerous other seizures,) the British manufacture advanced in an unparalleled degree.—(*Gentleman's Mag.* 1751, vol. xxi. p. 520.; vol. xlii. p. 434.) It is imagined that the first lace ever made in this country was of the sort called *Brussels point*, the net work made by bone bobbins on the pillow, and the pattern and sprigs worked with the needle. Such appears to have been the kind worn by the nobility and people of high rank, as is evident by the different portraits now in existence, painted by Vandyke, in the time of Charles I., and afterwards by Sir Peter Lely and Sir Godfrey Kneller, in the succeeding reigns of Charles II., Queen Anne, and George I. About a century since, the *grounds* in use were the old Mechlin, and what the trade termed the *wire ground*, which was very similar, if not identical, with the *modern* Mechlin, the principal article in the present French manufacture. The laces made in these grounds were singularly rich and durable; the designs of the *old Mechlin* resembled the figures commonly introduced in ornamental carving. Between 70 and 80 years ago, a great deterioration was occasioned by the introduction of the *Trolly* ground, which was exceedingly coarse and vulgar, the figure angular, and altogether in the worst taste conceivable. An improvement, however, took place about the year 1770, when the ground which is probably the most ancient known, was reintroduced; this was no other than the one still in partial use, and denominated the *old French ground*. About 1777 or 1778, quite a *new* ground was attempted by the inhabitants of Buckingham and its neighbourhood, which quickly superseded all the others; this was the *point ground*, which had (as is supposed) been imported from the Netherlands. From the first appearance of this ground may be dated the origin of the modern pillow lace trade; but it was not until the beginning of the present century that the most striking improvements were made; for during the last quarter of the eighteenth century, the article, though certainly much more light and elegant from the construction of the ground, was miserably poor and spiritless in the design. Soon after the year 1800, a freer and bolder style was adopted; and from that time to 1812, the improvement and consequent success were astonishing and unprecedented. At Honiton, in Devon, the manufacture had arrived at that perfection, was so tasteful in the design, and so delicate and

beautiful in the workmanship, as not to be excelled even by the best specimens of Brussels lace. During the late war, veils of this lace were sold in London at from 20 to 100 guineas; they are now sold from 8 to 15 guineas. The effects of the competition of machinery, however, were about this time felt; and in 1815, the broad laces began to be superseded by the new manufacture. The pillow lace trade has since been gradually dwindling into insignificance, and has at length sunk into a state which, compared with its condition 20 years back, is truly deplorable. It is difficult to form an estimate of the number of persons employed in pillow lace making during its prosperity; but in a petition from the makers in Buckingham and the neighbourhood, presented to her present Majesty in 1830, it was stated that 120,000 persons were dependent on this trade; but this number had since been materially diminished.

Nottingham Lace.—A frame-work knitter of Nottingham, named Hammond, about the year 1768, was the first who made lace by machinery. Dissipated in habits, and destitute of money, employment, or credit, the idea struck him, while looking at the broad lace on his wife's cap, that he could fabricate a similar article by means of his stocking frame.—(*Gravenor Henson on Hosiery, Lace, &c.*, p. 295.) He tried, and succeeded. The first machine ostensibly for lace (introduced at Nottingham about the same period, by A. Else and Harvey of London) was called a pin machine, for making single press *point net* in imitation of the Brussels ground. This machine, although lost here, is still used in France to a great extent in manufacturing the net called *tulle*. This was the age of experiments; and workmen at their leisure hours employed themselves in forming new meshes on the hand, in hope of perfecting a complete hexagon, which had hitherto eluded all their efforts to discover. In 1782, the warp frame was introduced, which is still in use for making *warp lace;* and in 1799, it was first attempted to make *bobbin net* by machinery; but this was not found to answer. During the succeeding 10 years many alterations were made in the construction of the machines, with no better success, until at length, in 1809, Mr. Heathcoat of Tiverton succeeded in discovering the correct principle of the bobbin net frame, and obtained a patent for 14 years for his invention.* Steam power was first introduced by Mr. John Lindley, in 1815–16; but did not come into active operation till 1820. It became general in 1822–23; and a great stimulus was at this period given to the trade, owing to the expiration of Mr. Heathcoat's patent, the increased application of power, and the perfection to which the different hand frames had by this time been brought. A temporary prosperity shone on the trade; and numerous individuals—clergymen, lawyers, doctors, and others—readily embarked capital in so tempting a speculation. Prices fell in proportion as production increased; but the demand was immense; and the Nottingham lace frame became the organ of general supply,—rivalling and supplanting, in plain nets, the most finished productions of France and the Netherlands.

Mr. William Felkin, of Nottingham, the author of a very able statement relative to this manufacture, considers that the amount of capital and the number of hands employed in the bobbin net trade may be thus estimated.—(Published August, 1833.)

Capital employed in spinning and doubling the Yarn.

	£.	£.
Fixed capital in 85 spinning and 94 doubling factories—794,000 spinning 296,700 doubling spindles	715,000	
Floating capital in spinners' and doublers' stock, and necessary sundries	200,000	
	915,000	
Deduct 1-6th employed for foreign bobbin net trade	155,000	
Total capital in spinning and doubling for English bobbin net trade		760,000

Capital employed in Bobbin Net making.

Fixed capital in 25 factories, principally for power machines	85,000	
1,100 power machines, averaging 11-4ths wide	170,000	
2,900 hand machines, averaging 3-4ths wide	207,000	
Floating capital in stock on hand:		
Power owners 150,000		
Hand owners 250,000		
	400,000	
		862,000
Capital in embroidering, preparing, and stock		250,000
Total capital employed in the trade		£. 1,932,000

Number of Hands employed.

In spinning: adult, 4,800; children, 5,500	10,300
In doubling: adults, 1,300; children, 2,000	3,300
	13,600
Deduct 1-6th employed for foreign demand	2,300
	11,300
In power net making: adults, 1,500; youths, 1,000; children, 500; women and girls, mending, 2,000	5,000
In hand machine working: small machine owners, 1,000; journeymen and apprentices, 4,000; winders, 4,000; menders, 4,000	13,000
Mending, pearling, drawing, finishing, &c.	30,000
In embroidering: at present very uncertain; probably about	100,000
Total of hands employed	† 159,300

† We expressed our conviction, in the former edition of this work, that Mr. Felkin had exaggerated the number of persons employed; and we observe, that in this estimate the number is materially diminished; but it must be remarked, that during the last 2 years an extraordinary depression has taken place in the embroidery branch, and many have abandoned the trade.

In 1831 (*vide* former edition of this work), the annual produce was estimated at 23,400,000 square yards, worth 1,891,875*l.* It is now estimated at 30,771,000 square yards,

* Since this article was printed in our first edition, Mr. Heathcoat was pointed out to us as the original inventor of the bobbin net machine, and that, prior to his patent being obtained, bobbin net by machinery was unknown, although numerous attempts had been made to produce it by its means. Mr. Brunel, engineer, who was examined, as a witness, in the action *Boville* v. *Moore*, tried before Sir Vicary Gibbs, in March, 1816, stated in reference to this machine, that when Mr. Heathcoat had separated one half of the threads, and placed them on a beam as warp threads, and made the bobbin which carried the other half of the threads act between those warp threads, so as to produce Buckinghamshire or pillow lace, *the lace machine was invented.* Relying upon the authenticity of this statement, we feel it due to Mr. Heathcoat to give this explanation.

worth 1,850,650*l.* It would therefore appear that 7,000,000 square yards more per annum are now produced for about the same amount of wages and profits. This increase in quantity is understood to have arisen from the new and improved machinery which in the mean time has been introduced. At this moment, there are, perhaps, 20 new applications of known principles, all tending to promote variety and increased production; but it is doubtful if any *new* principle has been brought into operation. A considerable increase has also taken place in bobbin net machinery on the Continent, particularly at Calais, where, in 1823, there were not 35 machines, and, perhaps, not 100 on the Continent altogether. Mr Felkin states the number of frames now employed there, as under:—

Calais	600	8-4ths 11 point hand circular quillings. 100 of these built this year and last.
Do.	60	7-4th 11 point hand levers.
Do.	45	various width; old machines, pusher, traverse, &c.
Boulogne	30	hand circular; chiefly 8-4th quillings.
St. Omers	30	hand machines; plain nets.
Douay	145	part power, part hand machines; plain net.
Lisle	120	chiefly 8-4ths, 10-4ths, and 12-4ths, power; plain nets.
Ghent	25	power, 12-4ths.
St. Quentin	90	chiefly hand; plain nets.
Do.	60	8-4ths, 10-4ths, and 12-4ths, power; plain nets chiefly.
Caen	35	hand; quillings chiefly.
Paris	10	hand machines chiefly.
Lyons	50	do. do.
Villages in the north of France	340	do. do.
Switzerland	60	nearly all hand machines.
Saxony	70	do. do.
Austria	60	power and hand do.
Russia and Prussia	30	probably; and both hand and power.
Total	1,850 machines.	

N. B.—The last mentioned countries, if we may judge from their efforts to obtain model machines, are preparing to manufacture very extensively.

The produce of these machines is estimated at 9,824,000 square yards of net, of the value in English money of 570,250*l.* In France alone, it was stated in an address presented to the Chamber of Deputies in March, 1833, that bobbin net to the value of 1,000,000*l.* sterling was annually used in that country, formed of equal moieties of French and English manufacture. But in other parts of Europe, where the manufacture was previously unknown, it is now also beginning to be established. Besides Austria, Russia, and Prussia, it is stated that orders have been sent to this country for bobbin net frames from Barcelona and Astorga in Spain, and even from some places in Persia. The attention of government has been called to the circumstance, and measures taken to prevent the illegal exportation of machinery. At a public meeting, held in Nottingham in August last, a committee was formed for the same purpose.

The population of Nottingham and the surrounding villages in 1811, when the bobbin net manufacture commenced, was 47,000; the present number is 79,000. As the hosiery and the point net trade are understood to have declined in the mean time, and no other branch materially advanced or sprung up, this large increase may fairly be attributed to the bobbin net manufacture.

By comparing the value of 1,270,000 lbs. of Sea Island cotton, worth 148,000*l.*, and about 10,000*l.* worth of thrown silk, which appears to be annually used in this manufacture, with the manufactured value of the same, worked into 30,771,000 square yards of bobbin net, the estimated value of which is 1,850,650*l.*, the great national utility of this trade becomes at once evident. A clear surplus of more than a pound sterling is realised upon every pound avoirdupois of the raw material, which is distributed over the trade in rent, profit, and wages, and this is altogether independent of the profits arising from embroidering, in itself a most extensive and important branch. About half, or perhaps three-fourths, of this production is supposed to be exported in a plain state, chiefly to Hamburgh, the Leipsic and Frankfort fairs, Antwerp and the rest of Belgium, to France (contraband), Italy, Sicily, and North and South America. Of the remainder, three-fourths are sold unembroidered, and the remaining fourth embroidered, in this country.

The English manufacture from machinery is now confined to *point net*, *warp net*, and *bobbin net*, so called from the peculiar construction of the machines by which they are produced. There were various other descriptions made; viz. *two-plain net*, *square* or *tuck knotted net*, the *fish mesh net*, and the *platted* or *Urling's net*; but they are now discontinued.—(*Gravenor Henson.*) Nottingham is the *depôt* of the lace trade; and the supplies, collected from all the surrounding villages, and even from the more distant counties where it is manufactured, are thence distributed to the four quarters of the world.

Present condition of the Lace Trade, Wages, &c.—We are grieved to say that the manufacture, not only of pillow but also of Nottingham lace, is at this moment in a state of great depression. The growth of the latter has been the means of destroying the former; but as the new manufacture is by far the most valuable, the change, though severely felt by many thousands of poor persons in Bucks, Bedford, and other counties, is, in a national point of view, decidedly advantageous. The depression in the Nottingham lace trade seems to be the result of its previous prosperity; which, besides contributing to the extraordinary increase in the powers of production, attracted too much capital and too many hands to the trade. So long as the demand kept pace with the supply, workmen were kept in full employment, wages and profits were good, and the stocks on hand small. But of late years the supply has been a question of *quantity* rather than of *quality*, and prices have consequently suffered a great depression. Lace, having become a common ornament, easily accessible to all classes, has lost its attractions in the fashionable circles, by which it was

formerly patronised, so that very rich lace is no longer in demand. And many articles of dress, which in our drawing-rooms and ball-rooms, lately consisted of the most costly and tasteful patterns in lace, are now either superseded, or made of a different manufacture.

The wages of the *power loom* workmen have fallen, within the last 4 years, from 1*l.* 4*s.* to 18*s.* per week—(*Felkin*, p. 2.); and, in 1830 and 1831, machines had increased one eighth in number, and one sixth in capacity of production. But wider or speedier machines than heretofore have since come into more general use, worked by 3 men in 6 hour shifts, or 18 hours per day, and calculated to produce about a *fourth more net for the same wages*; the effect of which is to supersede the single-handed machines, (now much depreciated in value), and reduce many of the small owners to journeymen. The tendency of the increase in power machinery is still further to depreciate the wages of the *hand machine* workmen (already below the standard of the power loom weaver); and the increased and accumulating production, beyond a proportionate demand, renders it hopeless to expect any immediate amelioration in their condition. A favourable reaction is now taking place in the *embroidering* branch; but many of the embroiderers in Nottingham were recently unemployed, and had to leave the trade; and even for the most splendid and beautiful specimens of embroidery (some of which have occupied 6 weeks, working 6 days a week and 14 hours a day), the young women did not earn more than 1*s.* a day. The depressed condition of the embroiderers is believed to be owing in no inconsiderable degree to the competition of the Belgians, who have acquired a superiority in *this* department which it is not easy to account for. The condition of the *pillow lace* workers is still more deplorable. Many have now abandoned that pursuit for straw plaiting, which offers a more certain, though not a much more profitable employment; but those who still linger on in the fabrication of thread lace, working from 12 to 14 hours a day, cannot obtain more, on the average, than *two shillings and sixpence a week* for their anxious and unremitting labour Ten years ago they could, with greater ease, earn 10*s.* a week, working only 8 hours a day.

The health of the power machine workman is, on the whole, understood to be good; the factories are neither hot nor confined; and the hands have only to superintend, not work the machines. Hand machine labour is much heavier; but as it is the custom to work by "*shifts*," the men are seldom more than 6 hours a day at the frame. It is, however, believed, that the gradual depression of wages, requiring increased exertion, will tend to deteriorate the general health of this class, particularly of those employed in wide machines. The embroidery frame is, perhaps, the most destructive. The workers in general, commence at a tender age; and from constantly leaning over the frame, while their bodies remain in a state of inactivity, they are frequently distorted in their persons, and become the victims of pulmonary disease. Notwithstanding the sedentary habits of the pillow lace workers, their general health is understood to be better than that of the lace embroiderers; but, in both these employments, the hours of labour are too long for children. They are, however, purely domestic employments, under the superintendence of parents; but as the existence of the latter depends on the quantity of labour they can bring into operation, their necessities place filial considerations beyond the reach of legislative, or even social, interference.

The most celebrated foreign laces are—

1. *Brussels*, the most valuable. There are 2 kinds; *Brussels ground*, having a hexagon mesh, formed by plaiting and twisting 4 threads of flax to a perpendicular line of mesh; *Brussels wove ground*, made of silk—meshes partly straight, and partly arched. The pattern is worked separately, and set on by the needle.
2. *Mechlin*; a hexagon mesh formed of 8 flax threads twisted and plaited to a perpendicular line or pillar. The pattern is worked in the net.
3. *Valenciennes*; an irregular hexagonal form of 2 threads, partly twisted and plaited at the top of the mesh. The pattern is worked in the net similar to Mechlin lace.
4. *Lisle*; a diamond mesh, formed of 2 threads plaited to a pillar.
5. *Alencon* (called blond); hexagon of 2 threads, twisted similar to Beckingham lace; considered the most inferior of any made on the cushion.
6. *Alencon Point*; formed of 2 threads to a pillar, with octagon and square meshes alternately.

The French nets made by machinery, are—

1. *Single Pressepoint*, called, when not ornamented, *tulle*, and when ornamented, *dentelle*; made of silk; is an inferior net, but is attractive from the beautiful manner in which it is stiffened.
2. *Trico Berlin*; so called from its being invented at Berlin, and the stitch being removed 3 needles from its place of looping; is fanciful and ornamented in appearance, but not in demand in England.
3. *Fleur de Tulle*, made from the warp net machine; mesh of 2 descriptions, which gives a shaded appearance to the net.
4. *Tulle Anglois* is double pressed point lace.

Bobbin net, } principally made by English emigrants, who have
Warp net, } settled in France.

*** We are indebted for this learned and very excellent article to Mr. Robert Slater, of Fore Street, London.

LACK, a word used in the East Indies to denote the sum of 100,000 rupees, which, supposing them standards, or siccas, at 2*s.* 6*d.*, amounts to 12,500*l.* sterling.

LADING, BILL OF. See BILL OF LADING.

LAGAN. See FLOTSAM.

LA GUAYRA, the principal sea-port of the republic of Venezuela, in the province of Caraccas, on the Caribbean Sea, in lat. 10° 36′ 19″ N., lon. 67° 6′ 45″ W. Population 6,000. In 1810, the population is believed to have amounted to 13,000; the reduction being a consequence of the loss of life caused by the tremendous earthquake of 1812, and the massacres and proscriptions incident to the revolutionary war. The population of the city of Caraccas, of which La Guayara may be considered as the port, fell off, from the same cause, from 43,000 in 1810; to 23,000 in 1830; but they are now both increasing.

Port.—There is neither quay nor mole at La Guayra. Ships moor E.N.E. and W.S.W., with their head to the north, at from ½ to ¾ of a mile from the land, in from 9 to 16 fathoms. The holding ground

is good; and notwithstanding the openness of the road, vessels properly found in anchors and cables run very little risk of being driven from their moorings.

Trade.—The principal articles of export are coffee, cacao, indigo, hides, sarsaparilla, &c. The quantities and values of these articles exported in 1829, 1830, and 1831, are exhibited in the following Table:—

Years.	Coffee.		Cacao.		Indigo.		Hides.		Sarsaparilla.		Sugar.	
	Weight.	Value in Sterling Money.	Weight.	Value in Sterling Money.	Weight.	Value in Sterling Money.	Number.	Value in Sterling Money.	Weight.	Value in Sterl. Mon.	Weight.	Value in Sterling Money.
	Lbs.	*L.*	*Lbs.*	*L.*	*Lbs.*	*L.*		*L.*	*Lbs.*	*L.*	*Lbs.*	*L.*
1829	4,6-2,221	85,753	1,224,222	45,029	293,974	81,060	8,993	2,295	4,201	90	8,214	93
1830	4,870,609	51,201	2,121,448	57,043	217,042	86,237	6,990	2,130	82,172	782	73,410	986
1831	6,338,646	66,630	1,791,814	48,741	182,036	81,456	12,508	4,169	14,890	365	232,672	2,329

The principal articles of import are cotton, linen, and woollen goods, principally from England; with provisions, hats, machinery and utensils, hardware, wine, &c. The entire value of the imports, in 1831, was supposed to amount to 162,503*l.*; of which 62,423*l.* was furnished by England; 26,092*l.* by Germany; 32,750*l.* by the United States; 29,344*l.* at second hand by St. Thomas; and the residue by France, Spain, &c.

The duties are moderate. Cottons and linens pay 37 per cent. *ad valorem*. Smuggling has been very prevalent; but efforts have recently been made, by establishing a sort of coast-guard, to effect its suppression.

Arrivals in 1831.

Countries.	Vessels.	Tons.	Countries.	Vessels.	Tons.
England	9	1,411	United States	29	3,324
France	3	430	Colombia	16	868
Germany	4	744			
Holland	13	640			
Denmark	17	1,523	Total	91	8,722

Port Charges payable by a Ship of 300 Tons, discharging and loading at the Port of La Guayra.

	National.	Foreign (not privileged).		National.	Foreign (not privileged).
	Dollars. cents.	*Dollars. cents.*		*Dollars. cents.*	*Dollars. cents.*
Tonnage duty	87 50	150 0	Municipal bill of health	2 0	2 0
Entrance fee	4 0	6 0	Permit to load, and stamp	1 12½	1 12½
Anchorage	12 0	16 0	Certificate of sea-worthiness from captain of port, prior to loading, and stamp	2 0	2 0
Captain of port's fee	3 0	6 0			
Interpreter's fee and translating manifest	2 0	4 0		108 75	202 25
Permit to discharge and stamp	1 12½	1 12½			
Health officer's fee	4 0	4 0	Value in sterling money	*L.*17 15 10	*L.*38 14 2
Municipal charge for water	40 0	40 0			

N. B.—A ship introducing a cargo, and sailing in ballast, would be liable to all the above charges, with the exception of the last two.

The charge for water is levied without regard to tonnage; viz. sloops and schooners, 20 dollars each, brigs 30, and ships 40.

Port Regulations.—On casting anchor, a visit is paid by the collector of customs, or his agent, accompanied by other officers, who take from the master his register, manifest, and muster-roll, and an officer is left on board until the cargo is discharged. The master must swear to his manifest within 24 hours after his arrival, when the permit to discharge is granted, and within 3 days all invoices must be presented. The discharge completed, the same officers repair on board to examine the vessel, and all being found in order, the officer is withdrawn. The clearing of a vessel outwards (that has entered with cargo) in ballast is then completed by paying the port charges; proof whereof being produced, the permission to sail is signed by the governor and harbour master. If the vessel take cargo on board, then the same formality, as to visiting, is pursued, as on the entry of a vessel.

Credit.—Goods imported are almost invariably sold upon credit; those exported are, on the other hand always sold for ready money. The terms of credit vary from 2 to 6 months, or more. Bankruptcy is very rare.

Commission, Brokerage, &c.—Any one who pleases may undertake the functions of broker, factor, or merchant in Venezuela. The only obligation is the paying the patent or licence, that must be taken out by every one exercising such trades. This varies, according to the business, from about 1*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.*, to 66*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.* a year, and falls on natives as well as foreigners. The rates of commission are as follows:—

On sales of goods imported	5	per cent.	But when monies are collected, and remittance is ordered in bills of exchange, including guarantee of the same	2½	per cent.
Guaranteeing the same without regard to time	2½	—	Negotiating and indorsing bills	1½	—
On sales of produce	2½	—	On money remitted as return for goods sold	1	—
On shipping produce, as returns for goods imported, or upon orders where cash is provided for the purchase	2½	—	On bills remitted as return for goods sold, including guarantee thereof, as may be agreed	1 to 2½	—
But upon orders where the amount has to be drawn for, or when provision is made in bills of exchange	5	—	Advancing money upon letters of credit, and drawing for the same	2½	—
Collecting monies, and remitting the same	1	—	Collecting or procuring freight for vessels	5	—

Insurance.—There are no establishments for conducting the business of insurance in Venezuela.

Money, Weights, and Measures.—The currency of the country consists of silver money, known by the name of *macuquena*, divided into dollars of 8 reals, ½ do. of 4 reals, besides reals, ½ reals, and quartillas or ¼ reals. This money is of very unequal weight and purity, the coins issued since the commencement of the revolutionary war having been often a good deal defaced. The real should be worth 5*d.* sterling.

Weights and measures same as those of Spain, but it is intended to introduce the British Imperial gallon.

Tares.—Real tare is taken both at the Custom-house and by the merchant.

Commercial Prospects.—The commerce and industry of Venezuela suffered severely from the revolutionary struggle of which she has been the theatre. But the country is now comparatively tranquil, and there seem to be good reasons for thinking that she is about to enter on a career of prosperity. As the riches of Venezuela consist entirely of the products of her agriculture, the legislature has wisely exerted itself to give it all the encouragement possible. In this view tithes have been abolished, and their collection was finally to cease on the 1st of January, 1834. The tobacco monopoly has also

been abolished, and invitations have been held out to foreigners to settle in the country; but there is little prospect of their being much attended to, at least for some considerable time. The final recognition by Spain of the independence of this and the other new states would materially promote their interests; and it is to be hoped that it may not be much longer deferred.

We have derived these details principally from the carefully drawn up *Answers* made by Sir Robert Ker Porter, the British consul at Caraccas, to the *Circular Queries*.

(LAMAR, formerly COBIJA, a sea-port of the republic of Bolivia, the ci-devant Upper Peru, on the west coast of South America, in lat. 22° 39′ 30″ S., long. 70° 12′ W. Population, 2,000.)

In 1833 Lamar was declared a free port, and in it centres almost the whole foreign trade of the republic. Its situation is, however, very unfavourable. It labours under a great want of fresh water; and is obliged to import all its provisions by sea, either from Valparaiso, on the one hand, or from Arica, on the other. The desert of Atacama lies between it and the internal and populous part of the country, where the towns of Potosi, Cochabamba, Chareas, &c. are situated. The produce imported at Lamar is conveyed across the desert on the backs of mules to the interior; the gold and silver of the mines being brought in the same way to the port to be shipped. These, with copper, saltpetre, and chinchilli skins, form the principal articles of export. Saltpetre is found in large quantities in the desert; the copper is found near the coast, and owing to the scarcity of fuel, most part of it is exported in the shape of ore.

Peru possesses a long narrow slip of land, stretching along the coast of the Pacific from Arequipa to the Bay of Pica, which ought naturally to belong to Bolivia, being, in fact the *littoral* of the latter. The Bolivian government has set on foot various negotiations to obtain the cession of this tract, which, besides greatly improving the frontier of the republic, would, at the same time, render her mistress of Arica, which is, in all respects, much better fitted than Lamar for becoming the entrepôt of her trade. Hitherto, however, these negotiations have proved abortive, so that, as already stated, Lamar at present engrosses the whole foreign trade of the state.

We subjoin the decree constituting Lamar a free port:—

1. From and after the 1st of July of this present year, 1833, Port Lamar shall be absolutely free and open.
2. Vessels of every nation may enter this port and remain as long as they please, without being subjected to any tax whatever, either on entrance, or during their stay, or on their departure.
3. They shall be free from all duties of anchorage, tonnage, shifting, unloading, or reloading of cargo, deposit, storage, or any other of whatever denomination.
4. Goods may be deposited in private warehouses, without any intervention on the part of the government.
5. The custom-house of Port Lamar is suppressed. In its stead will be a commissioner's office, for the purpose of distributing permits for the transportation of goods into the interior.
6. Whenever goods are to be sent into the interior, they must first be submitted to the commissioner, together with the invoice corresponding.
7. The commissioner will register them in a book, together with their valuation, made by two merchants of the place, and the names of their owners, of the person of whom, and the place where they are to be sent. This is to be signed by the person entering the goods, who at the same time blacks himself to have them transported direct to the custom house for which they are destined, without opening any of the cases, bags, or other envelopes, each of which shall be sealed, marked, and numbered before departure. These points are to be expressed in the permit.
8. The commissioner shall by the earliest post send a notice to the collector of the custom-house for which any merchandise is destined, specifying the numbers, characters, quantities, and qualities of the several articles.
9. The goods must not be carried by any unaccustomed roads, but only through Calama and the public thoroughfares: and whenever they pass through any place at which a guard or commissioner is stationed, the permits must be exhibited, in order that their arrival with their seals unbroken may be ascertained.
10. Merchants, either in person or by a representative, must produce to the commissioner of the port a certificate of the delivery of the goods at the custom-house for which they are destined within 6 months from the day of their entry; in case they do not, they must at the end of that period pay the whole duties on them.
11. From and after the 1st of July, 1833, all goods entered at Port Lamar shall pay a duty of only 5 per cent. over and above that of half per cent. to the consulado.
12. The duty of 5 per cent. shall be paid thus: at the port 2 per cent. on the valuation made as aforesaid; and the other 3 at the custom-house in the interior for which the goods are destined. for each case one half at the end of 3, the other half at the end of 9 months.
13. All goods carried from Port Lamar by land to any of the adjoining republics shall only pay a transit duty of 2 per cent.
14. A duty of 2 per cent shall be paid on three fourths of all gold and silver money entered at any of the custom houses in the interior for exportation through Port Lamar.
15. It is absolutely prohibited to export gold or silver, in bullion or plate, except in small quantities for the use of the person carrying it out. It will be seized wherever it is found on this side the districts of San Antonio, San Vincente, Atacn, Agua de Castilla, Loquepate, or the line of the canal.
16. All hardware for agriculture and mining, machinery, instruments of science or the arts, iron, steel, quicksilver, and moral books, may be introduced free of duty into the republic, and productions of Bolivia may be exported likewise free.
17. A premium of 2 per cent. on their value shall be allowed on the exportation through Port Lamar, of cascarilla, wool, tin, cotton, and coffee, in the shape of remission from duties to the amount on goods carried into the interior from the same port.

The remaining articles of the decree are of a purely local nature.

(See *Digest of Commercial Regulations published by the Government of the United States*, vol. iii. p. 443. *Balbi, Abrégé de la Géographie*, p. 1106.)—*Sup.*)

LAMB-SKINS (Ger. *Lammsfelle*; Fr. *Peaux d'agneaux*; It. *Pelli agnelline*; Sp. *Pieles de corderos*). The value of lamb-skins varies according to the fineness, brilliancy, and colour of the wool. Black lamb-skins are more generally esteemed than those of any other colour. English lamb-skins are seldom to be met with perfectly black; but since the introduction of Merino sheep into this country, many of the white fleeces have, in point of quality, arrived at a pitch of perfection which justly entitles them to be ranked with some of the best fleeces in Spain. The importation of lamb-skins is immense, having amounted, on an average of 1831 and 1832, to 2,365,635. Eight tenths of the whole quantity are supplied by Italy. They are mostly used in the glove manufacture.

LAMP (Ger. *Lampe*; Fr. *Lampe*; It. *Lucerna*; Sp. *Lampara*; Rus. *Lampadu*), an instrument used for the combustion of liquid inflammable bodies, for the purpose of producing artificial light.

It is unnecessary to give any description of instruments that are so well known. We may, however, remark that the discovery of Sir H. Davy, who, by covering the flame with wire gauze, succeeded in producing a lamp that may be securely used in coal mines charged with inflammable gas; is one of the most ingenious and valuable that has ever been made. The following extracts from a communication of Mr. Buddle, one of the ablest and best-informed coal engineers in the kingdom, evince the great importance of Sir Humphry Davy's invention.

"Besides the facilities afforded by this invention to the working of coal mines abounding in fire damp, it has enabled the directors and superintendents to ascertain, with the utmost precision and expedition, both the presence, the quantity, and correct situation of the gas. Instead of creeping inch by inch with a candle, as is usual, along the galleries of a mine suspected to contain fire damp, in order to ascertain its presence, we walk firmly on with the safe lamps, and, with the utmost confidence, prove the actual state of the mine. By observing attentively the several appearances upon the flame of the lamp, in an examination of this kind, the cause of accidents which happened to the most experienced and cautious miners is completely developed; and this has hitherto been in a great measure a matter of mere conjecture."

"It is not necessary that I should enlarge upon the national advantages which must necessarily result from an invention calculated to prolong our supply of mineral coal, because I think them obvious to every reflecting mind; but I cannot conclude without expressing my highest sentiments of admiration for those talents which have developed the properties, and controlled the power, of one of the most dangerous elements which human enterprise has hitherto had to encounter."

LAMP-BLACK (Ger. *Kienruss*; Fr. *Noir de fumée*; It. *Nero di fumo, Negrofumo*; Sp. *Negro de humo*). "The finest lamp-black is produced by collecting the smoke from a lamp with a long wick, which supplies more oil than can be perfectly consumed, or by suffering the flame to play against a metalline cover, which impedes the combustion, not only by conducting off part of the heat, but by obstructing the current of air. Lamp-black, however, is prepared in a much cheaper way for the demands of trade. The dregs which remain after the eliquation of pitch, or else small pieces of fir wood, are burned in furnaces of a peculiar construction, the smoke of which is made to pass through a long horizontal flue, terminating in a close boarded chamber. The roof of this chamber is made of coarse cloth, through which the current of air escapes, while the soot remains."—(*Ure's Dictionary.*)

LAND-WAITER, an officer of the Custom-house, whose duty it is, upon landing any merchandise, to taste, weigh, measure, or otherwise examine the various articles, &c., and to take an account of the same. They are likewise styled searchers, and are to attend, and join with, the patent searchers, in execution of all cockets for the shipping of goods to be exported to foreign parts; and, in cases where drawbacks or bounties are to be paid to the merchant on the exportation of any goods, they, as well as the patent searchers, are to certify the shipping thereof on the debentures.

LAPIS LAZULI. See ULTRAMARINE.

LAST, an uncertain quantity, varying in different countries, and with respect to different articles. Generally, however, a last is estimated at 4,000 lbs.; but there are great discrepancies.

The following quantities of different articles make a last, viz.—14 barrels of pitch, tar, or ashes; 12 dozen of hides or skins; 12 barrels of cod-fish, potash, or meal; 20 cades, each of 1,000 herrings, every 1,000 ten hundred, and every 100 five score; 10½ quarters of cole-seed; 10 quarters of corn or rape-seed; in some parts of England, 21 quarters of corn go to a last; 12 sacks of wool; 20 dickers (every dicker 12 skins) of leather; 18 barrels of unpacked herrings; 10,000 pilchards; 24 barrels (each barrel containing 100 lbs.) of gunpowder; 1,700 lbs. of feathers or flax.

Last is sometimes used to signify the burden or lade of a ship.

LATH, LATHS (Du. *Latten*; Fr. *Lattes*; Ger. *Latten*; It. *Correnti*; Rus. *Slegü*), long, thin, and narrow slips of wood, nailed to the rafters of a roof or ceiling, in order to sustain the covering. Laths are distinguished into various sorts, according to the different kinds of wood of which they are made, and the different purposes to which they are to be applied. They are also distinguished, according to their length, into 5, 4, and 3 feet laths. Their ordinary breadth is about an inch, and their thickness ¼ of an inch. Laths are sold by the bundle, which is generally called a hundred: but 7 score, or 140, are computed in the hundred for three feet laths; 6 score or 120, in such as are 4 feet; and for those which are denominated 5 feet, the common hundred, or 5 score.

LATTEN, a name sometimes given to tin plates; that is, to thin plates of iron tinned over.—(See TIN.)

LAWN (Ger. and Fr. *Linon*; It. *Linone, Renea*; Sp. *Cambray clarin*), a sort of clear or open worked cambric, which, till of late years, was exclusively manufactured in France and Flanders. At present, the lawn manufacture is established in Scotland, and in the north of Ireland, where articles of this kind are brought to such a degree of perfection, as nearly to rival the productions of the French and Flemish manufactories. In the manufacture of lawns, finer flaxen thread is used than in that of cambric.

LAZARETTO. See QUARANTINE.

LEAD (Ger. *Bley, Blei*; Du. *Lood, Loot*; Fr. *Plomb*; It. *Piombo*; Sp. *Plomo*; Rus. *Swinetz*; Pol. *Olow*; Lat. *Plumbum*; Arab. *Anuk*; Hind. *Sisa*; Pers. *Surb*), one of the most useful metals. It is of a bluish white colour, and when newly melted is very bright, but it soon becomes tarnished by exposure to the air. It has scarcely any taste, but emits, on friction, a peculiar smell. It stains paper or the fingers of a bluish colour. When taken internally, it acts as a poison. It is one of the softest of the metals: its specific gravity is 11·35. It is very malleable, and may be reduced to thin plates by the hammer; it may also be drawn out into wire, but its ductility is not very great. Its tenacity is so small, that a lead wire $\frac{1}{12.5}$ inch diameter is capable of supporting only 18·4 lbs. without breaking. It melts at 612°.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

Lead is a metal of much importance, as, from its durability, it is extensively used in the construction of water-pipes and cisterns, as a covering for flat surfaces or tops of buildings, &c. &c. Its salts, which are poisonous, are used in medicine to form sedative external applications; and frequently not a little, by the disreputable wine merchant, to stop the progress of acetous fermentation. Wine thus poisoned, may, however, be readily distinguished, a small quantity of the bicarbonate of potassa producing a white precipitate, and sulphureted hydrogen a black one. Pure wine will not be affected by either of these tests. "The oxide

of lead enters into the composit
it is also used in glazing comm
common red pans become poiso
other metals, forms pewter; wit
nesia."—(*Joyce's Chem. Mines*

The lead mines of Great Bri
to 1829, however, it would seem
the year now mentioned, lead
certained, that the ore of these
their working. The produce of
be accurately ascertained. Mr.
lead mines of Derbyshire annu
the decline. Those on the bord
field, at an average, from 11,00
mines is estimated at 65,000 ba
tons.—(*General Report of Scot*
of the Welsh lead mines have
from inundations. Subjoined i

An Account of the Exports and Im

Years.	Pig and Rolled Lead and Shot.	Litharge.	Red Lead.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1821	18,300	395	220
1822	15,646	573	242
1823	13,784	576	441
1824	11,044	816	280
1825	10,833	586	338
1826	8,616	831	338
1827	10,232	901	406
1828	13,275	1,140	534
1829	10,001	1,545	382
1830	6,832	463	382
1831	7,442	490	530
1832	9,777	335	281
1833	12,181	433	396

An Account of British Lead and Le
1833, to the 1st of January, 1833;
Pounds omitted in the Columns,

Countries to which exported.	Pig, Rolled Lead &c.
	Tons.
Russia	1,82
Sweden	
Norway	
Denmark	12
Prussia	
Germany	17
The Netherlands	18
France	
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	10
Spain and the Canaries	2
Gibraltar	1
Italy	4
Malta	
Ionian Islands	
Turkey and the Levant	8
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	24
East Indies and China	2,90
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	20
Cape of Good Hope	2
Other parts of Africa	39
British North American colonies	38
British West Indies	41
Foreign West Indies	
United States of America	4,94
Brazil	40
Mexico	
Columbia	
Chili	1
Peru	1
State of La Plata	1
Total	12,18

Fall of Prices. Spanish Lead Mi
amount of the imports, and the ex

of lead enters into the composition of white glass, which it renders clearer and more fusible: it is also used in glazing common earthen vessels; hence the reason that pickles kept in common red pans become poisonous. Lead, with tin, and a small quantity of some of the other metals, forms pewter; with antimony, it forms the alloy of which printing types are made."—(*Joyce's Chem. Mineralogy.*)

The lead mines of Great Britain have been wrought from a very remote era. Previously to 1839, however, it would seem that those of Derbyshire only had been explored. But in the year now mentioned, lead mines were discovered in Wales; and the fact being ascertained, that the ore of these mines produced some silver, increased attention was paid to their working. The produce of the lead mines at present wrought in Great Britain cannot be accurately ascertained. Mr. Stevenson supposes (art. *England, Edin. Ency.*) that the lead mines of Derbyshire annually produce 5,000 or 6,000 tons; but they seem to be on the decline. Those on the borders of Cumberland and Northumberland are supposed to yield, at an average, from 11,000 to 12,000 tons. The total produce of the Scotch lead mines is estimated at 65,000 bars; which, as each bar is 1 cwt. 1 qr. 2 lbs., is equal to 4,120 tons.—(*General Report of Scotland*, vol. iii. Addenda, p. 7.) Some of the most productive of the Welsh lead mines have either been wrought out, or have been rendered unserviceable from inundations. Subjoined is

An Account of the Exports and Imports of Lead and Lead Ore, &c. for Thirteen Years, ending the 5th of January, 1833.

Years.	Exports.								Imports.	
	Pig and Rolled Lead and Shot.	Litharge.	Red Lead.	White Lead.	Lead Ore.	Total British Lead and Lead Ore.	Foreign Lead in Pig.	Foreign Lead Ore.	Lead.	Lead Ore.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1821	18,300	395	289	603	252	19,779	4	- -	4	
1822	15,646	572	242	652	287	17,400	- -	- -	- -	275
1823	13,784	576	441	574	455	15,830	60	12	73	611
1824	11,044	816	280	549	295	12,914	226	- 9	269	177
1825	10,833	566	338	865	350	12,991	749	- -	712	191
1826	8,616	831	339	616	129	10,560	2,655	- -	6,103	1,603
1827	10,232	901	408	629	240	12,409	1,847	- -	912	1,120
1828	13,275	1,140	534	1,012	256	16,317	2,998	- -	2,164	1,076
1829	10,001	1,545	382	1,133	195	13,256	1,785	- -	2,450	5,016
1830	6,832	463	383	750	220	8,647	1,700	- -	1,533	175
1831	7,442	490	590	662	194	9,308	859	- -	662	241
1832	6,777	335	251	435	105	7,933	1,234	- -	1,332	291
1833	12,181	433	396	652	236	13,898	957	- -	1,090	269

An Account of British Lead and Lead Ore exported from the United Kingdom from the 1st of January, 1832, to the 1st of January, 1833; distinguishing the Countries to which it was sent.—(Quarters and Pounds omitted in the Columns, but allowed for in the summing up.)

Countries to which exported.	British Lead and Lead Ore.						Foreign Lead and Lead Ore.	
	Pig and Rolled Lead and Shot	Litharge.	Red Lead.	White Lead.	Lead Ore.	Total of British Lead and Lead Ore.	Pig Lead.	White Lead.
	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.	Tons. cwt.
Russia	1,324 9	141 5	6 19	10 11	-	1,482 4	466 10	
Sweden	49 3	9 11	11 9	44 15	-	115 0		
Norway	51 7	9 16	0 1	15 4	-	76 8		
Denmark	138 12	12 4	9 17	125 11	-	286 4		
Prussia	69 8	29 11	7 1	49 19	-	156 1		
Germany	173 13	126 19	125 3	54 0	-	477 17	4 7	
The Netherlands	198 0	33 10	89 0	2 10	149 0	466 1	271 18	
France	65 7	0 19	4 5	-	-	70 11	36 14	
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	104 2	5 0	7 10	36 11	-	155 3		
Spain and the Canaries	27 0	1 4	2 0	5 1	-	35 5		
Gibraltar	18 15	-	0 4	-	-	18 19		
Italy	40 14	45 0	17 11	3 7	45 5	151 17		
Malta	4 0	-	-	3 5	-	7 5		
Ionian Islands	1 0	-	1 4	-	-	2 4		
Turkey and the Levant	55 12	0 10	4 15	4 0	-	64 17	-	22 13
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	248 3	0 15	0 1	10 7	-	259 7	6 4	
East Indies and China	2,908 12	-	55 14	15 10	-	2,979 16	15 14	
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	206 18	-	0 9	15 15	-	223 3	15 0	
Cape of Good Hope	85 7	-	4 16	6 17	1 10	98 11		
Other parts of Africa	284 15	-	-	11 10	40 6	336 5		
British North American colonies	382 16	-	6 2	91 12	-	480 11		
British West Indies	413 7	-	0 13	35 14	-	449 15		
Foreign West Indies	69 5	-	-	4 0	-	73 5		
United States of America	4,844 14	-	-	51 2	-	4,895 17		
Brazil	403 3	22 6	42 16	66 15	-	536 1		
Mexico	-	-	0 5	0 13	-	0 18		
Columbia	2 16	0 7	-	-	-	3 3		
Chili	11 7	-	-	-	-	11 7		
Peru	7 9	0 7	-	-	-	7 7	2 6	
States of La Plata	14 7	0 5	0 4	2 10	-	17 6		
Total	12,181 3	432 14	896 5	652 5	235 15	13,898 3	886 15	22 13

Fall of Prices. Spanish Lead Mines.—The falling off in the exports of British lead, the increased amount of the imports, and the extraordinary fall that has taken place in the price of lead since 1825,

seem to be principally owing to the vast supplies of that metal that have recently been furnished by the mines of Adra, in Granada, in Spain. These have been wrought to a vastly greater extent within the last few years than previously; and the richness of the ore, and the facility with which it is obtained, enable the Spaniards, who are but indifferently skilled in the art of mining, to undersell every other people, and to supply most markets to which they have ready access. So much is this the case, that several of the least productive of the lead mines of Germany, and other countries, have been already abandoned; and it is even doubtful whether the duties on foreign lead will be sufficient to hinder some of our mines from sharing the same fate. Inasmuch, however, as lead is of primary importance in the arts, the reduction of its price, though injurious to those engaged in its production, is, undoubtedly, a great public benefit. We therefore trust that nothing may be done, either by raising the duties on foreign lead, or otherwise, artificially to increase its price. The competition of the Spaniards has already led, both here and in Saxony, to the adoption of various processes calculated to lessen the expense of lead-making; and to the introduction of a degree of economy into every department of the business that was not previously thought of. This is the only way in which the natural advantages on the side of the Spaniards can be met with any prospect of success. We understand too, that there are good grounds for thinking that it will answer the object in view; but though it were to fail, it would be ridiculous to suppose that the miners could be beneficially assisted by Custom-house regulations. Neither is there any thing so peculiarly valuable about the mere manufacture of lead as to make us prefer a high-priced indigenous metal to a cheaper article brought from abroad.

Price of Lead per Ton in Great Britain since 1800.

Years.	Price per Ton.			Average for Ten Years.			Years.	Price per Ton.			Average for Ten Years.			Years.	Price per Ton.			Average for Ten Years.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1800	19	16	0				1811	24	0	0				1822	22	7	0			
1801	22	8	6				1812	23	3	6				1823	23	5	0			
1802	24	16	6				1813	25	14	0				1824	21	0	0			
1803	27	15	5				1814	26	11	0				1825	25	6	0			
1804	28	0	0				1815	20	16	0				1826	19	0	0			
1805	27	11	0				1816	16	5	0				1827	18	7	0			
1806	25	12	6				1817	18	5	0				1828	17	0	0			
1807	30	3	6				1818	27	5	6				1829	14	5	0	20	7	6
1808	30	1	0				1819	29	11	0	23	0	6	1830	14	0	0			
1809	31	3	0	27	14	6	1820	31	10	6				1831	14	0	0			
1810	28	16	0				1821	22	10	0				1832	13	10	0			

The consumption of lead in France is rapidly increasing. It is nearly all imported; and the importations have increased from 6,911,500 kilogrammes, at an average of the 4 years ending with 1823, to 15,742,102 kilogrammes, at an average of the 2 years ending with 1830. The imports are almost entirely from Spain; and their increase is, no doubt, principally a consequence of the fall of prices.—(*Journal des Mines, Troisième Série*, tom. iii. p. 517.)

Lead Mines of the United States.—These have recently become of considerable importance. We subjoin an

Account of the Lead manufactured in the United States, during each of the Ten Years, ending the 30th of September, 1832.

Years.	Fever River.	Missouri.	Total.	Years.	Fever River.	Missouri.	Total.
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*		*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*
1823	253,120	. .	253,120	1828	13,348,150	1,196,160	14,541,310
1824	175,220	. .	175,220	1830	5,923,209	8,060	5,932,058
1825	654,520	396,600	1,051,120	1831	6,381,200	67,180	6,448,080
1826	948,842	1,574,992	2,523,834	1832	4,231,276	. .	4,231,276
1827	5,192,180	910,360	6,092,540				
1828	11,105,810	1,205,920	12,311,730	Total	50,792,696	5,151,392	55,903,088

The decrease has been explained, partly, at least, by the fact of no leases having been granted in Missouri, since the act of 1829, authorising the sale of all the mineral lands in that State, and by the interruption of the works on the Upper Mississippi in consequence of the Indian war.

LEAD, BLACK, or PLUMBAGO. See Black Lead.

LEAD, RED, or MINIUM. See Minium.

LEAGUE, a measure of length, containing more or fewer geometrical paces, according to the customs of different countries.—(See Weights and Measures.)

LEAKAGE, in commerce, an allowance in the customs, granted to importers of wine, for the waste and damage the goods are supposed to receive by keeping.—(See *Warehousing Act*, in art. Warehousing System.)

LEATHER (Ger. *Leder*; Du. *Leder, Lebr*; Da. *Læder*; Sw. *Läder*; Fr. *Cuir*; It. *Cuojo*; Sp. *Cuero*; Rus. *Kosha*; Lat. *Corium*), the skins of various quadrupeds, dressed in a particular manner for the use of manufacturers, whose business it is to make them up according to their different employments.

The leather manufacture of Great Britain is of very great importance, and ranks either third or fourth on the list; being inferior only in point of value and extent to those of cotton, wool, and iron, if it be not superior to the latter. Sir F. M. Eden, in his work on *Insurance*, estimated the value of the different articles manufactured of leather, in 1803, at 12,000,000*l.*; and there is reason to think that this statement was not very wide of the mark. The total quantity of all sorts of leather tanned, tawed, dressed, and curried in Great Britain, may at present be estimated at about 50,000,000 lbs.; which, at 1*s.* 8*d.* per lb., gives 4,166,000*l.* as the value of the leather only. Now, supposing, as is sometimes done, the value of the leather to amount to *one third* of the value of the finished articles produced from it, that would show the value of the manufacture to be about 12,500,000*l.*: but if, as others contend, the value of the leather does not exceed *one fourth* part of the

value of the finished articles, then the value of the manufacture must exceed 16,000,000*l.* We, however, are inclined to think that we shall be nearer the truth, if we take the smaller sum, and estimate the value of the manufacture at 12,500,000*l.* To get the number of persons employed, we have first to deduct from this sum, 4,000,000*l.* for the material, which leaves 8,500,000*l.* as the aggregate amount of profits, wages, &c. And setting aside 20 per cent. as profit, rent of workshops, compensation for capital wasted, &c., we have a sum of 6,800,000*l.* remaining as wages: and supposing those employed as shoemakers, saddlers, glovers, &c., to make at an average 30*l.* a year each, the entire number of such persons will amount to 226,000.

This, however, does not give the total number of persons employed in the leather trade, inasmuch as it excludes the tanners, curriers, &c., employed in dressing and preparing the leather. But if, from the value of the prepared leather, 4,000,000*l.*, we deduct 1,000,000*l.* for the value of the hides, and 2,000,000*l.* for tanners' and curriers' profits, including the expense of lime, bark, pits, &c., we shall have 1,000,000*l.* left as wages. Now, as the wages of tanners, curriers, leather dressers, &c., may, we believe, be taken at 35*l.* a year at an average, we shall have 28,300 as the number employed in these departments. And adding these to the persons employed in manufacturing the leather, we have a grand total of 254,300 persons employed in the various departments of the business.

Those who may be inclined to suspect these estimates of exaggeration, would do well to reflect on the value of the shoes annually manufactured. It is generally supposed that the expenditure upon shoes may be taken, at an average of the whole population, at 10*s.* each individual, young and old; which, supposing the population to amount to 16,000,000, would give EIGHT millions for the value of shoes only; but taking the value of the shoes at only 8*s.* 6*d.* each individual, it gives 6,800,000*l.* for the amount. Mr. Stevenson (art. *England, Edin. Ency.*) supposes that the value of the saddlery, harness, gloves, &c. may be assumed to be at least equal to that of the shoes; but we believe this is too high, and have taken it at 1,100,000*l.* below the value of the shoes. In estimating the value of the entire manufacture at 12,500,000*l.*, we incline to think that we are as near the mark as it is easy to come in such investigations.

In speaking of the leather manufacture, Dr. Campbell has the following striking observations:—"If we look abroad on the instruments of husbandry, on the implements used in most mechanic trades, on the structure of a multitude of engines and machines; or if we contemplate at home the necessary parts of our clothing—breeches, shoes, boots, gloves—or the furniture of our houses, the books on our shelves, the harness of our horses, and even the substance of our carriages; what do we see but instances of human industry exerted upon leather? What an aptitude has this single material in a variety of circumstances for the relief of our necessities, and supplying conveniences in every state and stage of life? Without it, or even without it in the plenty we have it, to what difficulties should we be exposed?—(*Political State of Great Britain*, vol. ii. p. 176.)

Leather was long subject to a duty; the manufacture being, in consequence, necessarily conducted under the *surveillance* of the excise. In 1812, the duty, which had previously amounted to 1½*d.* per lb., was doubled; and continued at 3*d.* per lb. till July, 1822, when it was again reduced to 1½*d.* per lb. The reduced duty produced a nett revenue of about 360,000*l.* It is clear, however, that either the duty ought not to have been reduced in 1822, or that it ought to have been totally repealed. The continuance of any part of the duty rendered it necessary to continue all the vexatious regulations required to insure the collection of the revenue, while the reduction of 1½*d.* in the cost of preparing a pound of leather was so trifling as hardly to be sensible. It is, however, unnecessary to enter into any discussion to show the extreme inexpediency of laying any duty on an article so indispensable to the labouring class, and to the prosecution of many branches of industry, as leather; and still less to show the inexpediency of subjecting so very important and valuable a manufacture to a vexatious system of revenue laws, for the sake of only 360,000*l.* a year. Luckily, however, these have become matters of history. The leather duties were totally abolished in 1830; and as the manufacture is now relieved from every sort of trammel and restraint, its rapid increase may be confidently expected. It is to be hoped that no future necessity may arise to occasion the re-imposition of the leather duty.

Account of the Number of Pounds' Weight of Leather charged with Duties of Excise in England, in 1824—1829.

1824	-	53,429,539	1826	-	44,927,216	1828	-	50,233,689
1825	-	52,274,957	1827	-	37,616,316	1829	-	46,200,843

The quantity annually charged with duty in Scotland during the same period was, at an average, about 6,000,000 lbs.

The quantity of wrought and unwrought leather exported in 1829, amounted to 1,338,937 lbs., of the declared value of 268,380*l.* The value of the saddlery and harness exported during the same year was 83,303*l.* Nearly two thirds of the leather exported, is sent, principally in the shape of shoes, to the British West Indian and North American colonies.

LEDGER, the principal book of accounts kept by merchants and tradesmen, wherein every person's account is placed by itself, after being extracted from the Journal.—(See BOOK-KEEPING.

LEECH FISHERY. The demand for the medicinal leech (*Hirudo medicinalis*) is so great as to afford employment to a considerable number of persons in catching and selling the animal. It is common throughout Europe, America, and India, inhabiting lakes and pools. Norfolk supplies the greater part of the leeches brought to the London market; some are taken in Kent, Suffolk, Essex, and Wales; and large quantities are imported

from Bordeaux and Lisbon. They are caught in spring and autumn, by people who wade into the pools and allow them to fasten on their limbs; or more generally the catchers leat, as they wade in, the surface of the water with poles, which sets the leeches in motion, and brings them to the surface; when they are taken with the hand and put into bags. As they come to the surface just before a thunder storm, this is regarded a good time for collecting them.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

We extract from the *Gazette des Hopitaux*, the following interesting account of the fishery of leeches at La Brenne, in Paris:—

"The country about La Brenne is, perhaps, the most uninteresting in France. The people are miserable looking, the cattle wretched, the fish just as bad—but the leeches are admirable.

"If ever you pass through La Brenne, you will see a man, pale and straight haired, with a woollen cap on his head, and his legs and arms naked; he walks along the borders of a marsh, among the spots left dry by the surrounding waters, but particularly wherever the vegetation seems to preserve the subjacent soil undisturbed: this man is a leech fisher. To see him from a distance,—his woe-begone aspect—his hollow eyes—his livid lips—his singular gestures,—you would take him for a patient who had left his sick bed in a fit of delirium. If you observe him every now and then raising his legs, and examining them one after the other, you might suppose him a fool; but he is an intelligent leech fisher. The leeches attach themselves to his legs and feet as he moves among their haunts; he feels their presence from their bite, and gathers them as they cluster about the roots of the bulrushes and sea weeds, or beneath the stones covered with green and gluey moss. Some repose on the mud, while others swim about; but so slowly, that they are easily gathered with the hand. In a favourable season, it is possible, in the course of 3 or 4 hours, to stow 10 or 12 dozen of them in the little bag which the gatherer carries on his shoulder. Sometimes you will see the leech fisher armed with a kind of spear or harpoon: with this he deposits pieces of decayed animal matter in places frequented by the leeches; they soon gather round the prey, and are presently themselves gathered into a little vessel half full of water. Such is the leech fishery in spring.

"In summer, the leech retires into deep water; and the fishers have then to strip themselves naked, and walk immersed up to the chin. Some of them have little rafts to go upon; these rafts are made of twigs and rushes, and it is no easy matter to propel them among the weeds and aquatic plants. At this season, too, the supply in the pools is scanty; the fisher can only take the few that swim within his reach, or those that get entangled in the structure of his raft.

"It is a horrid trade, in whatever way it is carried on. The leech gatherer is constantly more or less in the water, breathing fog and mist and fetid odours from the marsh; he is often attacked with ague, catarrhs, and rheumatism. Some indulge in strong liquors, to keep off the noxious influence, but they pay for it in the end by disorders of other kinds. But, with all its forbidding peculiarities, the leech fishery gives employment to many hands; if it be pernicious, it is also lucrative. Besides supplying all the neighbouring *pharmaciens*, great quantities are exported, and there are regular traders engaged for the purpose. Henri Chartier is one of those persons; and an important personage he is when he comes to Meobecq, or its vicinity; his arrival makes quite a fête—all are eager to greet him.

"Among the interesting particulars which I gathered at La Brenne relative to the leech trade, I may mention the following:—One of the traders—what with his own fishing and that of his children, and what with his acquisitions from the carriers, who sell quantities *second-hand* was enabled to hoard up 17,500 leeches in the course of a few months; he kept them deposited in a place where, in one night, they all became frozen *en masse*. But the frost does not immediately kill them; they may generally be thawed into life again. They easily, indeed, bear very hard usage. I am told by one of the carriers, that he can pack them as closely as he pleases in the moist sack which he ties behind his saddle; and sometimes he stows his cloak and boots on top of the sack. The trader buys his leeches *pêle mêle*, big and little, green and black—all the same; but he afterwards sorts them for the market. Those are generally accounted the best which are of a green ground, with yellow stripes along the body."

LEGHORN, a city and sea-port of Italy, in Tuscany, in lat. 43° 33′ 5″ N., lon. 10° 16¾′ E. Population, in 1830, according to consul's report, 72,924.

Harbour, Road, &c.—Leghorn has an outer harbour protected by a fine mole, running in a N. N. W. direction upwards of ½ a mile into the sea, and a small inner harbour or basin. The water in the harbour is rather shallow, varying from 8 feet in the inner basin to 18 or 19 feet at the end of the mole. The rise of the tides is about 14 inches. Ships lie within the mole with their sterns made fast to it by a cable, and an anchor out ahead. The light-house is built on a rock a little to the S. W. of the mole. It is a conspicuous object, being about 170 feet above the level of the sea. The roadstead lies W. N. W. of the harbour, between it and the Melora bank. The latter is a sand, lying N. and S., 4 miles in length by 2 in breadth, the side nearest the shore being about 4 miles from it. It consists, for the most part, of sand and mud, and has from 3 fathoms to ½ do. water over it; but towards its southern extremity it is rocky; and there, on some of the points which project above the water, the Melora tower has been constructed to serve as a sea-mark; it bears from the light-house W. ¼ N., distant about 4 miles. The best course for entering the roads is to keep to the northward of the Melora bank at about a mile from it, and then having doubled it, to stand on for the light-house about 2½ miles, anchoring in from 7 to 9 fathoms, the light-house bearing S. S. E. ¼ E. 4 miles off. The entrance by the channel to the south of the Melora bank is also quite safe; but it is not so suitable for large ships as that by the north. During southerly winds there is sometimes a heavy sea in the roads, but the holding ground is good; and with sufficient anchors and cables, and ordinary precaution, there is no danger. The lazaretto lies to the south, about 1 mile from the tower, and is said to be one of the best in Europe.

Trade, &c.—The comparative security and freedom which foreigners have long enjoyed in Tuscany, still more than its advantageous situation, render Leghorn the greatest commercial city of Italy. Its exports are similar to those from the other Italian ports, consisting principally of raw and manufactured silks, olive oil, fruits, shumac, valonia, wines, rags, brimstone, cheese, marble, argol, anchovies, manna, juniper berries, hemp, skins, cork, &c. Leghorn platting for straw hats is the finest in the world; and large quantities are imported into Britain.—(See HATS, STRAW.) Besides the above, all sorts of articles the produce of the Levant may be had at Leghorn. Recently, however, this trade has fallen off; the English and other nations who used to import Levant produce at second hand from Italy, preferring now, at least for the most part, to bring it direct from Smyrna, Alexandria, &c. The imports are exceedingly numerous and valuable, comprising all sorts of commodities,

with the exception of those produced by Italy. Sugar, coffee, and all sorts of colonial produce; cotton stuffs, yarn, and wool; corn, woollen stuffs, spices, dried fish, indigo, dye woods, rice, iron, tin, hides, &c.; are among the most prominent articles. Ships with corn on board may unload within the limits of the lazaretto, without being detained to perform quarantine; a circumstance which has contributed to make Leghorn one of the principal *dépôts* for the wheat of the Black Sea. Hard wheat, particularly from Taganrog, is in high estimation here and in the other Italian ports. It is particularly well fitted for making vermicelli, macaroni, &c. The government do not publish any official account of the imports and exports of Leghorn; and no mercantile circulars that we have been fortunate enough to fall in with, afford the means of supplying the deficiency.

Money.—Accounts are principally kept in *pezza da otto reali* (or dollars of 5 reali), the pezza being divided into 20 soldi or 240 denari. The *lira* is another money of account, chiefly used in inferior transactions; it is also divided into 20 soldi and 240 denari: 1 pezza = 5·4 lire.

The monies of Leghorn have two values; the one called *moneta buona*, the other *moneta lunga*. The former is the effective money of the place. Moneta buona is converted into moneta lunga by adding 1·24, and the latter is reduced to the former by subtracting 1·24. The lira of account = 8 1-3d. sterling very nearly; hence the pezza = 3s. 10 3-4d. very nearly.

The principal silver coins are, the Francescone, or Leopoldo, of 10 paoli, or 6 2-3 lire = 4s. 6d. sterling very nearly. The piece of 4 lire = 2s. 4·4d., and the lira = 7·45d. sterling.

Weights and Measures.—The pound by which gold and silver and all sorts of merchandise are weighed, is divided into 12 ounces, 96 drachms, 288 denari, and 6,912 grani. It is = 339·542 French grammes, or 5,240 English grains. Hence 100 lbs. of Leghorn = 74·84 lbs. avoirdupois; but in mercantile calculations it is usual to reckon 100 lbs. of Leghorn = 77 lbs. avoirdupois: this, perhaps, has arisen from taking the taxes and other allowances, as to which there is a good deal of uncertainty, into account. Thus it is found that the English cwt. seldom renders more than 140 or 142 lbs. at Leghorn, though it is = 150 lbs.; in the instances of logwood, tobacco, and a few others, it does not render more than 156 lbs. The quintal, or cantaro = 100 lbs. The cantaro is generally 150 lbs.; but a cantaro of sugar = 151 lbs.; that of oil = 88 lbs.; of brandy = 120 lbs.; of stock-fish, and some other articles = 160 lbs. The rottolo = 5 lbs.

Corn is sold by the sacco or sack, = 2·0739 Winch. bushels; oncero 4 sacks = 1 Imperial quarter very nearly.

The liquid measures are—

2 Mezzette = 1 Boccale.
2 Boccali = 1 Fiasco.
30 Fiaschi = 1 Barile = 12 Enrlish wine gallons.

The barile of oil is 16 fiaschi, of two boccali each, = 9·33 wine gallons; it weighs about 66 lbs. avoirdupois. A large jar of oil contains 30 gallons; a small one 15; and a box with 30 bottles = 4 gallons.

The long measure is the braccio, which is divided into 20 soldi, 60 quattrini, or 240 denari; it contains 21·96 English inches. 155 braccl = 100 English yards. The canna of 4 braccl = 92 English inches.

Credit, Charges, &c.—Goods in general are bought and sold for silver money; between which, and the money in which bills of exchange are bought, there is a difference of 7 per cent (agio) against silver; *i. e.* 107 dollars in silver are equal to 100 in gold.

On goods bought or sold (unless it be in effective money, where there is no discount) there is, generally speaking, a discount of 3 per cent.; on all cotton manufactures, 4 per cent.

Charges on sales, including commission, are generally from 6 to 8 per cent.; on fish, 5 or 10 per cent.

Prices of Corn.—The subjoined account of the prices of the different sorts of grain free on board at Leghorn in January, 1833, is interesting, as negativing the notions so current in this country as to the extraordinary cheapness at which corn may be brought from the Black Sea.

Prices of Corn free on board at Leghorn, January, 1833.

Species of Corn.	Price in Italian Money per Sack.	Price in Sterling per Imp. Qr.	Species of Corn.	Price in Italian Money per Sack.	Price in Sterling per Imp. Qr.
	Liv. *Liv.*	*L.* *s.* *d.*		*Liv.* *Liv.*	*L.* *s.* *d.*
Wheat, Tuscan white	16 1-2 to 17 1-2	2 9 1	Wheat, Meschiglie	11 to 12	1 15 11
red, 1st quality	15 — 16	2 4 10	Romagna, 1st quality	13 1-2 — 16	2 5 4
2d quality	14 — 15	2 2 1	2d quality	14 — 15	2 2 6
Odessa, 1st quality	13 — 13 1-2	1 18 8	Beans, Alexandria, new	6 1-4 — 6 1-2	0 18 7
2d quality	11 1-2 — 12	1 13 11	Barley, Odessa	3 1-2 — 5	0 14 4
Hard Taganrok, 1st	14 — 14 1-2	2 1 1	Indian corn	8 1-2 — 9	1 5 4
2d	11 1-2 — 13	1 16 11	Linseed, Egyptian	14 — 14 1-2	1 19 11
Odessa	12 — 13	1 16 9			

***Shipping.*—Arrivals in 1829, 1830, and 1831.**

	Years.	Ships.	Crews.	Tons.
British	1829	189	1,732	29,451
	1830	210	2,078	33,990
	1831	193	1,788	29,468

The crews and tonnage of the foreign ships entering the port are not given. Their numbers in 1831 were as follows:—

Flags.	Ships.	Flags.	Ships.	Flags.	Ships.	Flags.	Ships.
French	190	Dutch	18	Neapolitan	266	Lucchese	81
Russian	47	Austrian	106	Sardinian	690	Roman	92
Swedish	29	Spanish	16	Tuscan	1,457	Greek	33
Danish	10	American	99				

The greater portion of the Neapolitan, Sardinian, Tuscan, Roman, and Lucchese vessels consists of small coasting craft of from 15 to 20 tons burden.

Port Charges are the same on native and foreign ships. The anchorage dues on a vessel of 300 tons amount to 112 current lire, or to 3*l.* 14*s.* sterling; besides which she must have a bill of health, which costs 7*s.* 2*d.* sterling. These, if she clear out in ballast, are the only charges to which she is subject; but if she clear out loaded, the bill of health will cost about 9*s.* sterling, and there is besides a charge of about 3*d.* sterling for each bill of lading. There are no other port charges whatever. Good water may be had at about 11*d.* sterling per ton; and beef, bread, and fuel are all reasonably cheap. There are companies for the insurance of ships, but not of lives or houses.—(We have gleaned these particulars from the *Annuaire du Commerce* for 1833, p. 303.; *Kelly's Cambist*; *Nelkenbrecher, Manuel Universel*; *Circular Statement of Grant and Co.*, Leghorn, 2d of January, 1833; *Consul's Answer to Circular Queries*, &c. A plan of the road of Leghorn is given in Captain Smyth's *General Chart of the Mediterranean*.)

Trade of Italy and the Italian Islands with England.—It is not generally known that with the single exception of Germany, Italy is the largest European importer of English goods. During the year 1831,

the real or declared value of the different articles of British and Irish produce shipped from the United Kingdom direct for Italy, amounted to 2,490,376*l.* Cotton stuffs and twist formed about ⅓ds of this immense sum (see vol. i. p. 527.). The articles next in importance were refined sugar, value 501,145*l.*; woollens, value 304,186*l.*; iron and steel, value 50,209*l.*; with hardware, linens, fish, earthenware, &c. It is right, however, to add, that a part of these articles was not intended for the consumption of Italy; but was sent to Genoa and Trieste, for the purpose of being subsequently forwarded to Switzerland, Austria, Hungary, &c. There are no means of accurately estimating the value of the products destined for such ulterior consumption, but there are good grounds for thinking that they do not amount to 1-4th part of the total value of the exports; leaving above 2,000,000*l.* for the consumption of Italy.

During the same year (1831), we imported from Italy 23,867 cwt. barilla; 95,163 do. oak and cork bark; 264,044 do. sulphur; 253,059 quarters of wheat (a good deal at second hand from the Black Sea); 76,547 straw bonnets; 64,848 packages of oranges and lemons; 9,557,983 gallons olive oil; 105,448 bushels linseed; 127,331 cwt. shumac; 526,516 lbs. raw silk; 516,457 kid skins; 2,113,078 lamb skins; 17,644 cwt. valonia; 287,468 gallons wine; exclusive of various other articles of inferior importance.

LEMONS (Ger. *Limonen*; Du. *Limoenen*; Fr. *Limons, Citrons*; It. *Limoni*; Sp. *Limones*; Port. *Limões*; Rus. *Limoni*; Arab. *Lémôn*), the fruit of the lemon tree (*Citrus medica* var. *β.* C.). It is a native of Assyria and Persia, whence it was brought into Europe; first to Greece and afterwards to Italy. It is now cultivated in Spain, Portugal, and France, and is not uncommon in our greenhouses. Lemons are brought to England from Spain, Portugal and the Azores, packed in chests, each lemon being separately rolled in paper. The Spanish lemons are most esteemed.—(For an account of the imports, see Oranges.)

LEMON JUICE, or CITRIC ACID (Ger. *Zitronensaft*; Fr. *Jus de limon*; It. *Agro o Sugo de' limone*; Sp. *Jugo de limon*), the liquor contained in the lemon. It may be preserved in bottles for a considerable time by covering it with a thin stratum of oil; thus secured, great quantities of the juice are exported from Italy to different parts of the world; from Turkey, also, where abundance of lemons are grown, it is a considerable article of export, particularly to Odessa. The discovery of the antiscorbutic influence of lemon juice is one of the most valuable that has ever been made. The scurvy, formerly so fatal in ships making long voyages, is now almost wholly unknown; a result that is entirely to be ascribed to the regular allowance of lemon juice served out to the men. The juice is also frequently administered as a medicine, and is extensively used in the manufacture of punch.

LEMON PEEL (Ger. *Zitronenshalen, Limonschellen*; Fr. *Lames d'écoree de citron*; It. *Scorze de' limone*; Sp. *Cortezas de citra*). The outward rind of lemons is warm, aromatic, and slightly bitter,—qualities depending on the essential oil it contains. It is turned to many uses; and when well candied, constitutes a very good preserve. In Barbadoes, a *liqueur*, known under the name of *Eau de Barbade*, is manufactured from lemon peel, which the inhabitants have the art of preserving in a manner peculiar to themselves. Both the liqueur and the conserve used to be in high repute, especially in France.

LETTER. (See Post Office.)

LETTER OF CREDIT, a letter written by one merchant or correspondent to another, requesting him to credit the bearer with a certain sum of money. Advice by post should always follow the granting of a letter of credit; a duplicate of it accompanying such advice. It is prudent, also, in giving advice, to describe the bearer of the letter, with as many particulars as possible, lest it fall improperly into other hands.

LETTERS OF MARQUE AND REPRISAL, "are grantable by the law of nations, whenever the subjects of one state are oppressed and injured by those of another, and justice is denied by that state to which the oppressor belongs."—(*Chitty's Com. Law*, vol. iii. p. 604.) Before granting letters of marque, government is directed by the 5 Hen. 5. c. 7., to require that satisfaction be made to the party aggrieved; and in the event of such satisfaction not being made within a reasonable period, letters of marque and reprisal may be issued, authorising the aggrieved party to attack and seize the property of the aggressor nation, without hazard of being condemned as a robber or pirate. Such letters are now only issued to the owners or captains of privateers during war, or when war has been determined upon. They may be revoked at the pleasure of the sovereign; and when hostilities terminate, they cease to have any effect.

LICENCES, in commercial navigation. The rules and regulations to be observed in the granting of licences to ships are embodied in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 53., and are as follow:—

Vessels of certain Proportions, not being square-rigged, &c. to be licensed.—All vessels belonging in the whole or in part to his Majesty's subjects, not being square-rigged, or propelled by steam, and all vessels belonging as aforesaid, whether propelled by steam or otherwise, being of less burden than 200 tons, of which the length is to the breadth in a greater proportion than 3 feet 6 inches to 1 foot, and all such last-mentioned vessels carrying arms for resistance, and all vessels of more than 200 tons burden, belonging as aforesaid, armed with more than 2 carriage guns of a calibre exceeding 4 pounds, and with more than 2 muskets for every 10 men, and all boats belonging as aforesaid, which shall be found within 100 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom, shall be forfeited, unless the owners thereof shall have obtained a licence from the commissioners of his Majesty's customs in the manner herein-after directed.—§ 16.

British Vessels and Boats, or those whereof Half the Persons on board are British Subjects, not to be navigated with more than a specified Number of Persons, unless licensed.—Every vessel or boat belonging

in the whole or in part to his Majesty's subjects, or whereof half the persons on board shall be subjects of his Majesty, (not being a lugger, and at the time fitted and rigged as such,) which shall be navigated by a greater number of men (officers and boys included) than in the following proportions; (that is to say,) if of 30 tons or under, and above 5 tons, 4 men; if of 60 tons or under, and above 30 tons, 5 men; if of 80 tons or under, and above 60 tons, 6 men; if of 100 tons or under, and above 80 tons, 7 men; and above that tonnage, 1 man for every 15 tons of such additional tonnage; or if a lugger, than in the following proportions; (that is to say,) if of 30 tons or under, 8 men; if of 50 tons or under, and above 30 tons, 9 men; if of 60 tons or under, and above 50 tons, 10 men; if of 80 tons or under, and above 60 tons, 11 men; if of 100 tons or under, and above 80 tons, 12 men; and if above 100 tons, 1 man for every 10 tons of such additional tonnage, which shall be found within 100 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom, shall be forfeited, unless such vessel, boat, or lugger, shall be especially licensed for that purpose by the commissioners of customs.—§ 17.

Certain Particulars to be inserted in Licences for Vessels and Boats.—Every license granted by the commissioners of customs under this act shall contain the proper description of the vessel or boat, the name or names of the owner or owners, with his or their place or places of abode, and the manner and the limits in which the same is to be employed, and, if armed, the numbers and description of arms, and the quantity of ammunition, together with any other particulars which the said commissioners may require and direct; and it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to restrict the granting of a licence for any vessel or boat in any way that they may deem expedient for the security of the revenue.—§ 18.

The Owners to give Security by Bond, with the Condition herein-mentioned.—Before any such licence shall be issued or delivered, or shall have effect for the use of such vessel or boat, the owner or owners of the same shall give security by bond in the single value of such vessel or boat, with condition as follows; (that is to say,) that the vessel or boat shall not be employed in the importation, landing, or removing of any prohibited or uncustomed goods, contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act or any other act relating to the revenues of customs or excise, nor in the exportation of any goods which are or may be prohibited to be exported, nor in the relanding of any goods contrary to law, nor shall receive or take on board or be found at sea or in port with any goods subject to forfeiture, nor shall do any act contrary to this act, or any act hereafter to be made relating to the revenues of customs or excise, or for the protection of the trade and commerce of the United Kingdom, nor shall be employed otherwise than mentioned in the licence, and within the limits therein mentioned; and in case of loss, breaking up, or disposal of the vessel or boat, that the licence shall be delivered, within 6 months from the date of such loss, breaking up, or disposal of such vessel or boat, to the collector or principal officer of customs at the port to which such vessel or boat shall belong; and that no such bond given in respect of any boat shall be liable to any stamp duty.—§ 19.

Penalty not to exceed 1,000l., or single Value of the Vessel.—Nothing herein contained shall authorise the requiring any bond in any higher sum than 1,000*l.*, although the single value of the vessel or boat for which such licence is to be issued may be more than 1,000*l.*—§ 20.

Licence Bonds given by Minors to be valid.—All bonds given by persons under the age of 21 years, in pursuance of the directions herein contained, shall be valid and effectual to all intents and purposes, any thing in any act, or any law or custom, to the contrary in anywise notwithstanding.—§ 21.

Vessels not to be used in any Manner not mentioned in the Licence.—When any vessel or boat shall be found or discovered to have been used or employed in any manner or in any limits other than such as shall be specified in the licence, or if such licence shall not be on board such vessel or boat, or shall not at any time be produced and delivered for examination to any officer or officers of the army, navy, or marines duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or any officer of customs or excise, demanding the same, then and in every such case such vessel or boat, and all the goods laden on board, shall be forfeited.—§ 22.

Certain Vessels, Boats, and Luggers not required to be licensed.—Nothing herein contained shall extend or be deemed or taken to extend to any vessel, boat, or lugger belonging to any of the royal family, or being in the service of the navy, victualing, ordnance, customs, excise, or post-office, nor to any whale boat, or boat solely employed in the fisheries, nor to any boat belonging to any square-rigged vessel in the merchant service, nor to any life boat, or tow boat used in towing vessels belonging to licensed pilots, nor to any boat used solely in rivers or inland navigation, nor to any boats solely used in fishing on the coasts of the North and West Highlands of Scotland, nor to any boats so used on the coast of Ireland.—§ 23.

Penalty for counterfeiting or falsifying Licences, or making Use thereof.—If any person or persons shall counterfeit, erase, alter, or falsify, or cause to be counterfeited, erased, altered, or falsified, any licence so to be granted as aforesaid, or shall knowingly make use of any licence so counterfeited, erased, altered, or falsified, such person or persons shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 500*l.*—§ 24.

How long Bonds are to be in Force.—No bond given on account of the licence of any vessel or boat under the said act for the prevention of smuggling shall be cancelled until the space of 12 months after the licence for which such bond had been entered into shall have been delivered up to the proper officer of the customs, and such bond shall remain in full force and effect for 12 months after the delivering up of the licence as aforesaid.—§ 25.

Licences and Bonds granted previous to this Act to continue valid.—§ 26.

Provisions as to Licences to extend to Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, and Man.—§ 27.

LICENCES, in the excise, are required in order that individuals may engage in certain businesses.—(See Table in the next page.)

LICENCES, in the stamps, are required by those engaged in the professions and businesses mentioned below:—

	Per Annum. L. s. d.
Pawnbrokers, in London and Westminster, or within twopenny post limits	15 0 0
In any other place	7 10 0
Appraisers (not being auctioneers)	0 10 0
Bishops	80 0 0
Bankers, to exercise the faculty of	15 0 0
All persons trading in gold or silver plate, in which any quantity of gold exceeding 2 pennyweights, and under 2 ounces, or any quantity of silver exceeding 5 pennyweights and under 30 ounces, in 1 piece	2 6 0
Do. of greater weight, and every pawnbroker taking in or delivering out pawns of such plate, and every refiner of gold or silver	5 15 0

Gold or silver lace is not deemed plate.

LIGHT-HOUSE, a tower situated on a promontory, or headland on the sea coast, or on rocks in the sea, for the reception of a light for the guidance of ships at night.* There are also floating lights, or lights placed on board vessels moored in certain stations, and intended for the same purposes as those on shore.

* *Usus ejus, nocturno navium cursu ignes ostendere, ad pronuntianda vada, portusque introitum.* (*Plin. Hist. Nat.* lib. xxxvi. cap. 18.)

An account of the Businesses that cannot be carried on in Great Britain without Excise Licences; of the Sums charged for such Licences; of the Number of Licences granted for carrying on each Business in the Year ended the 5th of January, 1833, and of the Total Amount of Revenue derived therefrom.

Description of Licence.	Rate of Licence per Annum.	Number of Annual Licences granted.
	L. *s.* *d.*	
Auctions.		
Auctioneers	5 0 0	3,992
Beer.		
Brewers of strong beer, not exceeding 20 brls.	0 10 0	8,598
Exceeding 20 — 30 —	1 0 0	6,844
— 50 — 100 —	1 10 0	9,162
— 100 — 1,000 —	2 0 0	16,824
— 1,000 — 2,000 —	3 0 0	319
— 2,000 — 5,000 —	7 10 0	426
— 5,000 — 7,500 —	11 5 0	124
— 7,500 — 10,000 —	15 0 0	71
— 10,000 — 20,000 —	30 0 0	99
— 20,000 — 30,000 —	45 0 0	23
— 30,000 — 40,000 —	60 0 0	6
exceeding 40,000 —	75 0 0	16
Brewers of table beer, not exceeding 20 brls.	0 10 0	51
Exceeding 20 — 50 —	1 0 0	9
— 50 — 100 —	1 10 0	12
exceeding 100 —	2 0 0	27
Retail brewers of strong beer only, under the act 5 Geo. 4. c. 54.	5 5 0	50
Sellers of strong beer only, not being brewers	3 3 0	910
Retailers of beer, cyder, or perry, whose premises are rated at a rent under 20*l.* per annum	1 1 0	58,595
at 20*l.* per annum or upwards	2 2 0	15,417
Retailers of beer, cyder, or perry, under the provisions of the act 1 Will. 4. c. 64., "England only"	2 2 0	33,515
Retailers of cyder and perry only, under said act, "England only"	1 1 0	188
Coffee.		
Dealers in coffee, cocoa nuts, chocolate, tea, or pepper	0 11 0	26,204
Glass.		
Glass makers for every glass house	20 0 0	110
Malt.		
Malsters, or makers of malt, not exceeding 50 qrs.	0 7 6	2,610
Exceeding 50 — 100 —	0 15 0	1,034
100 — 150 —	1 3 6	1,031
150 — 200 —	1 10 0	1,009
200 — 250 —	1 17 6	822
250 — 300 —	2 5 0	712
300 — 350 —	2 12 6	577
350 — 400 —	2 9 0	485
400 — 450 —	3 7 6	391
450 — 500 —	3 15 0	345
500 — 550 —	4 2 6	308
exceeding 550 —	4 10 0	1,888
not exceeding 5 —	0 2 6	1,240

Description of Licence.	Rate of Licence per Annum.	Number of Annual Licences granted.
	L. *s.* *d.*	
Paper.		
Makers of paper, pasteboard, or scale-board	4 0 0	335
Printers, painters, or stainers of paper	4 0 0	104
Soap.		
Soap makers	4 0 0	270
Spirits.		
Distillers	10 0 0	246
Rectifiers	10 0 0	119
Dealers in spirits, not being retailers	10 0 0	8,415
Retailers of spirits whose premises are rated under 10*l.* per annum	0 2 0	21,643
at 10*l.* and under 20 —	4 4 0	22,733
20 — 25 —	5 5 0	3,264
25 — 30 —	7 7 0	1,075
30 — 40 —	8 8 0	3,627
40 — 50 —	9 9 0	2,285
50 per annum or upwards	10 10 0	4,338
Makers of stills, "Scotland only"	0 10 0	13
Persons not being distillers or rectifiers, using stills, "Scotland only"	0 10 0	32
Starch.		
Starch makers	5 0 0	99
Sweets and mead.		
Makers of sweets or made wines, mead or metheglin	2 2 0	18
Retailers of ditto	1 1 0	762
Tobacco.		
Manufacturers of tobacco and snuff, not exceeding 20,000 lbs.	5 0 0	259
Exceeding 20,000 — 40,000 —	10 0 0	70
40,000 — 60,000 —	15 0 0	35
60,000 — 80,000 —	20 0 0	21
80,000 — 100,000 —	25 0 0	9
exceeding 100,000 —	30 0 0	43
Dealers in tobacco and snuff	0 5 0	183,979
Vinegar.		
Makers of vinegar or acetous acid	5 0 0	49
Wine.		
Dealers in foreign wine, not having a licence for retailing spirits and a licence for retailing beer	10 0 0	1,765
Retailers of foreign wine, having a licence to retail beer, but not having a licence to retail spirits	4 4 0	49
Retailers having a licence to retail beer and spirits	2 2 0	20,658
Passage.		
Vessels on board which liquors and tobacco are sold	1 0 0	255

Total amount of revenue derived from licences, *L.*726,622 19*s.* 3*d.*

Excise Office, London, 5th of August, 1833. G. A. COTTRELL, First General Accountant.

Historical Notice.—The lighting of fires for the direction of ships at night is of such obvious utility, that we need not wonder at the practice having originated at a very remote era. The early history of light-houses is, however, involved in much obscurity; but it is reasonable to suppose that no long period would elapse after fires were lighted for the premonition and guidance of mariners, till towers would begin to be constructed for their reception. The most celebrated of all the ancient light-houses was that erected by Ptolemy Soter, on the small island of Pharos, opposite to Alexandria,—*nocturnis ignibus cursum navium regens.*—(*Plin.* lib. v. cap. 31.) It was of great height, and is said to have cost 800 talents.* Its celebrity was such, that Pharos rapidly became, and still continues to be in many countries, a generic term equivalent to light-house. In the ancient world, there were light-houses at Ostia, Ravenna, Puteoli, Caprea, Rhodes, on the Thracian Bosphorus, &c.—(See *Suetonii Opera*, ed. *Pitisci*, tom. i. p. 755.; and the *Ancient Universal History*, vol. ix. p. 366. 8vo ed.)

The *Tour de Cordouan*, at the entrance of the Gironde, the Eddystone light-house, opposite to Plymouth Sound, and that more recently constructed on the Bell Rock, opposite to the Frith of Tay, are the most celebrated modern light-houses. The Tour de Cordouan was begun in 1584, by order of Henry IV., and was completed in 1611. It was at first 169 feet (Fr.) high; but in 1727 it was enlarged, by the addition of an iron lantern, to the height of 175 French, or 186½ English feet. It used to be lighted by a coal fire, but it is now lighted by reflecting lamps of great power and brilliancy. It is altogether a splendid structure; and is, besides, remarkable for being the first light-house on which a revolving light was exhibited.—(See BORDEAUX.)

* Dr. Gillies tells us (*Hist. of Alexander's Successors*, vol. ii. p. 138. 8vo ed.) that the tower was 450 feet in height; that each side of its square base measured 600 feet, and that its "beaming summit" was seen at the distance of 100 miles! It is almost needless to add, that there is no authority for such statements which, indeed, carry absurdity on their face.

The first light-house erected on the Eddystone rocks only stood about 7 years, having been blown down in the dreadful storm of the 27th of November, 1703; a second, erected in 1708, was burnt down in 1755. The present light-house, constructed by the celebrated engineer Smeaton, was completed in 1759. It is regarded as a masterpiece of its kind; and bids fair to be little less lasting than the rocks on which it stands.

The Bell Rock light-house was built by Mr. Stevenson on the model of the Eddystone.

Numerous light-houses, marking the most dangerous points, and the entrance to the principal harbours, are now erected in most civilised maritime countries. They are particularly abundant in the Baltic and in the Sound, and have contributed, in no ordinary degree, to render their navigation comparatively safe. Within these few years several new ones have been erected on the British coasts, and on those of France, the United States, &c.

Precautions as to Light-houses.—Many fatal accidents have arisen from ships mistaking one light for another; and hence the importance of those on the same coast being made to differ distinctly from each other, and of their position and appearance being accurately laid down and described. The modern inventions of revolving, intermitting, and coloured lights, afford facilities for varying the appearance of each light unknown to our ancestors, and have been, in that respect, of the greatest importance.

Chart of Light-houses, &c.—A good descriptive work on light-houses, beacons, &c. is a desideratum. That of Coulier, *Guide des Marines pendant la Navigation nocturne*, Paris, 1829, is perhaps the best. It must not be judged by its preface, which is as bad as possible; consisting of scraps from the most fantastical parts of Bryant's Mythology, and of attacks on us for our conduct in relation to Parga, and the alleged ill-treatment of the crew of a vessel wrecked on the island of Alderney! The book is really pretty good, which could not certainly be anticipated from such a commencement. The reader will find the existing English and Irish light-houses, and the greater number of those belonging to Scotland, laid down in the chart attached to the article CANALS in this work. Its accuracy may be depended upon; as it has been copied from the beautiful chart of the light-houses on the British and contiguous coasts recently published by the Trinity House; the corporation having readily and obligingly granted permission to that effect. In the *Supplement* the reader will find the position, description, &c. of the principal British and Irish light-houses and floating lights.

Law as to British Light-houses.—The 8 Eliz. c. 13. empowers the corporation of the Trinity House to erect beacons, &c. to prevent accidents to ships; and though the act does not expressly mention light-houses, it has been held to extend to them; and on its authority, and the privileges attached to the office of buoyage and beaconage conferred on the Trinity House in 1594, the corporation erects light-houses. The tolls for their maintenance are generally collected under the authority of letters patent from the crown; those for the support of the Eddystone light, and some others in different parts of the kingdom, being, however, established by act of parliament. The first light-house erected by the Trinity Corporation was in 1675; but several had been previously erected by private parties in virtue of letters patent. Customs' officers are prohibited from making out any cocket or other discharge, or taking any report outwards for any ship, until the light duties are paid, and the master shall have produced a light-bill testifying the receipt thereof. It is lawful for persons authorised by the Trinity House to go on board any British or foreign ship to receive the duties, and for non-payment to distrain the tackle of the ship; and in case of delay of payment for 3 days after distress, the collectors of the said duties may cause the same to be appraised by two persons, and proceed to sell the distress. (6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 79. § 54.)

All the light-houses, floating lights, &c., exclusive of harbour lights, from the Fern Islands, on the coast of Northumberland, round by Beachy Head and the Land's End, to the coast of Cumberland, have always belonged to the Trinity House, with the exception of about a dozen lights, viz. Tynemouth, Spurn (shore), Winterton and Orford, Harwich, Dungeness, Skerries, &c. These lights have been partly public and partly private property; provision has, however, been made in the act now referred to, for vesting them exclusively in the Trinity House.—(See below.) The duties on their account have been, for the most part, always payable to the Trinity collectors.

Fees on Account of Light-houses.—A wish to keep the charges on native ships as low as possible, and to insure them a preference, seems to have given rise to the practice that has long existed, of exacting comparatively high duties from the foreign shipping entering our ports. But whatever may have been the motives for making this distinction, its policy seems more than questionable. It is quite right that the foreign ships coming to our shores for commercial purposes should be made to pay the same light and harbour duties as British vessels; but the imposition of comparatively high duties on them is decidedly injurious, inasmuch as it provokes retaliatory measures on the part of other states, obstructs the resort of foreigners to our markets, and, consequently, checks the growth of commerce.

This system was very properly condemned in a report by a committee of the House of Commons, in 1833. There is, in the evidence annexed to that report, some well-authenticated instances of foreign ships having been totally lost, from the disinclination of the captain to enter a British port, while it was in their power, on account of the heavy charges to which they would have been exposed for lights, &c.! Down, indeed, to 1835, all ships, whether native or foreign, coming into any British port by *stress of weather*, were charged with full light duties; but we are glad to say that this inhospitable regulation has been repealed by an order in council of the 7th of February that year, issued on the recommendation of the Trinity House, which exempts such vessels from all charge on account of lights. Our whole policy as to light duties, port charges, &c. has, within these few years, been materially improved, and is now the very reverse of illiberal. It is true that the discriminating duties on foreign ships are still kept up; but in consequence of the general establishment of reciprocity treaties, the distinction has become rather nominal than real, and affects comparatively few of the ships using our seas.*

We are glad, also, to have to announce, that very large deductions have been, in most instances,

* We stated inadvertently in the former impressions of this work, that light duties were charged on foreign ships, if in the prosecution of their voyage they *came within sight* of any of our light-houses. But in point of fact, no light duties are charged by the Trinity House either upon foreign or British ships for voyages from one foreign port to another; unless, in the course of such voyages, they *actually come to or touch at* a British port or roadstead. (See No. 3. of Instructions to Trinity Collectors, given below.) But foreign vessels sailing along the Irish coasts are charged ½d. a ton for each light passed, except harbour lights, which are only charged upon vessels entering the same.

made from the light-house duties. It is, indeed, quite essential to their utility that these should be moderate. They have the same influence upon the intercourse carried on by sea, that tolls have upon that carried on by land; and it is needless to add, that oppressive tolls are amongst the most effectual of all the engines by which rapacious ignorance has contrived to injure a country.*

Charges on Account of Collection, &c.—The charges under this head for the lights under the control of the Trinity House, amounted, in 1834, to 7,034*l.* 5*s.* 3½*d.*, the *expenses of maintenance* (including payments on account of works at different lights, 4,207*l.* 2*s.* 5*d.*) for the same year being 37,999*l.* 10*s.* 1*d.*, leaving a balance of 47,403*l.* 7*s.* 1*d.* *nett surplus.* It is plain, therefore, that the light-house revenue is, at this moment, more than twice as great as is necessary for keeping the establishment in the most perfect state of efficiency. The surplus revenue is, we believe, in so far at least as the Trinity House is concerned, very judiciously expended in maintaining decayed seamen, and other useful purposes. But considering the vast importance of low shipping charges, we agree with the committee of 1823 in thinking that such persons might be provided for in some less onerous way, and that the light duties should be still further reduced. They ought not, in fact, to exceed such a rate of charge as may be required to keep the lights in the most perfect state. Originally they seem to have been imposed only in this view; but, whether this were really so or not, the interests of navigation require that they should now be established on that principle. Instead of reducing the charges generally on all lights, it has been proposed to make some of the more important lights duty free, as by this means the expense of collection would be saved, and business materially facilitated. This, however, would in effect impose a proportionally heavy charge on the ships belonging to the less frequented ports; so that, on the whole, the general reduction of the rates would seem to be the better plan.

Exceptions.

The duties on account of the light houses on the east coast (with the exception of those for the Spurn floating light) are payable by all vessels once only for the whole voyage out and home; but a single passage subjects them to the payment of the full duties.

Spurn Floating Light.—The duties for this light are to be collected from such foreign and British owners traders as actually enter the river Humber, and are payable in those cases for each time of passing. Coasters and colliers are subject thereto for each time of passing coastwise, if laden; but not otherwise.

The duties for the Channel lights are payable for each time of passing.

The duties for the lights in the Bristol and St. George's Channels are payable for each time of passing, with the exception of the Bardsey light, as hereunder stated; but the following directions must be attended to, viz.—

Flatholm Light.—Coasters between the Land's End and St. David's Head (market boats and fishing vessels excepted) are to pay 1*s.* per vessel.

Caldy Light.—The duties for this light are payable by such vessels only as may put into any port, place, or roadstead, between the Worm's Head and St. Gowen's Head.

Lundy Light.—Duties payable only by vessels on their voyage to or from ports in the Bristol Channel, or to or from any ports to the eastward of a line drawn from Hartland Point to St. Gowen's Head.

Bardsey Light.—Duties for foreign vessels and British owners traders are payable once only for the whole voyage out and home; for coasters and colliers coastwise, each time of passing, if laden, but not otherwise.

South Stack Light.—British or Irish ships and vessels to or from Liverpool, Chester, and ports to the northward thereof, to any other ports to the northward of the Calf of Man) at the south part of the Isle of Man) or to the eastward of Holyhead, with all other vessels bound to or from Liverpool and ports adjacent, to any other ports whatsoever, sailing in or out of the North Channel, viz. "by Fanhead on the coast of Ireland, and the Mull of Cantire on the coast of Scotland," are not subject to pay the duties to the said light. This exemption, however, is confined and restricted to ships and vessels of the United Kingdom, navigating within the limits above described.

N.B.—By the term "each time of passing" is to be understood once for the outward and once for the inward passage.

Trinity Lights.—The rules and regulations as to lights may be altered by the Trinity House, with consent of the privy council. We subjoin a copy of the existing instructions issued by the Corporation to their collectors.

TRINITY HOUSE, LONDON.

Instructions to for the collection of the duties payable to the Corporation of Trinity House, at the port of

1st. You are to demand and receive from the master or agent of every ship or vessel which hath passed, or is about to pass, in any direction the several lights belonging to this Corporation, the respective tolls and duties as particularly set forth in the Table hereunto annexed; observing, nevertheless, the regulation contained in the 31 article, and also that British vessels, and such foreign vessels as are or shall be privileged in respect to charges as British vessels, are exempt from payment of duties to this Corporation, when navigated *solely to ballast.*

2d. You are to take care to rate all British vessels, of every class or description, to the full amount of their register tonnage, except for those particular lights, for the duties to which colliers and coasters are chargeable per vessel only. Foreign vessels are to be charged to the full amount of their tonnage, as ascertained by the officer of his Majesty's customs.

3d. You are to observe that neither British nor foreign vessels are to be charged with the duties on account of a passage which may have taken place, or may be hereafter contemplated, being from one foreign port to another foreign port, unless in the prosecution of such voyages they shall actually arrive or touch at, a port or roadstead in Great Britain.

4th. The duties are to be collected from all British ships at the ports in Great Britain where they load or deliver their cargoes. No collection is therefore to be made from any British ship which may happen to touch at your port on her passage to another port in Great Britain; but you are to observe that this rule is not to be applied in respect of vessels touching at your port in their passages to ports not in Great Britain.

5th. You are to charge all vessels belonging to the following states with the same duties in every respect, as British vessels:—The vessels of those states are in fact to be considered, so far as respects charges made on account of this Corporation, as British ships, until further orders; viz. Portugal, Brazil, United States of America, the kingdom of the Netherlands, Hanover, Sweden, Norway, Russia, Hamburgh, Bremen, Lubeck, Denmark, and Prussia; to which are to be added vessels belonging to the duchies of Oldenburgh and Mecklenburgh, as well as those belonging to the kingdom of France, which have been also admitted to the privilege of reciprocity in respect of charges; but as that privilege is granted to vessels of those states under some limitations, it is necessary you should particularly observe the directions contained in the recitals of the orders in council and treaty hereunder given†, whereby you will perceive that vessels of those states are still liable, in certain cases, to the foreign rate of duty.

6th. All vessels belonging to the United Kingdom, and trading between Great Britain and Ireland, are to be deemed and charged as coasting vessels, in respect of all light and other duties payable to this Corporation.

7th. You are to give your receipt on a light bill, to the master of every ship or vessel who shall pay you any of the hereinafter mentioned tolls or duties, expressing (plainly and fully) his name, the name of the vessel, and the place to which she belongs, her voyage and tonnage, the money paid, and time of payment. You are to insert all those several particulars in the counterpart of each light bill, which counterpart is to be signed by the master or his agent, and the books returned, containing the same, to this house, at the end of every . You are to take care that none of the blank light-bills which shall be lodged with you fall into improper hands, or be wasted. You are in all cases to require the production of the light bill for the duties last paid; and you are not to admit or allow that the master of any vessel hath paid elsewhere without producing a light-bill, duly signed by the collector for the port at which it may be alleged the duties have been paid; and whenever you shall be satisfied that the duties for any ship or vessel have been paid at any other port or place, you are to note the same in your book, and also in your accounts in the returns prepared for that purpose, expressing the several particulars as in your light-bills, with the time and place of payment. Books, containing each a number of blank light-bills, will be furnished you from this house, on your application, whenever required. You are to keep an exact account of all monies which

† *Oldenburgh Vessels.*—Extract of his Majesty's order in council, dated the 19th of October, 1824:—"His Majesty, by virtue of the powers vested in him by the acts above recited, and by and with the advice of his privy council, is pleased to order, and it is hereby ordered, that from and after the date of this order, Oldenburgh vessels entering the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in ballast or laden, direct from any of the ports of Oldenburgh, or departing from the ports of the said United Kingdom, together with the cargoes on board the same, such cargoes consisting of articles which may be legally imported or exported, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever than are or shall be levied on British vessels entering or departing from such ports."

Mecklenburgh Vessels.—The purport of the order in council granting the privileges of reciprocity to Mecklenburg vessels, is precisely the same as the foregoing order in respect of Oldenburgh vessels, and is dated the 14th of June, 1825.

French Vessels.—Extract from a convention of commerce and navigation between his Majesty and the King of France, dated 26th of January, 1826:—"That from and after the 5th day of April, 1826, French vessels coming from or departing for the ports of France, or if in ballast, coming from or departing for any place, shall not be subject, in the ports of the United Kingdom, either on entering into or departing from the same, to any higher duties of tonnage, harbour, light-house, pilotage, quarantine, or other similar corresponding duties, of whatever nature, or under whatever denomination, than those to which British vessels, in respect of the same voyage, are or may be subject on entering into or departing from such ports."

Colliers are to be charged by the number of tons expressed in their registers, and not by the children; and colliers bound to or from foreign parts are to pay the same as other British ships bound to reign.

* There is nothing new in this statement:—"*Avara manus portus claudit; at cum digitos contrahit, earum simul vela concludit; meritò enim illa mercatores cunctos refugiunt quos sibi dispendia esse cognoscunt.*"—(*Cassiodorus*, lib. vii. cap. varia, 9.)

...ses shall from time to time collect; and, before you ... fill up your light-bills, to enter the same distinctly in a book to be provided by yourself for that purpose, wherein all the particulars which are hereinbefore directed to be expressed in your light-bills are to be entered of all which you are, within 14 days after the 1st of January, the 1st of April, the 1st of July, and the 1st of October (to which periods you are to make up your accounts), to send a copy on the printed form furnished from this house, together with the balance of your collection, after a deduction of ... in the pound for your care, trouble, and ordinary expenses therein, to the secretary of the Corporation at this house.

By command of the Corporation,
(Signed) J. HERBERT, Secretary.

Account specifying the various Light-houses and Floating Lights under the management of the Corporation of the Trinity House of Deptford Strond; the Rates of Charge on the British and Foreign Ships passing such Lights; with the Amount of Duties collected on Account of each Light, during each of the Three Years ending with 1835.—(Furnished by *Trinity House*.)

Names of Lights.	Rates of Charge.			Amounts collected.		
	Coasters.	British and Foreign privileged Vessels Overseas per Ton.	Foreign Vessels not privileged Overseas per Ton.	1833.	1834.	1835.
				£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Scilly - 1 light-house -	1 shilling per vessel	1 farthing -	1 halfpenny -	2,339 9 11½	2,471 2 4½	2,515 5 11
Eddystone - 1 light-house -	2 shillings - -	1 halfpenny -	1 penny -	3,581 5 1	3,784 14 4½	3,760 5 3½
Milford - 2 light-houses -	1 shilling - -	1 halfpenny -	1 penny -	4,518 19 6	4,571 3 5½	5,144 7 0½
Portland - 2 light-houses -	1 shilling - -	1 halfpenny -	1 penny -	8,195 6 2½	8,290 18 0½	8,309 4 8
St. Bees - 1 light-house -	(Vessels entering the harbours of Whitehaven, Parton, and Workington, and none other, 2 pence per ton, yearly.)			449 15 8	474 7 10	527 13 4
Foulness - 1 light-house -	1 farthing per ton -	1 farthing -	1 farthing -	5,517 0 3½	5,600 6 8½	5,911 13 1½
Cohern - 3 light-houses -	6 pence per vessel -	1 halfpenny -	1 penny -	2,061 18 3½	2,188 0 5½	2,237 14 8½
Nore - 1 floating light	1 shilling per 100 tons; but not chargeable on any excess of tonnage above 500.	1 shilling per 100 tons;	2 shillings per 100 tons;	2,668 19 9	2,631 16 6	2,749 10 9
Well - 1 floating light	1 farthing per ton -	1 farthing -	1 halfpenny -	8,889 18 10½	9,074 10 6½	8,980 11 4½
Yarmouth - 1 light-house -	1834, 1 shilling per vessel within the Bristol Channel, Other coasters, halfpenny per ton 1831, 1 shilling per vessel, 1 farthing per ton	3 farthings -	1 penny - 2 pence - 3 halfpence	1,655 17 11½	1,788 6 0½	1,874 11 8½
Lizard - 2 light-houses -	2 shillings per vessel	1 halfpenny -	1 penny -	3,295 5 6½	3,718 14 9	3,735 1 6½
Needles and Hurst - 3 light-houses -	1 shilling - -	1 halfpenny -	1 penny -	6,227 18 9½	6,372 7 11½	6,456 7 4½
Owers - 1 floating light	1 shilling per vessel	1 halfpenny -	1 penny -	3,093 1 9½	3,288 14 6½	3,385 1 0½
Shiders' - 2 light-houses & 1 floating light	1 farthing per ton -	1 farthing -	1 halfpenny -	5,541 17 8½	5,631 16 2½	5,669 9 10
Goodwin - 1 floating light	1 shilling per vessel; colliers, 1 farthing per ton	1 halfpenny -	1 penny -	3,809 9 8½	3,941 9 9½	4,017 9 10½
Sunk - 1 floating light	1 farthing per ton -	1 halfpenny -	1 penny -	4,851 4 9	5,311 2 0½	5,378 2 4½
Trinder' - 1 light-house	1 farthing per ton -	1 farthing -	1 halfpenny -	3,732 18 10	3,910 0 10½	4,116 4 0½
South Foreland - 1 light house	1 farthing per ton -	1 farthing -	1 halfpenny -	5,609 15 5	2,910 10 0*	3,109 7 0½
Dungeness - 2 light-houses -	3 farthings per ton -	3 farthings -	3 halfpence -	2,237 5 5	3,020 5 5½	3,037 0 5
Dungeness - 1 light-house until 1832, then 2 light-houses -	at Bridgewater, 3 shillings per vessel - at Bristol, 6 pence per vessel to and from Ireland, 1 shilling per vessel	at Bridgewater, 5 shillings per vessel - at Bristol, under 100 tons, 3 shillings per vessel; 100 and under 250 tons, 5 shillings per vessel; 250 tons and upwards, 7 shillings & 6 pence per vessel.	at Bridgewater, 10 shillings per vessel - at Bristol, double the amount chargeable on British vessels.	577 17 6	604 15 6	651 8 8
Lowestoft - 2 light-houses & 1 floating light	1 farthing per ton -	1 farthing -	1 farthing -	3,618 9 5½	3,705 15 10½	3,886 8 11½
Air - 1 light-house & buoys in the Dee	2 pence per ton - (On vessels entering the port of Chester)	4 pence -	2 pence -	843 7 7	857 14 4	1,911 8 1
Lundy - 1 light-house	1 farthing per ton -	1 farthing -	1 halfpenny -	1,720 19 2½	1,818 12 7	1,944 1 2½
Scarn - 1 floating light	1 farthing per ton -	1 farthing -	1 halfpenny -	4,326 15 7½	4,379 1 5½	4,716 18 6
Bideford Bar - 2 light-houses -	1 shilling per voyage on limestone vessels	3 pence -	3 pence -	425 10 4	440 8 0½	403 8 7
Bridgy - 1 light house	1 farthing per ton -	1 farthing -	1 farthing -	1,844 13 8½	1,725 19 4½	1,998 18 9½
Ilfracombe - 1 light-house	1 farthing per ton -	1 farthing -	1 farthing -	516 3 1	539 5 5½	639 10 9½
	(Payable at Newport only.)					
Lynn Well - 1 floating light	1 penny per ton -	1 penny -	2 pence -	1,490 5 11	1,598 16 9	1,405 11 10½
Beachy Head - 1 light-house	1 shilling per vessel	1 farthing -	1 halfpenny -	1,774 2 1	1,864 4 7	1,918 4 10½
Calay - 1 light-house	1 penny per ton - (Vessels in the limestone trade pay either 1s. per voyage, or an annual commutation of 30s., 15s. or 10s. each, according to their respective tonnages.)	1 penny -	2 pence -	708 17 2	838 1 10	836 1 1
Nash - 2 light-houses -	1 farthing per ton -	1 halfpenny -	1 penny -	1,897 12 4½	2,089 14 8½	2,155 16 8½
Shiders' - 1 floating light North end	1 farthing per ton -	1 farthing -	1 halfpenny -	5,585 5 8*	5,660 2 11½	5,889 14 6½
South Sand Head - 1 floating light	1 eighth of a penny per ton	1 farthing -	1 halfpenny -	1,988 2 11½	2,079 13 10	2,158 9 8½
Portsmouth - 3 light-house ‡	1 farthing per ton -	1 farthing -	1 halfpenny -	2,815 16 10½	2,959 19 10	3,109 14 6½
Falmouth harbour †	- - -	- - -	- - -		- - -	998 9 6½
			Total -	87,496 17 0½	91,447 8 5½	96,791 18 0½

** All British vessels, and all foreign vessels privileged as British in respect of charges, are exempted from all rates and duties payable to the Trinity Corporation when navigated wholly in ballast.

* These lights were, on the expiration of the Crown lease of the same to Greenwich Hospital, on the 30th of June, 1832, transferred to the Trinity House, that corporation paying to the commissioners of the Hospital the sum of 8,390*l.* 16*s.* for the purchase of the buildings, the ground on which they are erected, stores, &c. On this transfer being made, the tolls were reduced from 1*d.* to ½*d.* per ton.

† This light exhibited 30th of April 1835; the following are the rates of charges:—

Coasters - - - - - - -	¼d. per ton.	Foreign Vessels not privileged as British, double the foregoing rates.	
British and foreign privileged vessels overseas -	½ —	All vessels entering Falmouth harbour from stress of weather exempt from dues.	
British and foreign vessels entering the port of Falmouth, but not for the purposes of trade -	¼ —	Dues collected at Falmouth, Truro, and Greenwich only.	

Private Light-houses.—Private individuals erecting light-houses have generally obtained a lease of the same from the Crown for a definite number of years, with authority to charge certain fees on shipping. Owing to the great increase of navigation, some of these light-houses have become very valuable properties. The Smalls and Longships lights have always belonged to the Trinity House, but were leased by that body to private individuals. The leases have, however, been recently purchased by the Corporation.—We extract from the *Parl. Paper*, No. 608. Sess. 1836, the following

Account of the Gross and Nett Revenue of the private Light-houses of Harwich, Dungeness, Wintertonness and Orfordness, and Hunstanton Cliff, during 1834 and 1835, stating how the same was divided.

Names of Light-house.		Gross Receipts.	Expense of Collection and Maintenance.	Nett Proceeds.	Appropriation of the Nett Revenue.	
					Amount paid to the Crown.	Amount paid to the Lessee.
		£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Harwich light house . .	1834	9,954 10 11	1,980 13 4	8,074 7 7	4,844 8 11½	3,229 12 7½
	1835	10,469 12 6	1,717 14 1	8,691 18 7	5,215 3 9	3,476 15 0
Dungeness light-house . .	1834	6,455 15 11	1,366 7 7	4,189 6 4	2,094 13 2	2,094 13 2
	1835	5,946 11 6	1,343 19 6	4,462 14 10	2,231 17 5	2,231 17 5
Winterton and Orfordness .	1834	9,467 16 6	1,971 5 9	7,616 11 3	3,808 5 7	3,808 5 7
	1835	10,098 1 6	1,944 11 2	8,101 10 4	4,050 15 2	4,050 15 2
Hunstanton Cliff . .	1834	357 11 0	184 18 6	172 18 6	.	172 18 6
	1835	631 16 1	226 2 11	405 9 2	.	405 9 2

Harwich Lights, held by General Rebow, under lease from the Crown, for 32 years from the 5th of January, 1827, paying to the Crown 3-5ths of the nett duty collected.

Dungeness Lights, held under lease from the Crown by Thomas William Coke, Esq. for 30 years from Midsummer 1828. Nett produce of the duties equally divided between the Crown and the lessee. The duties were reduced at the renewal of the lease from 1d. to 1-2d. per ton; and it is provided, that at the termination the light-houses and buildings connected therewith, and the ground on which they are erected, shall become the property of the Crown.

Winterton and Orfordness Lights, held by Lord Braybrooke under a lease from the Crown, which expires on the 1st of June, 1849. Nett produce of the duties equally divided between the Crown and his Lordship. The duties were reduced at the last renewal of the lease in 1828, from 1d. to 1-2d. per ton. At the expiration of the lease, the light house, grounds, &c. become the property of the Crown.

Hunstanton Cliff Light, held by S. Lane, Esq., under a lease from the Crown, which expires in 1849. From the 16th of October, 1837, 4-15th parts of the nett produce are to go to the Crown; and the light-houses, &c., become, at the expiration of the lease, the property of the Crown, as in the case of the Dungeness and Winterton lights. The duties are to be reduced to a half in 1837.

There are several other lights, of the revenue of which we have seen no late account.

The charges for the undermentioned lights are as follow:—

	Foreign Ships.	British Ships.
Harwich . . .	1d. per ton.	0 1-2d. per ton.
Hunstanton . . .	1d. —	0 1-2d. —
Longships (off Land's End)	1d. —	0 1-2d. —
Maplins (near Swansea) .	0 1-2d. —	0 1-4d. —
Skerries (St. George's Channel)	2d. —	1d. —
Dungeness . . .	1d. —	0 1-2d. —
Winterton and Orford .	1d. —	0 1-2d. —
Smalls (St. George's Channel)	2d. —	1d. —
Ditto (ditto) (consting) .	2d. —	0 1-2d. —
Spurn (Shore) mouth of Humber	1d. —	0 1-2d. —
Tynemouth . . .	2s. per ves.	1s. per ves.
Ditto (additional) . .	0 1-2d. per ton.	2d. per ton.

The *nett* revenue of the Smalls light-house in St. George's Channel amounted, at an average of the 2 years ending with 1832, to 10,510*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.* a year. The lease had then 44 years to run. In 1823, the Trinity Corporation having proposed to purchase the reversion, the lessees demanded for it 148,430*l.*! The Corporation has recently effected the purchase; but owing to the increase of commerce in the interim, they have had to pay a larger sum, notwithstanding the diminished length of the lease. This fact affords a striking illustration of the extreme inexpediency of the practice of leasing light-houses to private parties. Wherever they are necessary, they ought to be raised at the public expense, and the fees kept as low as possible. There cannot, in fact, be any greater improvidence or abuse, than to make over to a private individual or association a power to levy, for a long series of years, a certain amount of toll on the ships passing particular lights. The renewals mentioned above are, however, the last transactions of the sort that are ever likely to occur; for by the act 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 79., the whole right and property in the Harwich, Dungeness, Winterton and Orford, and Hunstanton lights is vested in the Trinity House, subject to the existing leases; and for these the Corporation is at present (1836) in treaty.

The Skerries is by far the most valuable of the private light-houses. It is situated on a small inlet or rock to the north-west of the island of Anglesey; and was granted to the ancestor of the present proprietor, to be *for ever* holden by him, his heirs and assigns, by the act 3 Geo. 2. c. 36. This light produced, at an average of the 7 years ending with 1834, a nett revenue of 12,524*l.* 15*s.* 2*d.* a year!

The Scotch or Northern Lights are under the management of a set of parliamentary commissioners. The act 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 79. s. 40. enacts, that from the 1st of January, 1837, all British and foreign privileged vessels, not wholly in ballast, which shall pass any Scotch light-house, or derive any benefit therefrom, shall pay 1-6d. per ton for each time of passing every such light-house, except that on the Bell Rock, for which they are to pay 1d. per ton each time of passing. Foreign vessels, not privileged, pay double these rates.

Irish Lights.—It appears from the *Parl. Paper*, No. 608. Sess. 1836, p. 12., that the gross sum collected for Irish light duties, during 1835, amounted to 44,841*l.* 5*s.*, of which 36,808*l.* 16*s.* 2*d.* was collected in Great Britain. The rates of charge are as follow:—

Foreign vessels, 1-2*d.* per ton for each light passed; except harbour lights, which are only chargeable to vessels entering the port within which they are situated.

British and Irish, 1-6*d.* per ton (1-8*d.* if in ballast) for each light, except as above.

With a duty of 2*s.* on every entry, cocket, or warrant, when from foreign ports, but not otherwise.

Compensation to Private Parties.—The authority acquired by certain individuals and public bodies, under letters patent, acts of parliament, and otherwise, of levying certain duties on account of lights, beacons, pilotage, harbour, dues, &c. entitles them, for the most part, to demand higher fees from foreign than from British shipping. When, therefore, we entered into reciprocity treaties with foreign powers, government had to compensate the parties in question for the diminution that consequently took place in their charges on foreign ships. The total sum paid on this account, in 1832, amounted to 25,162*l.* Of this sum 1,566*l.* was paid to the lessees of the Smalls light-house already alluded to, and 2,985*l.* to the proprietors of the Spurn and Skerries lights. The Trinity Corporation relinquished their claim to compensation some time since; and the act 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 79. forbids such compensation being made to them, the Commissioners of Northern Lights, and the commissioners for managing the Irish lights.—(For some account of the Trinity Corporation, the reader is referred to that article; and for accounts of the charges on account of Beaconage, Ballastage, Pilotage, &c. see these titles.)

(The following important regulations, in respect of light-houses, are embodied in the act of last session, 6 & 7 *Will.* 4. c. 79.

All English Lights to be subjected to the Control of the Trinity House.—Provision is made by this act for placing all light-houses, floating lights, harbour lights, buoys, beacons, &c., on and round the coasts of England and Wales, under the control and management of the Trinity House; and also for placing all light-houses, &c. on the coasts of Scotland and of Ireland respectively under the control and management of the Commissioners of Northern Lights and of the Commissioners for Improving the Port of Dublin.—(§ 1.) In furtherance of this object, and to attain that uniformity of management that is so desirable, the property of all light-houses (Dungeness, Harwich, Wintertonness, Hun-

stanton and Orfordness, *ante*, p. 142.), held under lease from the crown, is vested in the Trinity House, subject to the existing leases. Provision is also made in the act for enabling the Trinity House, to purchase up the reversion of the leases granted by them of the Longships and Smalls lights, and the property and interest of the owners or parties having the management of the Skerries, Spurn Point, and the Tynemouth light-houses. Should the Trinity House, and the parties interested, not be able to agree as to the sum to be paid the latter, the matter, in all such cases, is to be referred to the decision of a jury, the method of whose proceeding is pointed out in the act. It is also enacted that no new light-house shall in future be erected on the Scotch or Irish coasts, without the approval of the Trinity House having been previously obtained; and that the officers of the latter shall have power at all times to enter upon and examine such Scotch and Irish lights.—(§ § 2, 3, 4, &c.)

Duties on account of Scotch Lights.—It is enacted that from and after the 1st of January, 1837, all British ships, and all foreign privileged ships, not wholly in ballast, shall pay 1*d.* per ton each time of passing each light on the coasts of Scotland, with the exception of the Bell Rock light, the charge on passing which is 1*d.* per ton.—(§ 40.)

Extra Duties on Foreign Ships privileged.—These are no longer to be paid out of the customs' duties to the Trinity House, the Commissioners of Northern Lights, or the Commissioners for Improving the Port of Dublin.—(§ § 31. 41.)

Heligoland Light.—From the 31st of December, 1836, foreign ships clearing out from any British port to any port or place within or near the rivers Elbe and Weser, are to be charged 1*d.* per ton, on account of the Heligoland light; and, from the same date, foreign ships, arriving at a British port from within the above mentioned limits, are to be charged the like sum of 1*d.* per ton for the said light.—(§ 36.)

The following particulars, as to the principal British and Irish light-houses, have been taken from the Official Statement issued by the Admiralty.

I. ENGLISH LIGHT-HOUSES.

Name of Light.	Place whereon Light-house stands.	Number of Lights.	Description of Light.	Time of Revolution or Flash.	Distance in Miles at which easily seen in clear Weather.	Colour of Light-house, or its Appearance by Day.	Height of Lantern above the Sea at High Water, in Feet.	Height of Building in Feet.	Position. N. Latitude.	Position. Longitude.
									° ′ ″	° ′ ″
Scilly.*	Highest part of St. Agnes' Island.	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	17	White.	136	88	49 53 37	6 19 29 W.
Longships.*	Longships Rock, Land's End.	1	Fixed.	- -	14	Stone.	88	86	50 4	5 44
Lizard.*	Lizard Point.	2	Fixed.	- -	20	White.	E. 221 W. 224	Both 45.	49 57 18	5 10 39
Eddystone.*	Eddystone Rock.	1	Fixed.	- -	13	Stone.	72	73	50 10 54	4 15 3
Casquet.*	Casquet Rocks.	3	Revolving.	Every 15 seconds.	15	Stone.	80	One 18, the others 38.	49 42 17	2 23 54
Portland.*	Hill of Portland.	2	High light revolving, low light fixed.	Every 2 minutes.	19 13	White.	198 131	25 70	50 31 22	2 26 45
Hurst.	Hurst Beach.	2	Fixed.	- -	12 9	Red.	Highest 68, lowest 29.	60 23	50 42 23	1 33 50
Needles.*	Needles Point, Isle of Wight.	1	Fixed.	- -	28	White.	400	28	50 39 55	1 35 55
Owers, floating.	East end of the Owers shoals, coast of Sussex.	1	Fixed.	- -	9	Carries a flag.	28	- -	50 41	0 39
Beachy Head.*	Belletout Cliff.	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	28	White.	285	20	50 44	0 18 E.
Dungeness.*	Dungeness Point.	1	Fixed.	- -	20	Bright red.	92	88	50 56	0 57 45
Dover.	South Pier.	2	Fixed.	- -	12	White.	60	12	51 7	1 18
South Foreland.*	South Foreland.	2	Fixed.	- -	20	White.	380 276	41 32	51 8 51 10	1 22
South Sand Head, floating.	South end of the Goodwin Sands.	1	Fixed.	- -	10	Carries a flag.	35	- -	51 10	1 27
Gull, floating.	Western edge of the Goodwin Sands.	2	Fixed.	- -	7	Carries a flag.	14	- -	51 17	1 30
Goodwin, floating.	North Sand Head.	3	Fixed.	- -	9	Has 3 masts, and carries a flag.	Mainmast 35, the others 23.	- -	51 19	1 36
Ramsgate.	South Pier Head.	1	Fixed.	- -	6	White.	- -	- -	51 20	1 26
North Foreland.*	North Foreland.	1	Fixed.	- -	22	White.	340	50	51 22	1 27
Nore, floating.	East end of the Nore Sands.	1	Fixed.	- -	10	Carries a flag.	35	- -	51 29	0 48
Harwich.	Harwich.	2	Fixed.	- -	12	Highest grey brick, lowest white.	98 97	98 25	51 56 30	1 17 8
Calliper, floating.	West end of the Galloper Shoal.	1	Fixed.	- -	10	Carries a flag.	32	- -	51 45	1 54
Sunk, floating.	East end of the sunk sand off Harwich.	1	Fixed.	- -	9	Carries a flag.	30	- -	51 47	1 29
Orford.*	Orfordness.	2	Fixed.	- -	22	Stone.	- -	93 95	52 4 50	1 34 15
Lowestoffe.*	Lowestoffe.	2	Fixed.	- -	16 10	Stone.	119 86	95	52 29 10	1 45 14
Winterton.*	Winterton Point.	1	Fixed.	- -	20	Stone.	- -	82	52 43	1 41
Hasborough, floating.	North end of Haisborough Sand.	2	Fixed.	- -	9	Carries a flag.	37	- -	53 57	1 38
Haisborough.*	Near Haisborough.	2	Fixed.	- -	17 15	Red.	187 100	77 33	52 49	1 31
Cromer.*	Foulness, near Cromer.	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	22	Stone.	274	30	52 55 30	1 19 30
Chapel.*	Hunstanton Point.	1	Fixed.	- -	14	White.	95	30	52 57 8	0 29 41
Lynn Well, floating.	Off the hook of the Long Sand, Lynn Deeps.	3	Fixed.	- -	10	Carries a flag.	32	- -	53 1	0 38
Dudgeon, floating.	Dudgeon Shoal.	1	Fixed.	- -	10	Carries a flag.	33	- -	53 16	0 57
Spurn, floating.	Off Spurn Point, River Humber.	1	Fixed.	- -	9	Carries a flag.	30	- -	53 34	0 13
Spurn.*	Spurn Point.	2	Fixed.	- -	15 13	Highest dark brick, lowest dark red.	100 50	90 44	53 34 44	0 7
Flamborough.*	Flamborough Head.	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	18	White.	- -	72	54 7	0 5 W.
Scarborough.	Vincent's Pier Head.	1	Fixed.	- -	11	White.	41	36	54 17	0 22
Whitby.	West Pier Head.	1	Fixed.	- -	13	Yellowish stone.	66	60	54 30	0 37
Sunderland.	North and South Piers.	2	Fixed.	- -	N. 20 S. 0	Yellow.	73 32	64 28	54 55	1 32

English Light-Houses—continued.

Name of Light.	Place whereon Light-house stands.	Number of Lights	Description of Light.	Time of Revolution or Flash.	Distance in Miles at which easily seen in clear Weather.	Colour of Light-house, or its Appearance by Day.	Height of Lantern above the Sea at High Water, in Feet.	Height of Building in Feet.	Position. N Latitude.	Position. Longitude.
Tynn	Front of Dock Way Square; lowest near Clifford's Fort.	2	Fixed.	- -	13	White.	122	49	° ′ ″ 55 0	° ′ ″ 1 25 W.
					15		77	76		
Tynemouth Castle.*	Tynemouth Castle Yard.	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	19	Stone.	148	62	55 1	1 25
Outer Fern.	Longstone Rock.	1	Revolving.	Every ½ minute.	16	Stone.	74	71	55 39	1 36
Inner Fern.	S. W. point of Great Fern Island.	2	Highest revolving, lowest fixed.	Every ½ minute.	14	Stone.	Revolving 81, the other 48.	28	55 37	1 48
					10			16		
Berwick.	East end of the Pier.	2	Fixed.	- -	13	Stone.	44	- -	55 46	1 58
St. Bees.*	St. Bees Head.	1	Fixed.	- -	24	White.	328	26	54 31	3 35
Walsey.*	South Point of Walsey Island.	1	Revolving.	Every 5 minutes.	15	Stone.	70	60	54 4	3 12
Formby.*	Formby Point.	1	- - -	- - -	12	- - -	- - -	- - -	53 36 21	3 3 54
Black Rock.	Rock Point, entrance of the Mersey.	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	15	White.	86	75	53 36 45	3 3 36
Leasowe.	On the shore, between the Mersey and Dee.	1	Fixed.	- -	16	White.	118	113	53 34 45	3 7 27
Bidston.*	Bid-ton Hill.	1	Fixed.	- -	20	Stone.	300	50	53 24	3 4
Upper Hoylake.	Hoylake.	1	Fixed.	- -	10	Brick.	58	20	53 24	3 11
Lower Hoylake.	Hoylake.	1	Fixed.	- -	9	Brick.	34	19		
Liverpool, floating.	At the entrance of the Horse Channel.	3	Fixed.	- -	9	Carries a flag.	26	- -	53 22	3 17
Air.*	Point of Air.	2	Fixed.	- -	11	Striped red and white, horizontally. Brick.	49	49	53 21 26	3 19 14
					7		13			
Lynas.*	Point Lynas, Isle of Anglesea.	2	Fixed.	- -	13		89	19	53 25	4 17 19
Skerries.*	Island of Skerries.	1	Fixed.	- -	20	White.	117	54	53 25	4 36
South Stack.*	South Stack Rock, off the north-west point of Holyhead Island.	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	19	Stone.	201	69	53 18	4 41
Bardsey.*	Bardsey Island.	1	Flashing.	- -	17	Stone.	141	79	52 45	4 47
Smalls.*	Smalls Rock.	1	Fixed.	- -	15	Red.	70	48	51 43	5 43
Milford.*	St. Ann's Point.	2	Fixed.	- -	19	White, red top.	192	44	51 41	5 10 25
					17		159	17		
Caldy.*	Caldy Island, south point.	1	Fixed.	- -	20	Grey stone, red top.	210	40	51 37 56	4 40 37
Mumbles.*	Mumbles Head.	1	Fixed.	- -	15	White.	14	32	51 34 3	3 58 10
Swansea Pier.	Western Pier Head.	1	Fixed.	- -	9	White, black top.	28	20	51 37	3 56
Nash.*	Nash Point.	1	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	51 24	3 33
Usk.*	West side of the entrance to the Usk.	1	Fixed.	- -	10	Stone.	39	32	51 32	3 0
Flatholm.*	Flatholm Island, south point.	1	Fixed.	- -	17	White, red top.	156	77	51 22 35	3 7 3
Lundy.*	Lundy Island.	2	Upper revolving, lower fixed.	Every 45 seconds.	30	Stone.	543	79	51 10 7	4 40 15
					22		470	6		

Those marked * are what are called first-class lights.

II. SCOTCH LIGHT-HOUSES.

Inchkeith.*	Highest part of Inchkeith Island.	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	20	Stone.	220	45	56 2	3 3 W.
Isle of May.*	Highest part of Isle of May.	1	Fixed.	- -	21	Stone.	240	57	56 11	2 36
Bell Rock.*	Bell Rock.	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	14	White.	90	100	56 26	2 23
Dundee Ferry.	On the ferry piers.	2	Fixed.	- -	2½	White.	10	- -	56 29	2 53
							16			
Buttonness.*	Buttonness.	2	Fixed.	- -	9	White.	85	70	56 28	2 43
					12		95	60		
Arbroath.	Northern Pier.	1	Fixed.	- -	5	White.	15	- -	56 33	2 35
Montrose.	North side of the entrance.	2	Fixed.	- -	8	White.	35	- -	56 43	2 27
							45			
Aberdeen.	Head of the North Pier.	1	Fixed.	- -	4	Red.	30	- -	57 9	2 4
Girdleness.*	Girdleness.	1	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	57 8	2 2
Buchanness.*	Buchanness.	1	Flashing.	Every 5 seconds.	19	Stone.	120	100	57 29	1 46
Kinnaird.*	Kinnaird Head.	1	Fixed.	- -	16	Stone.	120	57	57 42	2 1
Tarbet.	Tarbetness.	1	Intermittent.	Every 3 minutes.	19	Stone.	175	120	57 51	3 43
Dunnet.*	Dunnet Head.	1	Fixed.	- -	24	Stone.	340	45	58 40	3 22
Pentland Skerries.*	Largest of the islands.	2	Fixed.	- -	12	Stone.	100	50	58 41 58	3 55
					15		80	10		
Start.*	Start Point, Sandy Island, Orkney.	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	15	Stone.	100	90	59 16	2 24
Sumburgh.*	Sumburgh Head, Shetland.	1	Fixed.	- -	24	Stone.	300	35	59 51	1 18
Cape Wrath.*	Cape Wrath.	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	24	White.	400	50	58 37	5 0
Glas.*	North-east point of Island Glas, Harris Isles.	1	Fixed.	- -	18	Stone.	120	20	57 52	6 32
Bare Head.*	Berneray Island.	--	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	- - -	56 48	7 26
	Lewis Islands.									
Lismore.*	Mouedale Island, Argyll.	1	Fixed.	- -	18	- - -	108	- -	56 30	5 28

Scotch Light-Houses—*continued.*

Name of Light.	Place wherein Light-house stands.	Number of Lights.	Description of Light.	Time of Revolution or Flash.	Distance in Miles at which only seen in clear Weather.	Colour of Light house, or its Appearance by Day.	Height of Lantern above the Sea at High Water, in Feet.	Height of Building in Feet.	Position. N. Latitude.	Position. Longitude.
									° ′ ″	° ′ ″
Rhinns of Ilay.*	Oversay Island, near Ilay.	1	Flashing.	Every 12 seconds.	19	Stone.	150	80	55 41	6 29
Kintyre.*	S. W. Headland of Kintyre.	1	Fixed.	- -	22	Stone.	297	23	55 19	5 49
Pladda.*	Pladda Island, off S. W. point of Arran Island.	2	Fixed.	- -	15 18	Stone.	120 77	80 27	55 25	5 9
Cumbrea.*	Little Cumbrea Island.	1	Fixed.	- -	16	White.	106	36	55 43	4 55
Toward.*	Toward Point.	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	11	White.	58	44	55 53	4 57
Clough.* Cornwall.*	Clough Point. Cornwall Point.	1 2	Fixed. Revolving.	- - Every 2 minutes.	12 18	White. Stone.	78 112	78 96	55 58 55 1	4 52 5 10
Mull of Galloway.*	South point of Wigtonshire.	1	Intermittent.	Every 3 minutes.	21	Stone.	285	70	54 38	4 52
Scarrens.*	Scarrens Point.	1	Fixed.	- -	19	White.	80	- -	54 53	3 57

IRISH LIGHT-HOUSES.

Cape Clear.*	Cape Clear Island.	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	23	White.	456	42	51 25 3	9 29 30
Kinsale.*	Old Head of Kinsale.	1	Fixed.	- -	22	White.	294	42	51 36 45	8 32 16
Cork Harbour.*	Roche's Point.	1	Fixed.	- -	14	White.	92	26	51 48	8 14
Hook Tower.*	Hook Head, E. side of entrance to Waterford.	1	Fixed.	- -	17	White.	130	110	52 7 25	6 55 58
Duncannon.	Duncannon Fort, entrance to Waterford, E. side.	2	Fixed.	- -	6	White.	40	25	52 13	6 36
Dunmore Harbour.	Pier Head, W. side of entrance to Waterford.	1	Fixed.	- -	8	White.	44	26	52 10	6 58
Coningbeg, or Saltee, floating light.*	Off Coningbeg Rock.	2	Fixed.	- -	9	Carries a flag.	25	21	52 3	6 37
Tuskar.*	Tuskar Rock.	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	15	White.	101	- -	52 12 9	6 12 37
Arklow floating light.*	South end of Arklow Bank.	1	- -	- -	8	Carries a flag.	25	- -	52 44	5 48
Wicklow.*	Wicklow Head.	2	Fixed.	- -	21	White.	260	52	52 58	5 57
Kingstown Harbour.	East Pier.	1	Revolving.	Every minute.	16 9	Brown.	121 31	29 19	53 18	6 9
North Wall.	End of North Dublin Quay.	1	Fixed.	- -	9	Granite.	33	26	53 21	6 15
Poolbeg.*	End of S. wall, at the entrance to Dublin Harbour.	2	Fixed.	- -	18	Stone.	66	63	53 20 36	6 10 13
Kish, floating light.*	Off north point of Kish Bank.	3	Fixed.	- -	- -	Carries a flag.	26	- -	53 19	5 58
Howth Bailly.*	Howth Bailly Point, N. side of Dublin Bay.	1	Fixed.	- -	17	White.	114	42	53 23	6 4
Howth Harbour.	End of East Pier.	1	Fixed.	- -	11	White.	42	27	53 23	6 6
Balbriggan Harbour.	Pier, larboard hand in entering.	1	Fixed.	- -	11	White.	35	35	53 37	6 12
Carlingford.*	Haulbowling Rock.	2	Fixed.	- -	15	White.	101	111	54 1	6 6
Carlingford Lough.	Greenore Point.	1	Revolving.	Every 45 seconds.	9	White.	30	25	54 1 58	6 7 26
South Rock.*	South Rock.	1	Revolving.	Every minute and half.	13	White.	68	60	54 24	5 36
Copeland.*	Small Copeland Island.	1	Fixed.	- -	15	White.	131	52	54 42	5 32
Maidens.*	Maiden Rocks, north and south.	2,	Fixed.	- -	14 10	White.	84 84	60 60	54 56	5 45
Inistrahul.*	Inistrahul Island.	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	18	White.	167	36	55 26	7 14
Lough Swilly.*	Fannet Point.	1	Fixed.	- -	14	White.	90	36	55 26 25	7 39 14
Tory Island.*	Tory Island, north point.	1	Fixed.	- -	16	Stone.	122	63	55 16 26	8 15
Arranmore.	North point of Arran Island.	1	Fixed.	- -	20	White.	209			
Killybeg.	St. John's Point.	1	Fixed.	- -	14	White.	104	41	54 36	8 26
Eagle Islands.*	Eagle Island.									
Innisgort.*	Innisgort. (Clew Bay.)	1	Fixed.	- -	10	White.	86	36	53 51	9 40
Clare Island.*	North point of Clare Island. (Clew Bay.)	1	Fixed.	- -	25	White.	467	36	53 50	9 53
Slyne Head.*	Slyne Head Island.	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	72		
Mutton Island.	Mutton Island, Galway Harbour.	1	Fixed.	- -	10	White.	30	36	53 16	9 2
Arran Island.	Summit of South Arran Island.	1	Revolving.	Every 3 minutes.	20	White.	498	97	53 7	9 40
Kilkadrean.	Kilkadrean Point, River Shannon.	1	Fixed.	- -	16	White.	133	38	52 35	9 40
Loophead, q.*	Loophead, North side of the River Shannon.	1	Fixed.	- -	22	White.	209	49	52 37	9 53
Ballig.*	Skellig Rocks.	2	Fixed.	- -	25 18	White.	378 178	96 36	51 46	10 39

ISLE OF MAN LIGHT-HOUSES.

Point of Ayr.*	Point Ayr, Isle of Man.	1	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	15	Stone.	106	80	54 29	4 25
Calf of Man.*	S. W. side of Calf Island.	2	Revolving.	Every 2 minutes.	24	Stone.	266 266	60 60	54 3	4 49
Douglas Harbour.	North Pier Head.	1	Fixed.	- -	9	Red.	26	27		

[The expense for maintaining light-houses in the United States amounted, in 1835, to $235,056 70; in 1836, to $283,759 35; in 1837, to $271,355 36; and, in 1838, to $301,521 08.

We take the following schedule of the light-houses and beacons in the United States, with the number of lamps in each, on the first day of January, 1838, from a report transmitted to Congress by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Schedule of the light-houses and beacons in the United States, with the number of lamps lighted in each on the first day of January, 1838.

Light-houses.	No. of lamps.
Maine.	
Portland	15
Seguin	14
Whitehead	10
Franklin island	10
Wood island	10
West Quoddy head	10
Petit Menan	8
Pond island	8
Burnt island	10
Libby island	10
Monhegan island	10
Owl's head	8
Moose-peake island	10
Matinicus rock (2 lights)	14
Pemaquid point	10
Dice's head	10
Cape Elizabeth (2 lights)	29
Baker's island	10
Hendrick's head	8
Mount-desert rock	10
Brown's head	8
Marshall's point	7
Goat island	7
Negro island	8
Fort point	8
New Hampshire.	
Portsmouth	11
White island	15
Whale's back	15
Boon island	12
Massachusetts.	
Boston	14
Nantucket	14
Nantucket beacon	8
Nantucket-harbour light	5
Thatcher's island (2 lights)	30
Baker's island (2 lights)	29
Plum island (2 lights)	20
Cape Cod	15
Cape Pogo	11
Plymouth (2 lights)	12
Wigwam point	6
Chatham (2 lights)	12
Scituate	15
Race point	10
Point Gammon	7
Holmes's hole	10
Tarpaulin cove	10
Bird island	10
Long-island head	11
Ten-pound island	8
Billingsgate island	8
Monamoy point	8
Sandy neck	10
Long point	10
Edgartown	10
Nobsque point	10
Dumpling rock	10
Gloucester point	10
Gay Head	10
Clark's point	10
Cutterhunk	10
Straits'-mouth island	6
Marblehead	10
Ned's point	11
Rhode Island.	
Newport	15
Watch hill	8
Point Judith	10
Goat island	8
Dutch island	8
Warwick neck	8
Nayat point	6
Block island (2 lights)	18
Poplar point	8
Vermont.	
Juniper island	10
Connecticut.	
New London	11
Falkner's island	12
Lynde point	7
Five-mile point	8
Fairweather island	8
Stratford point	10
Stonington	10
Norwalk island	10
Great Captain's island	10
Morgan's point	10
New York.	
Sandy Hook	18
Sandy Hook, 2 beacon-lights consume equal to	13
Eaton's neck	12
Sand's point	11
Old-field point	10
Fire-island inlet	18
Throg's point	11
Stony point	7
Prince's bay	11
Fort Tompkins	12
Neversink, highlands of, (2 lights)	31
Coxsuckie	5
Four-mile point	6
Stuyvesant	5
Saugerties	5
Montauk	13
Little-Gull island	14
Plumb island	10
Buffalo	14
Fort Niagara	9
Galloo island	15
Oswego	7
Genesee	10
Sodus bay	10
Tibbit's point	9
Horse island	8
Ogdensburg	10
Dunkirk	13
Stony point	10
New Jersey.	
Barnegat shoals	11
Pennsylvania.	
Presque-isle	10
Presque-isle beacon	4
Delaware.	
Cape Henlopen	13
Cape-Henlopen beacon	10
Cape May	15
Mahon's ditch	10
Bombay hook	10
Mispillion creek	6
Christiana creek	10
Maryland.	
Bodkin island	13
North point (2 lights)	18
Thomas's point	13
Pool's island	13
Smith's island	10
Concord point	9
Cove point	13
Point Lookout	11
Lazaretto point	11
Clay island	10
Piney point	10
Turkey point	11
Little Watt's island	11
Virginia.	
Cape Henry	15
Old Point Comfort	10
Smith's point	15
New Point Comfort	9
Smith's island	15
Back-river point	10
Assateague island	11
North Carolina.	
Bald head	15
Federal point	11
Cape Hatteras	18
Pamlico point	10
Ocracoke	15
Cape Lookout	15
Roanoke marshes	10
South Carolina.	
Charleston	10
Racoon key	15
North island	7
Georgia.	
Tybee	15
Tybee beacon	6
St. Simon's island	6
Sapelo island	15
Beacons on Wolf island (2)	12
Cumberland island	14
Ohio.	
Sandusky	12
Grand river	9
Grand-river beacon	4
Cleveland	11
Cleveland beacon-light	4
Turtle island	11
Port Clinton	6
Conneaut-river beacon	4
Cunningham-harbour beacon	3
Huron-river beacon	6
Black-river beacon	
Ashtabula beacon	
Louisiana.	
Frank's island	20
South point (on Gordon's island)	14
Point Defer	15
Pleasonton's island	10
Florida.	
St. Augustine	10
Dry Tortugas	15
Sand key	14
Whitehead-point (Key West)	15
Pensacola	10
St. Mark's	15
St. John's river	14
St. George's island	13
Michigan.	
Port Gratiot	10
Otter creek	9
Bois Blanc	13
St. Joseph's river	11
Outer Thunder-bay island	11
Chicago	13
Pottawatamie	11
Alabama.	
Mobile	21
Choctaw point	11
Mississippi.	
Cat island	10
Pass Christian	9
Round island	11
	2147

Am. Ed.

LIMA, the capital of Peru, on the west coast of South America, in lat. 12° 2′ 45″ S., lon. 77° 7′ 15″ W. Population variously estimated; but may probably amount to from 50,000 to 60,000.

Callao, the port of Lima, is about 6 miles W. from the latter. The harbour lies to the north of a projecting point of land, in the angle formed by the small uninhabited island of San Lorenzo. Previously to the emancipation of Peru, and the other *ci-devant* Spanish provinces in the New World, Lima was the grand *entrepôt* for the trade of all the west coast of South America; but a considerable portion of the foreign trade of Peru is now carried on through Buenos Ayres, and the former is also in the habit of importing European goods at second hand from Valparaiso and other ports in Chili. The exports from Lima consist principally of copper and tin, silver, cordovan leather, and soap, vicunna wool, quinquina, &c. The imports consist principally of woollen and cotton stuffs, and hardware, from England; silks, brandy, and wine, from Spain and France; stock-fish from the United States, indigo from Mexico, Paraguay herb from Paraguay, spices, quicksilver, &c. Timber for the construction of ships and houses is brought from Guayaquil. The official value of the different articles of British produce and manufacture exported to Peru in 1731, amounted to 624,639*l.*, besides 21,392*l.* of foreign and colonial merchandise. The official value of the imports into Great Britain from Peru during the same year was 42,377*l.*

Monies, Weights, and Measures, same as those of Spain; for which, see CADIZ.

LIME (Ger. *Kalk*; Fr. *Chaux*; It. *Calcina, Calce*; Sp. *Cal*; Rus. *Izwest*), an earthy substance of a white colour, moderately hard, but which is easily reduced to powder, either by sprinkling it with water or by trituration. It has a hot burning taste, and in some measure corrodes and destroys the texture of those animal bodies to which it is applied. Specific gravity, 2·3. Calcium, the metallic basis of lime, was discovered by Sir H. Davy.

There are few parts of the world in which lime does not exist. It is found purest in limestone, marble, and chalk. None of these substances is, however, strictly speaking, lime; but they are all easily converted into it by a well-known process; that is, by placing them in kilns or furnaces constructed for the purpose, and keeping them for some time in a white heat,—a process called the burning of lime.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

The use of lime, as mortar in building, has prevailed from the earliest antiquity, and is nearly universal. It is also very extensively used in this country, and in an inferior degree in some parts of the Continent and of North America, as a manure to fertilise land. But it is a curious fact that the use of lime as a manure is entirely a European practice; and that its employment in that way has never been so much as dreamed of in any part of Asia or Africa. Lime is of much importance in the arts, as a flux in the smelting of metals, in the shape of chlorate in bleaching, in tanning, &c. Lime and limestones may be carried and landed coastwise without any customs document whatever. Its consumption in this country is very great.

LIME (Fr. *Citronier*; Ger. *Citrone*; Hind. *Neemboo*), a species of lemon (*Citrus medica*, var. *b* C.), which grows in abundance in most of the West India islands, and is also to be met with in some parts of France, in Spain, Portugal, and throughout India, &c. The lime is smaller than the lemon, its rind is usually thinner, and its colour, when the fruit arrives at a perfect state of maturity, is a fine bright yellow. It is uncommonly juicy, and its flavour is esteemed superior to that of the lemon; it is, besides, more acid than the latter, and to a certain degree acrid.

LINEN (Ger. *Linnen, Leinwand*; Du. *Lynwaat*; Fr. *Toile*; It. *Tela, Panno lino*; Sp. *Lienza, Tela de lino*; Rus. *Polotno*), a species of cloth made of thread of flax or hemp. The linen manufacture has been prosecuted in England for a very long period; but though its progress has been considerable, particularly of late years, it has not been so great as might have been anticipated. This is partly, perhaps, to be ascribed to the efforts that have been made to bolster up and encourage the manufacture in Ireland and Scotland, and partly to the rapid growth of the cotton manufacture—fabrics of cotton having to a considerable extent supplanted those of linen.

In 1698, both houses of parliament addressed his Majesty (William III.), representing that the progress of the woollen manufacture of Ireland was such as to prejudice that of this country; and that it would be for the public advantage, were the former discouraged, and the linen manufacture established in its stead. His Majesty replied,—"I shall do all that in me lies to *discourage the woollen manufacture in Ireland*, and encourage the linen manufacture, and to promote the trade of England!" We may remark, by the way, that nothing can be more strikingly characteristic of the illiberal and erroneous notions that were then entertained with respect to the plainest principles of public economy, than this address and the answer to it. But whatever the people of Ireland might think of their sovereign deliberately avowing his determination to exert himself to crush a manufacture in which they had begun to make some progress, government had no difficulty in prevailing upon the legislature of that country to second their views, by prohibiting the exportation of all woollen goods from Ireland, except to England, where prohibitory duties were already laid on their importation! It is but justice, however, to the parliament and government of England, to state that they have never discovered any backwardness to promote the linen trade of Ireland; which, from the reign of William III. downwards, has been the object of regulation and

encouragement. It may, indeed, be doubted whether the regulations have been always the most judicious that might have been devised, and whether Ireland has really gained any thing by the forced extension of the manufacture. Mr. Young and Mr. Wakefield, two of the highest authorities as to all matters connected with Ireland, contend that the spread of the linen manufacture has not really been advantageous. And it seems to be sufficiently established, that though the manufacture might not have been so widely diffused, it would have been in a sounder and healthier state had it been less interfered with.

Bounties.—Besides premiums and encouragements of various kinds, bounties were granted on the exportation of linen for a very long period down to 1830. In 1829, for example, notwithstanding it had been very much reduced, the bounty amounted to about 300,000*l.*, or to nearly *one seventh* part of the entire real or declared value of the linen exported that year! It is not easy to imagine a greater abuse. A bounty of this sort, instead of promoting the manufacture, rendered those engaged in it comparatively indifferent to improvements; and though it had been otherwise, what is to be thought of the policy of persisting for more than a century in supplying the foreigner with linens for less than they cost? We have not the least doubt, that were the various sums expended in well-meant but useless attempts to force this manufacture, added together, with their accumulations at simple interest, they would be found sufficient to yield an annual revenue, little, if at all, inferior to the entire value of the linens we now send abroad. And after all, the business never began to do any real good, or to take firm root, till the manufacture ceased to be a domestic one, and was carried on principally in mills, and by the aid of machinery,—a change which the old forcing system tended to counteract. The only real and effectual legislative encouragement the manufacture has ever met with, has been the reduction of the duties on flax and hemp, and the relinquishing of the absurd attempts to force their growth at home.

Exports of Linen from Ireland, &c.—The following Table, which we regret the parliamentary accounts do not furnish the means of continuing to the present day, gives

An Account of the Quantity and Value of the Linens exported from Ireland, from 1800 to 1826, both inclusive.

Years.	To Great Britain.	To Foreign Parts.	Total.	Amount of Bounty paid in Ireland, on Linen exported to Foreign Parts.		
	Yards	Yards.	Yards.	£	s.	d.
1800	31,973,039	2,585,899	34,563,866			
1802	33,246,913	2,368,911	35,615,854			
1804	39,837,101	3,303,528	43,140,629	10,545	2	2
1806	35,315,392	2,860,961	38,176,341	15,666	4	6
1808	41,958,719	2,033,367	43,992,086	6,740	15	0
1810	32,584,545	4,313,725	36,898,270	16,448	19	9
1812	33,320,767	2,524,686	35,845,453	11,548	3	4
1814	39,539,443	3,463,793	43,003,236	17,231	14	11
1815	37,995,359	5,496,206	43,483,565	17,430	17	3
1816	42,330,118	3,399,511	45,729,629	12,062	6	4
1817	50,286,843	6,941,733	56,230,575	21,524	15	4½
1818	44,746,354	6,178,954	50,925,308	28,848	6	2
1819	34,957,396	2,683,855	37,641,251	16,177	8	2½
1820	40,318,270	3,891,948	43,613,218	11,928	9	11
1821	45,519,509	4,011,630	49,531,139	18,278	19	2½
1823	43,226,710	3,374,993	46,601,703	17,112	9	2
1823	48,066,591	3,169,006	51,235,597	17,765	5	10
1824	46,446,950	3,026,427	49,493,377	17,114	13	10½
1825	52,559,678	2,553,587	55,113,265	12,015	9	6½
1826	The exportations to Great Britain cannot be ascertained for these years, the cross channel trade having been assimilated by law to a coasting traffic.	2,726,297.	- - -	10,249	17	9
1827		4,284,506	- - -	12,114	0	8
1828		2,214,911	- - -	9,494	7	5
1829		2,386,923	- - -	6,686	1	11

Of these exports, more than 12-13ths have been to Great Britain. The total average export, during the 3 years ending with 1825, was 51,947,413 yards, of which 49,031,073 came to this country; the exports to *all* other parts being only 2,916,340. Since 1825, the trade between Ireland and Great Britain has been placed on the footing of a coasting trade, so that linens are exported and imported without any specific entry at the Custom-house.

Scotch Linen Manufacture.—In 1727, a Board of Trustees was established in Scotland for the superintendence and improvement of the linen manufacture. It is not easy to suppose that the institution of this Board could of itself have been of any material service; but considerable bounties and premiums being at the same time given on the production and exportation of linen, the manufacture went on increasing. Still, however, it did not increase so fast as cotton and some others, which have not received any adventitious support, until machinery began to be extensively employed in the manufacture; so that it is very doubtful whether the influence of the bounty has been so great as it would at first sight appear to have been. The regulations as to the manufacture, after having been long objected to by those concerned, were abolished in 1822; and the bounties have now ceased. We subjoin

An Account of the Quantity and Value of the Linen Cloth manufactured and stamped for Sale in Scotland during the Ten Years ending with 1822, being the latest Period to which it can be made up.

Years.	Yards.	Value.	Average Price per Yard.	Years.	Yards.	Value.	Average Price per Yard.
		L. s. d.	*d.*			*L.* s. d.	*d.*
1813	19,799,146 1-4	977,362 1 7 1-2	11-8	1818	31,878,100 1-2	1,238,528 8 0 1-2	9-6
1814	28,126,620 1-4	1,353,574 16 10 1-2	11-5	1819	29,334,428 1-4	1,157,923 4 11	9-4
1815	29,056,016 1-4	1,405,782 15 9	10-5	1820	27,269,011 1-4	1,095,708 16 5 1-4	9-4
1816	24,112,045 1-2	1,093,674 1 11 3-4	9-4	1821	30,473,461 1-2	1,232,038 15 4 3-4	9-7
1817	23,784,987 1-4	1,082,899 3 8 1-4	9-1	1822	36,268,430 1-2	1,366,295 19 11 1-2	9-2

This account is not, however, of much use. The stamp was only affixed to linen on which a bounty was paid, that is, on linen intended for exportation. Linen manufactured for home use, or intended for private sale, was not stamped.—(*Headrick's Survey of Forfar*, p. 506.)

Dundee is the grand seat of the Scotch linen manufacture; and its progress there during the last few years has been so extraordinary, that the following details in respect to it may not be unacceptable.

The manufacture appears to have been introduced into Dundee some time towards the beginning of last century; but, for a lengthened period, its progress was comparatively slow. In 1745, only 74 tons of flax were imported, without any hemp; the shipments of linen cloth during the same year being estimated at about 1,000,000 yards, no mention being made either of sail-cloth or bagging. In 1791, the imports of flax amounted to 2,444 tons, and those of hemp to 299 tons; the exports that year being 7,842,000 yards linen, 280,000 yards sail-cloth, and 65,000 do. bagging. From this period the trade began to extend itself gradually, though not rapidly. Previously to the peace of 1815, no great quantity of machinery was employed in spinning; but about this period, in consequence, partly and principally of the improvement of machinery, and its extensive introduction into the manufacture, and partly of the greater regularity with which supplies of the raw material were obtained from the Northern powers, the trade began rapidly to increase. Its progress has, indeed, been quite astonishing; the imports of flax having increased from about 3,000 tons in 1814, to 15,000 tons in 1830! The exports of manufactured goods have increased in a corresponding proportion. During the year ended the 31st of May, 1831, there were imported into Dundee [illegible]110 tons of flax, and 3,082 do. hemp; and there were shipped off 366,817 pieces, being about [illegible],000,000 yards, of linen; 85,522 pieces, or about 3,500,000 yards, of sail-cloth; and [illegible]t 1,000,000 yards of bagging—in all, about 57,500,000 yards! —(See an excellent article on this subject in the *Dundee Chronicle*, 16th of October, 1832.) In the year ending the 31st of May, 1833, the imports of flax amounted to 18,777 tons, besides 3,380 tons of hemp. The shipments of linen, sail-cloth, &c. have increased in a corresponding ratio; and were valued, in the year now mentioned, at about 1,600,000*l.*

It appears, therefore, that the shipments of linen from this single port are quite as great as those from all Ireland; and while the manufacture has been very slowly progressive in the latter, it has increased at Dundee even more rapidly than the cotton manufacture has increased at Manchester. It is not easy to give any satisfactory explanation of this wonderful progress. Something must be ascribed to the convenient situation of the port for obtaining supplies of the raw material; and more, perhaps, to the manufacture having been long established in the towns and villages of Strathmore, the Carse of Gowrie, and the northern parts of Fife, of which Dundee is the emporium. But these circumstances do not seem adequate to explain the superiority to which she has recently attained in this department; and, however unphilosophical it may seem, we do not really know that we can ascribe it to any thing else than a concurrence of fortunate accidents. Nothing, in fact, is so difficult to explain as the superiority to which certain towns frequently attain in particular departments of industry, without apparently possessing any peculiar facilities for carrying them on. But from whatever causes their pre-eminence may arise in the first instance, it is very difficult, when once they have attained it, for others to come into competition with them. They have, on their side, established connections, workmen of superior skill and dexterity in manipulation, improved machinery, &c. Recently, indeed, the advantages in favour of old establishments have been, to a considerable extent, neutralised by the prevalence of combinations amongst their workmen; but it is to be hoped that means may speedily be devised for obviating this formidable evil.

Value of the Manufacture. Number of Persons employed.—There are no means by which to form an accurate estimate of the entire value of the linen manufacture of Great Britain and Ireland. Dr. Colquhoun estimated it at 15,000,000*l.*; but there cannot be the shadow of a doubt that this is an absurd exaggeration. In the former edition of this work we expressed our conviction that it could not be valued at more than 10,000,000*l.*; but further investigation has satisfied us that even this estimate is very decidedly beyond the mark, and that the entire produce of the manufacture in the United Kingdom does not exceed 7,500,000*l.** Some very intelligent individuals, largely engaged in the trade, do not esti

* Sir F. M. Eden estimated the entire value of the linen manufacture of Great Britain, in 1800, at 2,000,000*l.*—(*Treatise on Insurance*, p. 76.)

mate it at so much; and we feel fully confident that this sum, if not much beyond, is at all events not within the mark. Now, if we set aside a third part of this sum for the value of the raw material, and 25 per cent. for profits, wages of superintendence, wear and tear of capital, coal, &c., we shall have 3,125,000*l.* to be divided as wages among those employed in the manufacture. And supposing each individual to earn, at an average, 18*l.* a year, the total number employed would be about 172,000. It may be thought, perhaps, that 18*l.* is too low an estimate for wages; and such, no doubt, would be the case, were not Ireland taken into the average. But as a great many persons are there employed in the manufacture at very low wages, we believe that 18*l.* is not very far from the mean rate.*

Linen Trade of the United Kingdom.—The following official statements show, in detail, the state of the import and export trade of the country in this department, in 1830, with the results for the subsequent years.

Account of the Quantities of Hemp and Flax, dressed and undressed, Hemp Tow, Flax Tow, and Linen Yarns, imported into Great Britain and Ireland, from Foreign Parts, in the year ended the 5th of January, 1831; distinguishing the Ports of Importation, and the Countries whence imported, together with the Real and Official Values thereof.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 534. Sess. 1832, *&c.*)

Ports of Importation.	Imports into Great Britain and Ireland from Foreign Parts in the Year ended 5th of January, 1831.		
	Hemp undressed.	Flax and Tow or Codilla of Hemp and Flax, dressed or undressed.	Linen Yarn.
England.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.
London	181,515	112,560	671
Rye	3		
Chichester	100		
Portsmouth	6,266		
Southampton		282	
Poole	1,607		
Lyme	5,587	31,419	
Exeter	5,457		
Plymouth	12,569	1,696	
Falmouth	2,705		
Truro	310		
Penzance	790		
Bridgewater	421		
Bristol	13,694	961	
Gloucester	459	41	
Newport	39		
Chester	471	125	
Liverpool	56,396	29,714	899
Lancaster	709	24,691	
Whitehaven	4,516	151	
Berwick	676	899	
Newcastle	13,419	13,896	196
Sunderland	12,597	21	
Stockton		11,450	
Hull	67,560	119,128	11,199
Selby		15,882	2
Grimsby	1,805		
Lynn	1,540		
Blackney and Clay	101		
Yarmouth	7,055		
Scotland.			
Leith	13,577	18,662	4,089
Borrowstones		5,089	
Grangemouth	1,083		
Kirkaldy	916	42,737	464
Dundee	41,119	305,962	809
Montrose	1,071	52,566	
Aberdeen	7,018	55,657	
Banff		894	
Inverness	6,981		
Thurso	728		
Stornoway	98		
Greenock	946	200	
Port Glasgow	4,587	2,578	
Glasgow	5,740	888	
Irvine	497		
Campbeltown	96		
Ireland.			
Dublin	3,818	6,282	
Waterford	1,841	648	
Cork	4,776	178	
Limerick	736		
Galway	810		
Londonderry	502		
Coleraine	147		
Belfast	7,240	4,160	1,888
Newry	451	20	
Dundalk	80	20	
Aggregate of the importations from foreign countries into the various ports of the United Kingdom	606,771	944,099	19,511
Exports from the U. K. during the same year	9,587	3,688	19,511
Left for home consumption	497,184	940,405	
Retained for home consumption in 1831	504,906	918,791	17,352
Ditto in 1832	778,646	964,969	13,564
Ditto in 1833	527,990	1,127,706	

Countries from which imported.	Imports into Great Britain and Ireland from Foreign Parts in the Year ended 5th of January, 1831.		
	Hemp undressed.	Flax and Tow or Codilla of Hemp and Flax, dressed or undressed.	Linen Yarn.
Great Britain.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.
Russia	441,818	686,562	6,443
Denmark		77	
Prussia	5,409	94,291	6,488
Germany		809	4,311
The Netherlands	86	118,988	86
France		80,178	
Italy	82,128	894	
Malta	6		
Sierra Leone and River Gambia	18		
Cape of Good Hope	814		
East India Company's territories	14,080		
Philippine Islands	50		
New South Wales		6,248	
United States of America	893	885	
Chili	9		
Guernsey and Jersey (foreign)	449	80	
Total	484,809	932,486	17,313
Ireland.			
Russia	19,980	7,988	
Prussia	1,818	708	1,818
Germany			6
The Netherlands		8,945	16
Italy	1,161		
Brazil	16		
Total	22,980	11,640	1,840
Aggregate of the importations into the United Kingdom from the various countries	606,771	944,099	19,511
Official value thereof, viz.	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*
Great Britain	411,882	1,923,428	104,539
Ireland	14,978	18,803	19,625
Total	427,764	1,942,231	124,164
Official value of exports	11,796	7,780	
Total official value of hemp and flax left for consumption in the United Kingdom, in 1830	415,980	1,934,511	124,164

* A vast number of persons in Ireland are only partly employed in the manufacture; but the above estimate supposes that the 172,000 individuals are wholly employed in it.

Account of the Quantity of Foreign Linens retained for Home Consumption in Great Britain, in the Year ended 5th of January, 1831.

Species of Linen.	Quantity retained for Home Consumption in Great Britain.	Species of Linen.	Quantity retained for Home Consumption in Great Britain.
Lawns, not French - - square yards	209 1-2	Damask and damask diaper - square yards	8,296 1-2
Plain linens and diaper unenumerated —		Drillings, ticks, and twilled linens —	296
Lawns, not French, plain linens and diapers unenumerated, and manufactures of linen, entered at value declared value	11,197l. 17s. 1d.	Sail-cloth - - - - pieces	21294
		Cambrics and French lawns, plain - pieces	37,979 1-4
		ditto bord. handkerchiefs —	25,107 3-4
		Sails - - - - declared value	480l. 10s. 10d.

Account exhibiting the Quantity of British and Irish Linen Cloth of all Sorts, separately exported from England, Scotland, and Ireland, during 1830; specifying the Quantities sent from each to the different Foreign Countries importing the same, with their Real or Declared Values, and the Bounty paid on Exportation

Countries to which exported.	England.		Scotland.		Ireland.*	United Kingdom.	
	British Linen.	Irish Linen.	British Linen.	Irish Linen.	Irish Linen.	Total Exports. British and Irish Linen.	Total Declared Value of Exports.
Europe.	*Yards.*	*Yards.*	*Yards.*	*Yards.*	*Yards.*	*Yards.*	*L. s. d.*
Russia - - -	5,946	-	306	-	-	6,452	230 4 3
Sweden - - -	140	-	-	-	-	140	8 15 9
Norway - - -	11,083	-	4,672	-	402	17,203	918 15 1
Denmark - - -	2,184	160	-	-	-	2,344	139 0 0
Germany - - -	70,256	78	5,783	-	-	76,456	3,869 12 1
The Netherlands - -	71,218	646	3,378	-	-	75,214	4,064 8 3
France - - -	102,798	300	-	-	-	103,948	11,138 14 0
Portugal, Azores and Madeira	772,412	102,645	254,703	-	20,207	1,140,505	96,003 11 10
Spain and the Canaries -	4,710,059	217,782	57,977	13,200	-	4,979,098	148,444 9 10
Gibraltar - - -	1,212,133	57,329	102,049	564	-	1,371,961	48,181 6 4
Italy - - -	577,904	15,919	-	-	1,500	595,323	24,541 6 10
Malta - - -	60,155	14,014	3,360	-	-	77,529	4,209 19 4
Ionian Islands - -	14,824	680	-	-	-	15,504	1,024 2 2
Turkey - - -	40,550	5,118	-	-	-	45,668	2,858 6 0
Isles Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man - -	254,286	11,994	2,715	-	3,923	253,824	14,668 12 0
	7,896,252	426,411	299,516	13,954	25,911	8,482,046	380,697 17 6
Asia. - -	474,794	20,810	124,713	230	850	621,506	36,240 8 1
Africa. - -	348,419	7,120	2,480	-	-	662,970	24,534 11 3
America.							
British Northern colonies -	574,783	95,365	1,368,139	48,215	185,813	2,215,089	91,949 11 1
British West Indies -	5,068,741	815,253	3,294,327	180,850	1,076,088	10,436,809	822,837 9 7
Foreign West Indies -	2,711,748	631,746	2,632,826	66,349	-	6,052,669	152,130 8 10
United States - - -	4,160,052	4,463,685	10,988,224	28,106	1,214,409	20,854,776	696,787 18 6
Brazil - - - -	3,792,904	1,050,918	1,221,418	11,198	79,946	6,094,312	175,317 11 6
Mexico - - - -	1,567,758	1,948,110	-	-	-	3,473,909	134,814 2 0
Columbia - - - -	943,052	2,330	516,209	2,091	-	1,464,682	33,625 5 10
Peru - - - -	243,347	467,998	-	-	-	761,245	21,865 0 0
Chili - - - -	85,744	75,643	-	-	-	164,307	7,970 4 6
States of the Rio de la Plata -	407,581	23,100	275,559	87,230	-	793,840	31,393 0 1
Total - -	28,129,651	10,448,997	20,501,956	968,692	2,642,967	61,919,963	2,017,775 11 10†
Number of yards of linen upon which bounty was paid in the year ending 5th of Jan. 1831 -	26,183,749	7,849,667	20,992,010	915,992	1,921,879	55,813,806	
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	
Amount of bounty paid thereon	99,978 1 5½	23,146 7 11½	83,968 18 8	953 14 3	5,023 19 2	183,110 1 5½	

For the quantity and value of linens exported during 1836, and 1837, see Table on the following page.

Consumption of Foreign Linens.—It appears from the second of the foregoing accounts, that the consumption of foreign linens in this country is quite inconsiderable; the real or declared value of those entered for home consumption, in 1830, could hardly amount to 20,000*l.*

Regulations as to the Linen Manufacture.—Any person, native or foreigner, may, without paying any thing, set up in any place, privileged or not, corporate or not, any branch of the linen manufacture; and foreigners practising the same shall, on taking the oath of allegiance, &c., be entitled to all the privileges of natural born subjects.—(15 *Chs.* 2. c. 15.)

Persons affixing stamps to foreign linens in imitation of the stamps affixed to those of Scotland or Ireland, shall forfeit 5*l.* for each offence; and persons exposing to sale or packing up any foreign linens as the manufacture of Great Britain or Ireland, shall forfeit the same, and 5*l.* for each piece of linen so exposed to sale or packed up.—(17 *Geo.* 2. c. 30.)

Any person stealing to the value of 10*l.* any linen, wool[illegible]lk, or cotton goods, whilst exposed during any stage of the manufacture in any building, field, or other place, shall, upon conviction, be liable at the discretion of the court to be transported beyond seas for life, or for any term not less than 7 years, or to be imprisoned for any term not exceeding 4 years, and, if a male, to be once, twice, or thrice publicly or privately whipped, as the court shall think fit.—(7 & 8 *Geo.* 4. c. 29. § 14.)

LIQUORICE (Ger. *Sussholz*; Fr. *Réglisse, Racine douce*; It. *Regolizia, Logorizia, Liquirizia*; Sp. *Regaliz Orozuz*), a perennial plant (*Glycirrhiza glabra*), a native of the south of Europe, but cultivated to some extent in England, particularly at Mitcham in Surrey. Its root, which is its only valuable part, is long, slender, fibrous, of a yellow colour, and when fresh very juicy. The liquorice grown in England is fit for use at the end of 3 years; the roots, when taken up, are either immediately sold to the brewers' druggists, or to common druggists, by whom they are applied to different purposes, or they are packed in sand, like carrots or potatoes, till wanted.

* No British linen sent from Ireland.

† The declared value of the linens exported in 1831 was 2,451,704*l.*

Account of the Quantity and Value of Linen manufactured Goods and Linen Yarn exported from the United Kingdom in 1836 and 1837; specifying the Countries to which they were exported, and the Quantity and Value sent to each.

Countries to which exported.	1836.					1837.				
	Linen Manufactures.			Linen Yarn.		Linen Manufactures.			Linen Yarn.	
	Entered by the Yard.		Thread, Tapes, and Small Wares.			Entered by the Yard.		Thread, Tapes, and Small Wares.		
	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.	Declared Value.	Quantity.	Declared Value.
	Yards.	£.	£.	Lbs.	£.	Yards.	£.	£.	Lbs.	£.
Russia	4,477	378	89	1,940	143	9,070	1,013	64	3,032	219
Sweden	1,743	97	11	740	60	2,760	704	-	2,662	207
Norway	20,636	1,227	270	798	61	11,438	608	962	228	16
Denmark	12,615	798	-	8	1	13,889	778	5		
Prussia										
Germany	191,728	17,608	7,037	316,794	26,210	205,028	16,932	6,978	280,039	25,000
Holland	79,172	4,917	1,158	124,476	7,838	66,018	4,103	1,978	234,146	15,406
Belgium	125,476	11,403	233	8,080	2,570	85,927	8,200	479	586,526	38,576
France	1,998,186	118,686	722	4,012,141	276,943	3,368,338	142,812	1,760	7,010,988	461,907
Portugal, Azores, & Madeira	619,941	23,275	14	-	-	1,164,264	31,157	12		
Spain and the Canaries	6,964,619	209,581	159	161	69	4,475,088	167,189	1,527	994	93
Gibraltar	389,148	27,576	40	200	20	1,321,20 -	30,595	403		
Italy	611,255	45,814	761	65,439	3,612	442,029	33,774	94	82,818	4,560
Malta	30,165	1,467	203	-	-	61,659	2,723	145		
Ionian Islands	22,696	1,207	180	-	-	24,234	1,445	908		
Turkey and Continental Greece	66,856	4,821	-	-	-	108,364	5,629	10		
Morea and Greek Islands	737	30	-	-	-	4,677	197	12		
Cape of Good Hope	652,874	24,814	1,483	-	-	900,510	28,182	852		
Other Parts of Africa	262,198	14,616	270	-	-	276,412	14,948	1		
East Indies and China	804,436	44,165	574	-	-	774,843	54,984	681		
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	254,161	24,266	1,686	-	-	1,088,289	43,088	926		
British North American Colonies	2,207,031	107,504	13,264	-	-	2,267,426	98,017	3,459	5,095	376
British West Indies	11,325,000	401,463	3,378	2,011	205	12,321,446	370,144	5,189	2,160	170
Foreign West Indies	3,960,024	140,464	5,324	-	-	4,581,470	125,613	5,315		
United States of America	33,637,630	1,639,349	43,584	2,433	126	13,495,453	582,779	21,318	13,993	1,100
Mexico	691,538	17,158	34	-	-	1,628,738	65,972	30		
Guatemala										
Columbia										
Brazil	1,467,498	85,206	73	-	-	1,205,589	66,316	165		
States of the Rio de la Plata	5,696,997	193,997	1,924	-	-	4,655,711	121,142	1,557		
Chili	794,772	27,844	360	-	-	1,477,393	42,581	636		
Peru	926,299	29,217	30	-	-	1,237,167	48,751	330		
	719,715	32,306	-	-	-	1,462,553	59,629	445		
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	280,596	17,073	216	56	10	313,076	15,861	153	2,240	93
Total	92,068,760	3,238,031	86,294	4,574,504	318,773	58,496,333	2,069,425	64,120	3,373,180	479,307

LIQUORICE JUICE (*Succus Liquoritiæ*), popularly *black sugar*, the inspissated juice of the roots just mentioned. Very little of this extract is prepared in Britain, by far the larger part of our supply being imported from Spain and Sicily. The juice obtained by crushing the roots in a mill, and subjecting them to the press, is slowly boiled till it becomes of a proper consistency, when it is formed into rolls of a considerable thickness, which are usually covered with bay leaves. This is the state in which we import it. Most part of it is afterwards redissolved, purified, and cast into small cylindrical rolls of about the thickness of a goose quill, when it is called *refined liquorice*. It is then of a glossy black colour, brittle, having a sweet mucilaginous taste. It is used in the *materia medica*, particularly in coughs, colds, &c.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*; *Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

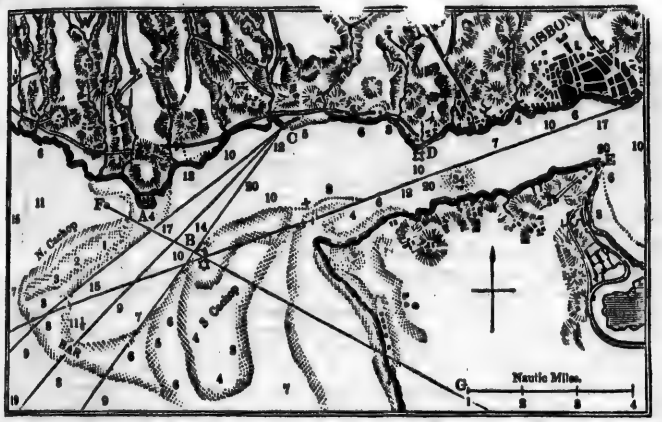
The imports in 1831 and 1832 amounted, at an average to 7,321 cwt. a year. It is loaded with the oppressive duty of 3*l.* 15*s.* a cwt., producing rather more than 22,000*l.* a year of revenue.

LISBON, the capital of Portugal, situated on the north bank of the river Tagus, the observatory of the fort being in lat. 38° 42′ 24″ N., lon. 9° 5′ 50″ W. Population about 200,000, but formerly greater.

Trade, &c.—Lisbon is one of the best situated commercial cities of Europe. But, notwithstanding this circumstance, the excellence of the port, and the command of the navigation of the Tagus, her commerce is comparatively trifling. The despotism, intolerance, and imbecility of the government have weighed down all the energies of the nation. The law and the police being alike bad, there is no adequate security. Assassination is very frequent. Industry of all sorts is, in consequence, paralysed; and since the emancipation of Brazil, commerce has rapidly declined. Formerly Lisbon had about 400 ships, of from 300 to 600 tons burden, employed in the trade with South America. But at present there are not above 50 ships belonging to the port engaged in foreign trade; and, of these, the average burden does not exceed 150 tons! The produce of Portugal sent to foreign countries, is almost entirely conveyed to its destination in foreign ships. The trade between Lisbon and Cork is, we believe, the only exception to this; it being principally carried on in Portuguese vessels, which take salt from St. Ubes, and bring back butter in return. About 200 small craft belong to the city, which are exclusively employed in the coasting trade.

There are neither price currents, shipping lists, nor official returns of any kind, published in Lisbon. The principal exports are lemons and oranges—which, however, are very inferior to those of Spain; wine, particularly Lisbon and Calcavella; wool, oil, tanned hides, woollen caps, vinegar, salt, cork, &c. Besides colonial produce, the principal imports consist of cotton, woollen, and linen goods; hardware, earthenware, dried fish, butter, corn, cheese, timber and deals, hemp, &c. The declared or real value of all articles exported from Great Britain to Portugal in 1831 amounted to 975,991*l.*, of which cotton stuffs and yarn made nearly a half; but of these exports a large proportion went to Oporto.

Port.—The harbour or rather road of Lisbon is one of the finest in the world, and the quays are at once convenient and beautiful. Fort St. Julian marks the northern entrance of the Tagus. It is built on a steep projecting rock. There is a light-house in the centre, 120 feet above the level of the sea. At the mouth of the Tagus are two large banks, called the North and South *Cachops*. There are two channels for entering the river; the north or little, and the south or great channel, exhibited in the subjoined plan. On the middle of the South Cachop, about 1¼ mile from Fort St. Julian, is the Bugio fort and light-house, the latter being 66 feet in height. The least depth of water in the north channel on the bar is 4 fathoms, and in the south 6. The only danger in entering the port arises from the strength of the tide; the ebb running down at the rate of 7 miles an hour; and after heavy rains, when there is a great deal of fresh water in the river, the difficulty of entering is considerably augmented. When, at such periods, there is a strong wind from the sea, there is a complete break all over the bar; vessels moor up and down the river with open hawse to the southward. In some parts they may come within 200 yards of the shore, being guided by the depth of water, which, from nearly 20 fathoms in mid-channel, shoals gradually [illegible]



References to Plan.—A, Fort St. Julian and light-house. B, Bugio fort and light-house. C, Barcarena look-out house. D, Belem Castle. E, Point Cassilhas. F G, Bugio fort and Sugar Loaf Hill in one, mark the north channel.

Money.—Accounts are kept in rees, 1,000 of which = 1 milree. In the notation of accounts the milrees are separated from the rees by a crossed cypher (⊕), and the milrees from the millions by a colon: thus, Rs. 2:700 ⊕ 500 = 2,700 milrees and 500 rees.

The crusado of exchange, or old crusado, = 400 rees; the new crusado = 480 rees; the testoon = 100 rees; and the vinten or vintem = 20 rees.

The gold piece of 6,400 rees = 35*s.* 11*d.* sterling; the gold crusado = 2*s.* 3*d.*; and the milree, valued in gold, = 67½*d.* sterling. It appears, however, from assays made at the London mint, in 1812, on modern silver crusados, that the average value of the milree in *silver* may be estimated at 60*d.* or 5*s.* sterling.

Weights and Measures.—The commercial weights are, 8 ounces = 1 marc; 2 marcs = 1 pound or arratel; 32 pounds = 1 arroba; 4 arrobas = 1 quintal; 100 lbs. or arratels of Portugal = 101·19 lbs. avoirdupois = 45·895 kilog. = 94·761 lbs. of Hamburgh = 92·918 lbs. of Amsterdam.

The principal measure for corn, salt, &c. is the moyo, divided into 15 fanegas, 60 alquiéres, 240 quartos, 480 selemis, &c. The moyo = 23·03 Winchester bushels.

The principal liquid measure is the almude, divided into 2 potes, 12 canadas, or 48 quartellos; 18 almudes = 1 baril; 26 almudes = 1 pipe; 52 almudes = 1 tonelada. The almude = 4·37 English wine gallons; and the tonelada = 227½ ditto.

A pipe of Lisbon is estimated by the Custom-house (British) at 140 gallons; and this pipe is supposed to be 31 almudes. A pipe of port is 168 gallons, divided into 21 almudes of Oporto.

Of measures of length, 2 pes = 3 palmes = 1 covado, or cubit; 1½ covados = 1 vara; 2 varas = 1 braça. The pe or foot = 12·944 English inches; 100 feet of Portugal = 107·8 English feet; the vara = 43·2 English inches.

For freight a last is reckoned at 4 pipes of oil or wine, 4 chests of sugar, 4,000 lbs. of tobacco, 3,600 lbs. of shumac.

But from one place in Portugal to another, a tonelada is reckoned at 52 almudes of liquids, or 54 almudes of dry goods.

Coffee is sold per arroba; cotton, indigo, and pepper per lb.; oil, per almude; wine, per pipe; corn, per alquiére; salt, per moyo.

Grain, seed, fish, wool, and timber, are sold on board.

Weights and long measures are the same throughout Portugal; but there is a great discrepancy in the measures of capacity. The almude and alquiére, at the principal places, are in English measures as follows:

Lisbon	-	Almude = 5·37 gall.	Eng. wine meas.	Faro	-	Alquière = 3½ gall.	Winch. meas.
—	-	Alquière = 3·07 —	Winch. meas.	Figuera	-	Almude = 5½ —	wine meas.
Oporto	-	Almude = 6½ —	wine meas.	—	-	Alquière = 3½ —	Winch. meas.
—	-	Alquière = 3½ —	Winch. meas.	Vianna	-	Almude = 6½ —	wine meas.
Faro	-	Almude = 4½ —	wine meas.	—	-	Alquière = 3½ —	Winch. meas.

(*Kelly's Cambist*, vol. i. art. *Lisbon.*)

Bank of Lisbon.—This establishment was founded in 1822. Its capital consisted, in 1832, of about 601,100*l.* sterling, divided into 6,011 shares of about 100*l.* each. The shareholders are not liable beyond the amount of their shares. The bank discounts bills not having more than 3 months to run, at 5 per cent. Its dividends, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1831, were about 6 per cent. It enjoys the singular but valuable privilege of having its claims on all estates paid off in full, provided the estate amounts to so much; other creditors being obliged to content themselves with a division of the residue, if there be any.

Duties.—These are moderate. British goods pay a duty of 15 per cent. on a valuation fixed in 1782; but this on some articles is a good deal more, and on others less. The importation of tobacco, snuff, and soap is prohibited, except for the use of the contractors to whom the manufacture and sale of these articles is assigned. All exported articles pay a duty (*consulado*) of 4 per cent. *ad valorem*. The duties collected at the different Custom-houses in Lisbon,—for of these there are no fewer than seven,—amounted, in 1831, to about 2,4,000*l.*

Arrivals.	1829.		1830.		1831.	
	Ships.	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*
British -	925	94,908	894	90,894	880	94,749
Portuguese	340	. .	243	. .	181	. .
Foreign	349	. .	286	. .	268	. .

There is no return of the tonnage of the Portuguese and foreign ships.

Port Regulations.—All vessels entering the Tagus are obliged to come to anchor off Belem Castle, where there is an office at which they must be entered, their cargoes declared, from whence they come, and whether the cargo be intended to be landed in Lisbon or not; if not, the master applies for "*franquia*," that is, for leave to remain 8 days in the port for the purpose of disposing of the cargo or of departing with it. Two Custom-house officers are then sent on board, and if the cargo is to be discharged at Lisbon, the vessel proceeds to the Custom house, when the master makes entry, delivering the manifest and bills of lading attached to the certificate of the Portuguese consul, at the port of lading, in order to identify the cargo. The officers put on board at Belem are then relieved by two others, who remain until the vessel be discharged and visited by the Custom-house searcher. The port dues have to be paid in different offices; but the vessel is not subject to any other charges.

All goods sent on board for exportation must be accompanied by a permit from the Custom-house. When the clearances are obtained, the papers are presented by the master, or the ship's agent to the authorities at Belem, who deliver the signal the vessel is to hoist when going to sea.

There is no regular warehousing and bonding system at Lisbon. All imported dry goods are allowed to remain in the Custom-house stores 2 years, and liquids 6 months, without being charged warehouse rent, provided they are intended for consumption, and pay the duty accordingly. But if, after that period, they are taken out to be exported, they are charged 2 per cent. duty.

Port Charges.—on a foreign ship of 300 tons entering the port of Lisbon, with a general or mixed cargo, and clearing out with the same:—

		Rees.
Royal passport	-	7,200
Petty expenses on entering at the Custom house, about	-	700
Anchorage	-	500
Ballast clearance	-	400
Tonnage, 100 rees per ton	-	30,000
Lights, 50 rees per ton	-	15,000
Contribution to Board of Trade	-	1,500
Petty charges	-	730
Bill of health	-	240
		R. 56,270 = 11*l.* 6*s.* 0*d.* sterl.

Vessels coming with a cargo, or in ballast, and departing in ballast, pay 300 rees per ton lights, or 4 times as much as if they sailed with cargoes. Vessels coming with a cargo, and sailing with the same cargo, pay no tonnage duty.

Commission.—The ordinary rates of commission are, on the sale of goods, 2 1-2 per cent.; *del credere*, 2 1-2 per cent.; on the value of goods landed from a vessel putting in to effect repairs, 1 per cent.; on ships' disbursements, 5 per cent.

Insurances are effected to a trifling amount. There is 1 national company for effecting insurances; but it enjoys little credit.

Tares are not regulated by any certain rule. Those allowed are generally those invoiced or marked on the package.—(See *Annaes do Commercio Maritime*, p. 226.; *Kelly's Cambist*; Consult *Jonnes* to *Circular Queries*, &c.)

(In return for the privilege conceded to the Portuguese under the Methuen treaty (see TREATIES), of admitting their wines to entry for consumption in Great Britain, at 2-3ds the duty charged on French wines, British woollens were admitted into Portugal at a duty of 15 per cent. This rate of duty was afterwards extended to all British articles; and, since 1782, it has been charged according to a tariff or valuation fixed that year. But, with the exception of goods from Brazil, all other foreign goods consumed in Portugal paid a duty of 30 per cent. These distinctions are now, however, at an end; the subjoined decree having fixed the duty on *all* goods admitted to consumption in Portugal, without regard to their origin, at 15 per cent. This regulation was a good deal complained of here, but without reason. Having judiciously equalised the duties on French and Portuguese wines, we had no right or title to expect that the Portuguese should continue to render us the stipulated equivalent of what we had ourselves withdrawn. In so far, too, as we are concerned, the change is not really of any material importance, and will not sensibly affect our trade with Portugal. We subjoin the decree referred to:—

I. All goods and merchandise, of whatever nature and origin, and under whatever flag they may be imported, are admitted into the Custom-house of Lisbon and Oporto, to be despatched for consumption.

Sect. 1. Live pigs, gunpowder, and foreign olive and turnip oil, are excepted from the foregoing article.

Sect. 2. The importation of grain will be regulated by a special law; and in the mean time the existing dispositions thereunto relating, will continue in force.

Sect. 3. Tobacco, soap, and orchilla weed, continue subject to the laws and conditions of the state contracts.

Sect. 4. Wine, vinegar, brandy, and other spirits, of whatever quality they may be, are only admitted in bottles or jars of half a canada, Lisbon measure, and in boxes containing 2 dozens of bottles each. Rum, however, is admitted in casks of any size.

II. Goods admitted to consumption by the present decree, if imported in Portuguese vessels from the country in which they are produced, or in ships of that country coming direct, will pay 15 per cent., levied upon the tariff valuation, and where there is no tariff, *ad valorem*. In the contrary case, will pay the duty hereby established increased by 1-2 of the same duty.

Sect. 4 Vinegar, wine, brandy, and all other spirits, will pay 200 reis per bottle or jar. The decree of the 7th of December, 1803, remains in full force as regards rum, whatever place it comes from. The goods comprehended in this paragraph remain subject to the clauses of the preceding article, as far as they are applicable.

Palace of Necessidades, 18th of April, 1834. Sup.)

[The following decree of the Portuguese government is important to American shipowners.

Lisbon, the 11th of April, 1839.

Article 1. All foreign ships entering the ports of this kingdom in ballast, and loading a full cargo of salt, shall be free from the tonnage duty. Sec.—Foreign ships entering any of the ports of this kingdom in ballast, and sailing out again to take a full cargo of salt at another of our ports, are equally free from the tonnage duty.

Article 2. All foreign vessels entering the ports of this kingdom under Frangul, in order to complete their cargoes with salt, shall pay the duty of 100 reis per ton.

Article 3. All foreign vessels entering the ports of this kingdom to discharge cargoes of merchandise, and here load a full cargo of salt, shall pay the duty of 100 reis per ton.

Article 4. All foreign vessels which (having paid the duty in one of the ports of this kingdom) sailed in ballast to another port of the kingdom, in order there to take full cargo of salt, are entitled to receive back the duty paid in the first port, with the deduction merely of 100 reis per ton, on presenting to the competent authority of a legal certificate of said payment.—*Am. Ed.*]

LITERARY PROPERTY. See Books.

LITHARGE (Ger. *Glätte, Glätte;* Du. *Gelit;* Fr. *Litharge;* It. *Litargirio;* Sp. *Almartaga, Litarjirio;* Rus. *Glet;* Lat. *Lithargyrium*), an oxide of lead in an imperfect state of vitrification. Most of the lead met with in commerce contains silver, from a few grains to 20 ounces or more in the fodder: when the quantity is sufficient to pay the expense of separation, it is *refined;* that is, the metal is exposed to a high heat, passing at the same time a current of air over the surface: the lead is thus oxidised and converted into *litharge*, while the silver, remaining unchanged, is collected at the end of the process.—(*Thomson's Chemistry, &c.*) Litharge is used for various purposes in the arts, by potters, glass makers, painters, &c.

[LIVERPOOL. See *Supplement.—Am. Ed.*]

LOADSTONE (Ger. *Magnet;* Du. *Magneet;* Fr. *Aimant;* It. *Calamita;* Sp. *Iman;* Rus. *Magnit;* Lat. *Magnes*). M. Haüy observes, that the ores in which the iron contains the least oxygen without being engaged in other combinations, form natural magnets; and he calls the *loadstones* of commerce, which are found in considerable masses in Germany, Sweden, Norway, Spain, Italy, China, Siam, the Philippine Isles, Corsica, and Ethiopia, *acidulated iron.* The loadstone is characterised by the following properties:—A very strong action on the magnetic needle. Specific gravity 4·2457. Not ductile. Of a dark grey colour, with a metallic lustre.—Primitive form, the regular octahedron. Insoluble in nitric acid. This singular substance was known to the ancients; and they had remarked its peculiar property of attracting iron; but it does not appear that they were acquainted with the wonderful property which it also has, of turning to the pole when suspended, and left at liberty to move freely. Upon this remarkable circumstance the mariner's compass depends,—an instrument which gives us such infinite advantages over the ancients. It is this which enables the mariner to conduct his vessel through vast oceans out of the sight of land, in any given direction; and this directive property also guides the miner in subterranean excavations, and the traveller through deserts otherwise impassable. The natural loadstone has also the quality of communicating its properties to iron and steel; and when pieces of steel properly prepared are touched, as it is called, by the loadstone, they are denominated artificial magnets.—(See Compass.)

LOBSTER (Fr. *Ecrevisse;* Lat. *Cancer*), a fish of the crab species, of which vast quantities are consumed in London.

The minimum size of lobsters offered for sale is fixed by 10 & 11 Will. 3. c. 24, at *eight* inches from the tip of the nose to the end of the middle fin of the tail. No lobsters are to be taken on the coasts of Scotland between the 1st of June and the 1st of September, under a penalty of 5*l.* The Scilly Islands and the Land's End abound in lobsters, as well as several places on the Scotch shores, particularly about Montrose. But the principal lobster fishery is on the coast of Norway; whence it is believed upwards of 1,200,000 lobsters are annually imported into London. Those of Heligoland are, however, esteemed the best; they are of a deeper black colour, and their flesh is firmer than those brought from Norway. Foreign caught turbots and lobsters may be imported either in British or foreign vessels free of duty.

LOCK, LOCKS (Ger. *Schlösser;* Du. *Sloten;* Fr. *Serrures;* It. *Serrature;* Sp. *Cerraduras, Cerrajos;* Rus. *Samki*), a well known instrument, of which there are infinite varieties. A great deal of art and delicacy is sometimes displayed in contriving and varying the wards, springs, bolts, &c., and adjusting them to the places where they are to be used, and to the occasions of using them. From the various structure of locks, accommodated to their different intentions, they acquire various names, as stock locks, spring locks, padlocks, &c. Wolverhampton was, at a very early period, famous for the superior skill and ingenuity of its locksmiths; but the best locks are now made in London and Birmingham. The grand difficulty to be overcome in making a lock is to construct it so that it may not be opened by any key except its own, nor admit of being picked; it should also be possessed of sufficient strength and durability, and not be too complex. Many ingenious contrivances have been proposed for the attainment of the desired security,—several of which are possessed of considerable merit. We believe, however, that there is none that combines all the principal requisites of a lock in so eminent a degree as "Chubb's Detector Lock," so called from the inventor, Mr. Chubb, of Portsea. Common door-locks are now usually inserted in the wood, instead of being, as formerly, screwed to it; and when so placed are called *mortise* locks.

LOGWOOD (Fr. *Bois de Campèche;* Ger. *Kampescholz;* Du. *Campecheout;* Sp. *Palo de Campeche*), the wood of a tree (*Hæmatoxylon Campechianum* Lin.), a native of America, and which attains the greatest perfection at Campeachy, and in the West Indies. It thrives best in a wet soil, with a large proportion of clay. The logwood tree is like the whitethorn, but a great deal larger. The wood is hard, compact, heavy, and of a deep red colour internally, which it gives out both to water and alcohol. It is an article of great commercial importance, being extensively used as a dye wood. It is imported in logs, that are afterwards chipped.—(The logwood tree, and the adventures of those that were formerly engaged in cutting it, are described by Dampier; see his *Voyages*, vol. ii. part 2. p. 56. ed. 1729.)

The entries for home consumption, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1832, amounted to 10,973 tons a year. The duty of 4*s.* 6*d.* a ton on foreign logwood, and of 2*s.* on that from a British

plantation, produced, during the same 3 years, an annual revenue of 2,210*l.* Of 14,853 tons of logwood imported in 1831, 9,666 were from the British West Indies, 4,985 from Mexico, and the remainder principally from Hayti and Cuba. Its price in the London market in December, 1833, was:—Jamaica, 9*l.* 15*s.* per ton; Honduras, 8*l.* 10*s.* to 8*l.* 15*s.*; St. Domingo, 6*l.* to 6*l.* 5*s.*; Campeachy, 7*l.* 15*s.* to 8*l.* 5*s.*

We borrow from the learned and able work of Dr. Bancroft, the following curious details with respect to the use of logwood in this country:—"Logwood seems to have been first brought to England soon after the accession of Queen Elizabeth: but the various and beautiful colours dyed from it proved so fugacious, that a general outcry against its use was soon raised; and an act of parliament was passed in the 23d year of her reign, which prohibited its use as a dye under severe penalties, and not only authorised but directed the *burning* of it, in whatever hands it might be found within the realm; and though this wood was afterwards sometimes clandestinely used (under the feigned name of black wood), it continued subject to this prohibition for nearly 100 years, or until the passing of the act 13 & 14 Chas. 2.; the preamble of which declares, that the ingenious industry of modern times hath taught the dyers of England the art of fixing colours made of logwood, *alias* blackwood, so as that, by experience, they are found as lasting as the colours made with *any other sort of dyeing wood whatever*; and on this ground it repeals so much of the statute of Elizabeth as related to logwood, and gives permission to import and use it for dyeing. Probably the solicitude of the dyers to obtain this permission, induced them to pretend that their industry had done much more than it really had, in fixing the colours of logwood; most of which, even at this time, are notoriously deficient in regard to their durability."—(*On Permanent Colours* vol. ii. p. 340.)

[LONDON. See *Supplement.—Am. Ed.*]

LOUIS D'OR, a French gold coin, first struck in 1640. It was subsequently made by the French mint regulations equal to 24 livres, or 1*l.* at rling. This, however, was under rating it in respect of silver; and hence, as every one preferred paying his debts in the over valued coin, silver became the principal currency of France, the gold coins being either sent to the melting-pot or exported. In Britain, the process was reversed. Gold having been, for a lengthened period, over-valued by our mint in respect to silver, it became the principal currency of the country.—(See vol. i. p. 384.)

M.

MACAO, a sea-port and settlement belonging to the Portuguese, on the island of the same name, at the mouth of the Canton river in China, in lat. 22° 12′ 45″ N., lon. 113° 35′ E. The situation of Macao strikingly resembles that of Cadiz. It is built near the extremity of a peninsula projecting from the south-west corner of the island of Macao, to which it is joined by a long narrow neck. Across this isthmus, which is not more than 100 yards wide, a wall is erected, with a gate and guard-house in the middle for the Chinese soldiers. The greatest length of the peninsula belonging to the Portuguese, from N. E. to S. W., is under 3 miles, and its breadth under ½ mile. The broadest part, to the north of the town, is flat, and of a light sandy soil; but is well cultivated, principally by Chinese, and produces all sorts of Asiatic and European culinary vegetables. Provisions are obtained from the Chinese part of the island or from the main land; and whenever the Portuguese do any thing to offend the Chinese authorities, the provisions are cut off till they are obliged quietly to submit. They are seldom allowed to pass beyond the narrow precincts of the territory assigned to them. The population of the peninsula may amount to from 12,000 to 13,000, of whom considerably more than half are Chinese. The functionaries belonging to the East India Company's factory at Canton resided here during the whole of the dead season.

The Portuguese obtained possession of Macao in 1586. It was for a considerable period the seat of a great trade, carried on not only with China, but with Japan, Siam, Cochin-China, the Philippine Islands, &c.; but for these many years past it has been of comparatively little importance, though it is probable, that if it belonged to a more enterprising and active people, it might still recover most of its former prosperity. The public administration is vested in a senate composed of the bishop, the judge, and a few of the principal inhabitants; but all real authority is in the hands of the Chinese mandarin resident in the town.

The Harbour is on the west side of the town, between it and Priest's Island; but the water in it not being sufficiently deep to admit large ships, they generally anchor in the roads on the other side of the peninsula, from 5 to 10 miles E.S.E. from the town. All vessels coming into the roads send their boats to the Portuguese Custom-house on the south side of the town.

When a ship arrives among the islands, she is generally boarded by a pilot, who carries her into Macao roads. As soon as she is anchored, the pilot proceeds to Macao to inform the mandarin of the nation she belongs to. If there be any women on board, application must be made to the bishop and senate, for leave to send them on shore, as they will not be permitted to proceed to Whampoa in the ship. As soon as the mandarin has made the necessary inquiries, he orders off a river pilot, who brings with him a *chop* or licence to pass the Bocca Tigris, or mouth of the Canton river, and carries the ship to Whampoa.

Trade of Macao.—The Chinese regulations do not permit any vessels, except such as belong to Portuguese or Spaniards, of which there are very few, to trade at Macao. But the Portuguese inhabi-

taels lend their names, for a trifling consideration, to such foreigners as wish to be associated with them for the purpose of trading from the port. Independently, however, of this, vessels of other nations usually experience no difficulty in obtaining the connivance of the Chinese officers to the landing or receiving of goods in the roads, by means of Portuguese boats. At intervals, indeed, the prohibitory regulation is strictly enforced; but we believe that there has been no instance of this for the last 3 years.

Vessels of other nations, if in distress, and not engaged in the contraband trade, are admitted into the harbour for repairs, on application to the senate.

Port Charges.—The measurement duty paid by Spanish and Portuguese vessels is moderate. When a vessel has once paid the full amount, and is admitted on the list of registered ships belonging to the port (limited by the Chinese to 25), she is liable only to a third of the original charges, on every subsequent occasion of her entering, as long as she continues on the register. Portuguese vessels from Europe do not possess this privilege, unless they be registered as belonging to a merchant of Macao.

The rates of measurement duty, which vary, as at Canton, (which see,) on three classes of vessels, are the following:—

		Taels.
1st.	On vessels of 134 cavids and upwards,	0·725 per cavid.
2d.	— from 120 to 134 cavids	0·72 —
3d.	— from 90 to 120 cavids	4· —

These rates are nearly the same as those levied on Canton junks, trading with foreign countries, and ought, in fact, to be entirely so. The dimensions are taken and calculated in the same manner as at Canton (see vol. i. p. 597.); but the Chinese, at both places, speak not of the cavid, but of the chang of 10 cavids. However, as this is only a decimal increase, it makes no difference in the method of calculation.

The following additional charges, to be calculated on the amount of measurement duty, are the same on every class of vessels, viz.

5	per cent.	for inspectors.
6	—	for difference in weight by the treasury scales.
10	—	for loss in melting.
17	—	for making sycee.

Also the sum of 70 taels for the "public purse," or hoppo's treasury.

In addition to these, the following are the charges levied by the hoppo (collector of customs), or his deputy:—

On a 1st class vessel from Europe, 250 taels; if belonging to Macao or Manilla, 50 taels.

On a 2d class vessel from Europe, 240 taels; if belonging to Macao or Manilla, 40 taels.

On a 3d class vessel from Europe, 179 taels; if belonging to Macao or Manilla, 30 taels.

Ships importing rice are exempt from the measurement duty, and pay only 50 dollars, as fees to the procurador of Macao and the officers of his department.

Portuguese vessels from Europe, in addition to the measurement duty, have to pay to the Canton hong merchants a charge, termed by the Portuguese, Hanidagem, or Consoo charge, which is usually a matter of specific bargain, varying from about 300 dollars on a vessel of 300 tons, to 3,500 dollars and upwards on those of 800 tons and of larger size.

The charges on goods carried by the inner passage, between Canton and Macao, being generally less than those paid on goods to and from Whampoa; and the duties levied by the Portuguese, on articles of merchandize imported by vessels belonging to Macao, being very moderate; the Chinese are often led to engage in speculations on board the Macao vessels, the risk being so much less than in native junks. If the ship owners could manage their expenses so as to be satisfied with only the same freight as is charged by English vessels, it would probably induce many more Chinese to make remittances in this way.

Opium.—The trade in opium is prohibited at Macao by the Chinese government, as well as throughout the rest of the empire. It was, nevertheless, formerly carried on to a great extent by the Portuguese moradores, or citizens, to the exclusion of all others, even Portuguese who were not citizens. But this restriction having occasioned the decline of the trade, it was abolished in 1823, when the senate passed a regulation throwing open the trade to all, without distinction, whether Portuguese or foreigners; securing to the latter "hospitality, and the utmost freedom in their speculations." At present, however, very little opium is imported, in consequence, it is said, of the heavy bribes demanded by the Chinese officers to insure their connivance. The trade, as already observed (vol. i. p. 599.), is now principally carried on at Lintin, about 30 miles from Macao.

Imports.—Goods imported pay at the Portuguese Custom-house a duty of 6 per cent. on a fixed valuation, besides some fees and cooliehire. The following are a few articles extracted from the tariff:—

		Valuation. Taels.	Duty. Taels.
Cotton	per picul	4	0·240
Broad cloth, middling	covid	1·600	0·096
better than ordinary	—	0·800	0·048
ordinary or coarse	—	0·480	0·028
Camlets	—	1·200	0·016
Betel nut	picul	1·200	0 072
Tin	—	8	0·480
Birds' nests, 1st sort	catty	32·400	1·944
Rattans	picul	1·200	0·072
Saltpetre, Bengal	—	4	0·240
coast of Goa	—	1·600	0·096
Pepper	—	4	0·240

Opium imported in Portuguese ships, pays per chest, drs. 16 1-2

Do. foreign	do.	15 1-2

Gold and silver, whether in coin, in bullion, or manufactured, pay on importation, 2 per cent.; except in Spanish vessels from Manilla, when the charge is 1 1-2 per cent.

Exports.—No duty is levied by the Portuguese on goods exported from Macao; nor does the Custom house take any cognizance of them.

Duties and Charges on Goods landed at Macao.—Macao is a place without any manufacture or commerce of its own. Prices are, in consequence, generally dependent on those of Canton. Money is usually paid at 72 taels per 100 dollars.

It is a point of some interest to ascertain the internal duties and expenses to which goods landed at Macao are liable, before coming into the Chinese purchaser's hands at Canton. But the subject is so involved in mystery and uncertainty, the charges varying according to the quantity of goods landed in one boat, &c., that it is scarcely possible to arrive at any accurate information respecting it. We believe, however, that the following may be considered as a pretty close approximation to the real amount of charges incurred on cotton landed at Macao:—

Portuguese duty, fees, &c.	mace,	2—6 per picul.
Duties and charges on conveyance to Canton		6—3 —
Canton charges, difference of weight, brokerage on sale, &c.		8—0 —
Total, about taels,		2—6—9 —

The duties and charges on conveyance from Macao to Canton are, for pepper, per picul mace, 9—0

Rattans	—	4—5
Betel nut	—	4—5

The hoppo's examiner charges 90 taels per boat of 1,000 piculs, the largest quantity allowed to be conveyed by a single boat; but the same charge of 90 taels is levied, although the boat should only contain 100 piculs.

The duty on exporting goods from Canton to Macao is in some cases less, in other cases greater, than the Whampoa duty. Thus, nankeens for Macao pay 2 dollars per 100 less than to Whampoa. Most descriptions of silk piece goods also pay less duty. On the other hand, tea, paper, China ware, &c., pay a higher duty to Macao than to Whampoa.

For details as to the *Weights, Measures, &c.* used at Macao, see Canton.

For further particulars, see *Hamilton's East India Gazetteer, art. Macao; Milburn's Orient. Com.*; and the *Anglo-Chinese Kalendar and Companion to the Almanac*, Macao, 1832.

MACE (Ger. *Macis, Muskatenblüthe*; Du. *Foelie, Foely, Muscaatbloom*; Fr. *Macis, Fleur de muscade*; It. *Mace*; Sp. *Macio*; Port. *Maxcis, Flor de noz muscada*; Lat. *Macis*), a thin, flat, membranous substance, enveloping the nutmeg; of a lively, reddish yellow colour, a pleasant aromatic smell, and a warm, bitterish, pungent taste. Mace should be chosen fresh, tough, oleaginous, of an extremely fragrant smell, and a bright colour—the brighter the better. The smaller pieces are esteemed the best. The preferable mode of packing is in bales, pressed down close and firm, which preserves its fragrance and consistence.

Account of the Quantity of Mace retained for Home Consumption, the Rates of Duty on it, and the total Revenue derived therefrom, since 1810.

Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom.	Nett Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty charged thereon.	Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom.	Nett Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty charged thereon.
	Lbs.	£. s. d.	Of the East Indies.		Lbs.	£. s. d.	Of the East Indies.
1810	8,136	2,707 4 0	7s. 8d. per lb. and 2l. 13s. 4d. per centum ad valorem.	1820	13,193	2,174 7 0	(From 5 July) 3s. 6d. per lb.
1811	7,949	4,057 1 10	ditto.	1821	11,571 1-4	1,805 6 8	ditto.
1812	11,907	5,435 2 8	ditto.	1822	13,498	2,361 0 10	ditto.
1813	Records destroyed		(From 15 April) 9s. 1 1-4d. per lb. and 2l. 3s. 4d. per centum ad valorem.	1823	14,518 3-4	2,484 10 4	ditto.
1814	5,490	3,259 14 11	(From 10 April) 9s. 8d. per lb.	1824	16,978 3-4	2,907 3 1	ditto.
1815	7,834	3,592 14 7	ditto.	1825	14,851 3-4	2,601 15 1	ditto.
1816	6,439	2,964 4 6	ditto.	1826	15,600 1-4	2,719 17 6	ditto.
1817	6,612	3,060 15 9	ditto.	1827	16,700 1-2	2,962 18 6	ditto.
1818	10,496	4,668 10 9	ditto.	1828	16,064 1-2	2,829 10 4	ditto.
1819	16,352	3,536 14 5	(From 5 July) 3s. 6d. per lb.	1829	14,254 1-4	2,543 15 4	ditto.
				1830	12,000	2,205 0 0	ditto.
				1831	13,994	2,568 0 2	ditto.
				1832	15,936	2,702 9 4	ditto.

A production is met with on the coast of Malabar, so like mace, that at first it is not easy to be distinguished; but it has not the least flavour of spiciness, and when chewed has a kind of resiny taste. Eight cwt. of mace are allowed to a ton.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

MADDER (Ger. *Färberröthe*; Du. *Mee*; Fr. *Alizari, Garance*; It. *Robbia*; Sp. *Granza, Rubia*; Rus. *Mariona, Krap*; Hind. *Munjith*), the roots of a plant (*Rubia tinctorum*), of which there are several varieties. They are long and slender, varying from the thickness of a goose-quill to that of the little finger. They are semi-transparent, of a reddish colour, have a strong smell, and a smooth bark. Madder is very extensively used in dyeing red; and though the colour which it imparts be less bright and beautiful than that of cochineal, it has the advantage of being cheaper and more durable. It is a native of the south of Europe, Asia Minor, and India; but has been long since introduced into and successfully cultivated in Holland, Alsace, Provence, &c. Its cultivation has been attempted in England, but without any beneficial result. Our supplies of madder were, for a lengthened period, almost entirely derived from Holland (Zealand); but large quantities are now imported from France and Turkey.

Dutch or Zealand madder is never exported except in a prepared or manufactured state. It is divided by commercial men into four qualities, distinguished by the terms *mull, gamene, ombro*, and *crops*. The roots being dried in stoves, the first species, or mull, consists of a powder formed by pounding the very small roots, and the husk or bark of the larger ones. It is comparatively low priced, and is employed for dyeing cheap dark colours. A second pounding separates about a third part of the larger roots; and this being sifted and packed separately, is sold here under the name of gamene, or gemeens. The third and last pounding comprehends the interior, pure, and bright part of the roots, and is sold in Holland under the name of *kor krops*, but is here simply denominated crops. Sometimes, however, after the mull has been separated, the entire residue is ground, sifted, and packed together under the name of *onberoofde*, or ombro. It consists of about one third of gamene, and two thirds of crops. Prepared madder should be kept dry. It attracts the moisture of the atmosphere, and is injured by it.

The Smyrna or Levant madder (*Rubia peregrina*), the alizari or lizary of the modern Greeks, is cultivated in Bœotia, along the border of lake Copais, and in the plain of Thebes. It also grows in large quantities at Kurdar near Smyrna, and in Cyprus. The madder of Provence has been raised from seeds carried from the latter in 1761. Turkey madder affords, when properly prepared, a brighter colour than that of Zealand. It is, however, imported in its natural state, or as roots: the natives, by whom it is chiefly produced, not having industry or skill sufficient to prepare it like the Zealanders, by pounding and separating the skins and inferior roots; so that the finer colouring matter of the larger roots being degraded by the presence of that derived from the former, a peculiar process is required to evolve that beautiful Turkey red which is so highly and deservedly esteemed.—(*Thomson's Chemistry; Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. pp. 221—278.: see also *Beckmann, Hist. of Invent.* vol. iii. art. *Madder.*)

In France, madder is prepared nearly in the same manner as in Zealand. The following instructive details as to its cultivation, price, &c. in Provence, were obligingly furnished to us by an English gentleman intimately acquainted with such subjects, who visited Avignon in the autumn of 1829:—

"This town (Avignon) is the centre of the madder country, the cultivation of which was introduced here about the middle of the 18th century, and, with the exception of Alsace, is still confined (in France) to this department (Vaucluse). The soil appears to be better adapted for its cultivation here than any where else, and it has long been the source of great wealth to the cultivators. Of late years, however, the prices have fluctuated so much, that many proprietors have abandoned, or only occasionally cultivated this root, so that the crop, which was formerly estimated to average 500,000 quintals, is now supposed not to exceed from 300,000 to 400,000.

"The root is called *alizari*, and the powder (made from it) *garance*. The plant is raised from seed, and requires 3 years to come to maturity. It is, however, often pulled in 18 months, without injury to the quality; the quantity only is smaller. A rich soil is necessary for its successful cultivation; and when the soil is impregnated with alkaline matter, the root acquires a red colour—in other cases it is yellow. The latter is preferred in England, from the long habit of using Dutch madder, which is of this colour; but in France the red sells at 2 fr. per quintal higher, being used for the Turkey red dye.

"It is calculated that when wheat sells at 20 fr. per hectolitre, *alizari* should bring 35 fr. per quintal (poids de table), to give the same remuneration to the cultivator. That is, wheat 63s. per Eng. quarter, and *alizari* 34*l.* per Eng. cwt. The price has, however, been frequently as low as 22 fr. per quintal.

"Prices undergo a revolution every 7 or 8 years, touching the minimum of 23, and rising as high as 100 fr. As in every similar case, the high price induces extensive cultivation, and this generally produces its full effect 4 or 5 years after. The produce of Alsace, which is inferior both in quantity and quality to that of Vaucluse, is generally sold in Strasburgh market.

"England employs both the root and the powder, according to the purpose for which they are intended. The Dutch madder is more employed by the woollen dyers, and the French by the cotton dyers and printers.

"In making purchases of *garance* it is essential to employ a house of confidence, because the quality depends entirely upon the care and honesty of the agent. The *Alizari* is produced from the roots after being cleaned and stripped of their bark. The second by grinding the roots without cleaning. A *third* by mixing the bark of the *first* while grinding; and so on to any degree of adulteration.

"The price of *alizari* in the country, which was only 35 fr. in July, is now, (November, 1829) at 36 fr., and is expected to be at 40 fr. very shortly. The crop being deficient both here and in Holland, and the certainty of its being also deficient next year, added to its small quantity existing in England, give reason to believe that the price will reach 90 fr. before many months, and will continue at advance for a year or two more.

"The *quintals* above mentioned are of 100 lbs. *poids de table*—the weight in general use over the south of France, and even in *Marseilles*.—This weight is different in the different provinces, varying from 92 to 95 per cent. lighter than the *poids marchand*. At Avignon, 194 lbs. p. de table = 50 kilog., consequently 126 lbs. are equal to 1 cwt. Eng. At the exchange of 25-50, the cwt. costs (including its for freight, duty, and all charges till delivered in London or Liverpool) 61*s.* or 62*s.*

"It is considered that only one sixth or one seventh of the present crop remains for sale.

"Madder does not deteriorate by keeping, provided it be kept dry.

"*Compte simulé.*—

	Fr.
Cost of 1 quintal of roots in the country	35
Expenses in do.	2
	37
The root gives 26 per cent. powder, consequently 1 quintal powder	4·50
Grinding and cask	1
Transport	1·50
	Fr. 43·50
	Fr.
The English cwt. costs therefore	6·25
All expenses till on board at Marseilles	5
Besides commission	Fr. 11·25

For an account of East India madder or munjeet, see *Munjeet.*

Account of the Quantity of
each Year since 1820; wi
Papers published by Board

Years	Quantity entered for Consumption.	R
	Cwt.	
1820	68,272	
1821	69,468	
1822	54,252	
1823	76,468	
1824	83,054	
1825	75,366	
1826	48,497	
1827	86,730	
1828	95,296	
1829	68,056	
1830	49,205	
1831	46,758	
1832	66,346	

Of the imports of prepared madder
cwt., 21,857 were brought from Fran
Of the madder root imported the same
cwt., 21,857 were from France, 23,853
East Indies (munjeet), and 2,577 from
The duty on madder is now reduced
6*l.* a cwt.: and their price, duty inclu
December, 1832, was as follows:—

Madder, Dutch mull	
gamene	

MADEIRA: See Wi

MADRAS, the principa
Bay of Bengal, in lat.
second presidency of the
square miles, with a popul
annual revenue of above
vince—a low, sandy, and
upon the margin of an op
surf. Besides these disad
the sphere of the hurrica
spect, indeed, it is a ver
greatly inferior to that of
English 192 years, being
ascertained to be 26,786
about 160,000. Fort Sa
shore. The Black Town
fort, from which it is sepa
and Portuguese merchant
most other Indian towns,
houses. Madras, like C
Court of Judicature, the
pendent of the local gove

In Madras roads, large s
W.N.W., 3 miles from shor
son of the year, in consequ
the 15th of October the flag
which period, a ship comin
Coromandel (reckoned fro
dillons of the policies of a
above the level of the sea,
er from the mast-head at a
Masula boats, are large a
stead of caulking, which
the surf, the coxswain stan
rowers work their oars b
boat along with frightful v
the wave from taking the
is thrown high and dry upo
to the back of the surf, an
dangerous to have commu
near the landing-place, as
The fishermen and lowe
very simple construction,
in length, lashed together,
piece. When ready for th
through the surf, to carry
venture out. They wear
no damage. The men are
interrupted by a shark. .
persons in danger.

Account of the Quantity of Madder and Madder Roots respectively entered for Home Consumption each Year since 1820; with the Rates of Duty, and the Produce of the Duty on each.—(From *Papers published by Board of Trade.*)

Years	Madder. Quantity entered for Consumption.	Madder. Rate of Duty, Mill manufactured.	Madder. Net Revenue.	Madder Roots. Quantity entered for Consumption.	Madder Roots. Rate of Duty, all Sorts.	Madder Roots. Net Revenue.
	Cwt.	Per cwt.	£.	Cwt.	Per cwt.	£.
1820	69,975	2s. to 15s.	51,909	19,737	6s.	4,809
1821	68,466	" "	57,322	44,208	" "	10,982
1822	84,252	" "	44,479	48,264	" "	12,119
		All sorts				
1823	78,450	12s.	53,977	40,920	" "	10,108
1824	68,064	" "	36,964	66,285	" "	17,305
1825	72,165	6s.	39,750	26,280	1s. 6d.	5,639
1826	49,457	" "	14,089	40,276	" "	5,009
1827	56,157	" "	26,187	49,777	" "	5,860
1828	56,779	" "	26,979	67,243	" "	5,049
1829	65,652	" "	31,223	39,406	" "	6,966
1830	68,656	" "	14,903	25,982	" "	2,719
1831	49,205	" "	14,615	53,982	" "	4,044
1832	45,756	" "	18,149	51,767	" "	3,899
1833	69,549	" "				

Of the imports of prepared madder in 1831, amounting to 43,995 cwt., 23,837 were brought from France, and 16,736 from Holland. Of the madder root imported the same year, amounting to 53,449 cwt., 21,267 were from France, 23,533 from Turkey, 5,970 from the East Indies (mean just), and 2,277 from Italy.

The duty on madder is now reduced to 5s. a cwt., and on roots to 6d. a cwt.: and their price, duty included, in the London market, in December, 1833, was as follows:—

		£. s. d.	£. s. d.	
Madder, Dutch mull	"	0 16 0	to 1 5 0	per cwt.
garance	"	1 10 0	—2 5 0	—
Madder, Dutch tembre	"	2 10 0	to 3 5 0	per cwt.
crop	"	3 10 0	—3 15 0	—
French SFFF	"	Os. Os.	SFF	0 0 0	—
Spanish	"	2 5 0	—2 15 0	—
roots, Turkey	"	2 15 0	—2 16 0	—
East India, or munjeet	"	1 14 0	—1 16 0	bond.

Madder, the produce of Europe, is not to be imported for home consumption except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which it is the produce, or from which it is imported, under forfeiture of the same, and 10*l.* by the master of the vessel.—(3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 56. sect. 56.)

MADEIRA. See WINE.

MADRAS, the principal emporium on the coast of Coromandel, or western shore of the Bay of Bengal, in lat. 13° 5′ N., lon. 80° 21′ E. It is the seat of government of the second presidency of the British possessions in India, having under it a territory of 154,000 square miles, with a population, according to a recent census, of 15,000,000, paying a gross annual revenue of above 5,000,000*l.* sterling. The town is situated in the Carnatic province—a low, sandy, and rather sterile country. It is without port or harbour, lying close upon the margin of an open roadstead, the shores of which are constantly beat by a heavy surf. Besides these disadvantages, a rapid current runs along the coast; and it is within the sphere of the hurricanes or typhoons, by which it is occasionally visited. In every respect, indeed, it is a very inconvenient place for trade, and its commerce is consequently greatly inferior to that of either Calcutta or Bombay. It has been in possession of the English 192 years, being founded by them in 1639. In 1823, the number of houses was ascertained to be 26,786; which allowing 6 inhabitants to each, makes the total population about 160,000. Fort Saint George is a strong and handsome fortification, lying close to the shore. The Black Town of Madras, as it is called, stands to the north and eastward of the fort, from which it is separated by a spacious esplanade. Here reside the native, Armenian, and Portuguese merchants, with many Europeans unconnected with the government. Like most other Indian towns, it is irregular and confused, being a mixture of brick and bamboo houses. Madras, like Calcutta and Bombay, is subject to English law; having a Supreme Court of Judicature, the judges of which are named by the Crown, and are altogether independent of the local government, and the East India Company.

In Madras roads, large ships moor in from 7 to 9 fathoms, with the flagstaff of the fort bearing W.N.W., 2 miles from shore. From October to January is generally considered the most unsafe season of the year, in consequence of the prevalence, during that interval, of storms and typhoons. On the 15th of October the flagstaff is struck, and not erected again until the 15th of December; during which period, a ship coming into the roads, or, indeed, any where within soundings on the coast of Coromandel (reckoned from Point Palmyras to Ceylon), vitiates her insurance, according to the conditions of the policies of all the insurance offices in India. In the fort there is a light-house, 60 feet above the level of the sea, and which may be seen from the deck of a large ship, at 17 miles' distance, or from the mast-head at a distance of 26 miles. The cargo boats used for crossing the surf, called *Masula* boats, are large and light; made of very thin planks sewed together, with straw in the seams, instead of caulking, which it is supposed might render them too stiff. When within the influence of the surf, the coxswain stands up, and beats time in great agitation with his voice and feet, while the rowers work their oars backwards, until overtaken by a strong surf curling up, which sweeps the boat along with frightful violence. Every oar is then plied forward with the utmost vigour to prevent the wave from taking the boat back as it recedes; until at length, by a few successive surfs, the boat is thrown high and dry upon the beach. The boats belonging to ships in the roads sometimes proceed to the back of the surf, and wait for the country boats from the beach to come to them. When it is dangerous to have communication with the shore, a flag is displayed at the beach-house, which stands near the landing-place, as a caution.

The fishermen and lower classes employed on the water, use a species of floating machine of a very simple construction, named a catamaran. It is formed of 2 or 3 logs of light wood, 8 or 10 feet in length, lashed together, with a small piece of wood inserted between them to serve as a stem-piece. When ready for the water, they hold generally 2 men, who with their paddles impel themselves through the surf, to carry waters, or refreshments in small quantities, to ships, when no boat can venture out. They wear a pointed cap made of matting, where they secure the letters, which take no damage. The men are often washed off the catamaran, which they regain by swimming, unless interrupted by a shark. Medals are given to such catamaran men as distinguish themselves by saving persons in danger.

The following are the established rates of port charges at Madras :—

Light-house Dues.

	Rs. a. p.
All British and foreign ships	25 0 0
Country ships	14 0 0
Snow, brig, ketch, and schooner	7 0 0
Sloop and cutter	5 0 0
Large dhouses	5 0 0
Small dhonies	2 0 0

Anchorage Dues.

	5. Roads. Rs. a. p.	N. Roads. Rs. a. p.
British ships, and ships under foreign, European or American colours	28 0 0	0 0 0
Country ships, from 900 to 500 tons	25 0 0	0 0 0
— 500 — 300 —	23 0 0	0 0 0
— 300 — 200 —	21 0 0	0 0 0
— 200 — 100 —	17 0 0	0 0 0
— 100 — 50 —	14 0 0	0 0 0
— 50 — 10 —	10 0 0	0 0 0
Native craft, from 400 — 300 —	0 0 0	21 0 0
— 300 — 200 —	0 0 0	17 0 0
— 200 — 100 —	0 0 0	14 0 0
— 100 — 50 —	0 0 0	10 0 0
— 50 — 20 —	0 0 0	5 0 0
— 20 — 10 —	0 0 0	1 0 0

Boat Hire.

	Rs. a. p.
Ordinary trips	1 3 0
Do. do. for an accommodation boat	5 0 0
Transhipments	0 12 6
Return trips	0 10 0
Monsoon trips	2 3 0
Do. do. for an accommodation boat	10 0 0
Do. transhipments	1 8 0
Do. return trips	1 0 0
Deep water trips	2 3 0
Extra hire on Sundays	0 9 0
A boat load of water	3 0 0
Sand ballast, exclusive of boat hire	0 6 0
Tarpaulin hire	0 4 0

Catamaran Hire.

	Rs. a. p.
Small catamarans, to all ships on anchoring	1 3 0
— snow, brig, and ketch, do.	0 12 0
— sloop and cutter, do.	0 10 0
— dhonies and large boats, do.	0 6 0
— carrying letters to ships	0 4 0
— carrying provisions or parcels	0 4 0
Large catamarans, for landing or shipping a European	1 0 0
cable of 13 to 16 inches	35 0 0
for do. do. 17 to 22 —	30 0 0
for do. an anchor of 16 to 20 cwt.	25 0 0
for do. — 30 to 50 —	20 0 0

Port Regulations.—A notification shall be sent by the collector of the customs, through the master attendant, to the commanders of all ships coming into the roads, requiring them to transmit a true and full manifest of all goods and merchandises laden on board, according to a printed form; which manifest being delivered to the collector, he shall, if he so thinks fit, require it to be verified by an affidavit on oath; which forms being observed, permits are granted for the landing of the goods, under an official signature.

No articles are to be shipped or landed without a permit, or after 6 o'clock P. M. Any merchandise attempted to be landed without the prescribed forms, or that were not inserted in the manifest, are liable to double duty; and, where a fraudulent intention shall appear, to confiscation. All goods (except on account of the East India Company) shall be shipped or landed at the ghaut opposite to the Custom-house, or pay double duty. All goods, (except belonging to the Company), on being landed, shall be brought to the Custom-house; and when required to be passed, a written application, in the following form, must be made to the collector. No other form will be attended to.—"To the Collector of the Customs, Please to permit the under-mentioned goods to pass the Custom-house, on account of, Sir, your obedient servant, ————."

Date.	No. and Nature of Packages.	Name of Ship.	Under what Colours.	Whence Imported.	Sort of Goods.	Quantity of Goods.	Rates.	Total Value.

N. B.—These are to be left blank, and filled up from the tariff by which the duties are regulated.

Goods exported in British vessels, or in those belonging to the native inhabitants of India, are exempt from duty, but must nevertheless pass through the Customs' books, and their value be computed at the tariff prices.

If any goods are shipped, or attempted to be shipped, without permission obtained from the Customs, which must be applied for according to the following form, they are liable to a duty of 6 per cent. or 8 per cent., according to the country of the ship.—"To the Collector of the Customs. Please to permit the undermentioned goods to pass the Custom-house, on account of, Sir, your obedient servant, ————."

Date.	No. and Nature of Packages.	Name of Ship.	Under what Colours.	Whither bound.	Sorts of Goods.	Rates of Manufactures and Produce.	Quantity of Goods.	Rates.

These are to be filled up from the tariff

The collector of customs is allowed a commission of 5 per cent. on the amount of the duty collected on goods imported or exported, and upon the amount of the duty computed on goods imported or exported free of duty; and when goods become liable to be charged with the additional duty, 5 per cent. is also due to the collector on such duty.

Port clearances cannot be granted to ships clearing outwards, until true and complete manifests of the cargoes have been lodged with the collector of customs, and a certificate produced from the boat paymaster (the chief officer over the boats regularly kept for hire) that he has no demand.

The port charges for clearance on every vessel, except paddy boats, is 1 pagoda 24 fanams. For every paddy boat, 20 fanams. For every bale imported or exported in foreign vessels (except American), 1 pagoda.

You cannot employ your own boat to unload your vessel without the permission of the master attendant; and you can, in no case, hire your boat for hire to another vessel, under any pretence whatever. The rates of boat hire are according to your distance from the shore, double charge being made, if employed on a Sunday. A load of ballast consists of 120 baskets of sand, according to a fixed size, at the average price of 3 1-2 fanams. A boat load of water is 4 butts; the price is 55 fanams 40 cash.

Customs.—The export and import duties at Madras are the same as at Calcutta; which see.

Monies.—There is a considerable variety of coins in circulation in Madras and its vicinity. Of the gold coins, the principal are star or current pagodas = 7*s.* 5½*d.*; commonly, however, valued at 8*s.* The gold rupee, new coinage, is worth, according to the mint price of gold in England, 1*l.* 0*s.* 9·4*d.* The Arcot rupee (silver) and the new silver rupee are very nearly of the same value, being respectively worth 1*s.* 11½*d.* and 1*s.* 11¼*d.* The East India Company and the European merchants keep their accounts at 12 fanams the rupee; 80 cash = 1 fanam, and 42 fanams = 1 pagoda. Copper pieces of 20 cash, called pice, and of 70 and 5 cash called dodees and half dodees, are also current; these are coined in England, and the value is marked on each.

Commercial Weights.—Goods are weighed by the candy of 20 maunds; the maund is divided into 8 vis, 320 pollams, or 3,200 pagodas; the vis is divided into 5 seers. The candy of Madras is 500 lbs. avoirdupois. Hence the pagoda weighs 2 oz. 3 grs.; and the other weights are in proportion. These weights have been adopted by the English; but those used in the Jaghire (the territory round Madras belonging to the Company), as also in most other parts of the Coromandel coast, are called the Malabar weights, and are as follows:—The gursay (called by the English garce) contains 20 baruays or candies; the baruay, 20 manunghs or maunds; the maund, 8 visay or vis, 320 pollams, or 3,200 varahuns. The varahun weighs 52⅝ English grains: therefore, the visay is 3 lbs. 3 dr.; the maund, 24 lbs. 2 oz.; the baruay, 482¼ lbs.; and the gursay, 9,645½ lbs. avoirdupois, or 4 tons 6 cwt. nearly.

Measures of Capacity.—The garce, corn measure, contains 80 parahs, or 400 marcals; and the marcal, 8 puddies, or 64 ollucks. The marcal should measure 750 cubic inches, and weigh 27 lbs. 9 oz. 9 dr. avoirdupois of fresh spring water: hence, 43 marcals = 15 Winch. bushels; and therefore the garce = 17½ English quarters nearly. When grain is sold by weight, 9,250½ lbs. are reckoned for 1 garce, being 18 candies 12·8 maunds.

Banking.—There is but a single banking establishment at Madras, which is entirely a government concern, as the directors consist of the superior officers of government; and the ministerial officers are on fixed salaries. The bank issues notes, receivable as cash at the public treasuries, within the

town of Madras; it receives deposits and grants discounts. The accumulated profits of the bank, from its first institution in 1806, amounted to 620,226*l.*, being at the rate of about 31.000*l.* a year; but as the Indian money is here reckoned at the rate of 8*s.* the pagoda, which is much above both the mint price and the value in exchange, the real profits are considerably smaller.

Mercantile Establishments.—At Madras there are but 3 principal European mercantile establishments, or houses of agency, with 7 of an inferior class. There are 2 American houses, and 1 considerable native house of business. The dubashes, or native brokers of Madras, are expert, intelligent, and sometimes knavish. Among the native merchants there are few men of wealth; and the contrast, in this respect, with Calcutta and Bombay, is striking. The degree of liberality exercised by the respective governments, and the prosperity of the different portions of the British territory in India, may safely be implied by the proportion of British settlers to be found in them. Tried by this test, the Madras provinces will be found eminently wanting, as will be seen by the following brief Table:—

1813	Bengal	1,925	Madras	187	Bombay	469
1830	—	1,707	—	134	—	308

Insurance.—There is but one insurance company, called the India Insurance Society; but there are agents of the Calcutta companies, who effect insurance on shipping.

Agency and Commission.—The general rates of agency, commission, and warehouse rent, are as follow:—

1. On the total sum of a debit or credit side of an account, at the option of the agent, excepting items on which a commission of 5 per cent. is chargeable, 1 per cent.
2. On effecting remittances, or purchasing, selling, or negotiating bills of exchange, 1 per cent.
3. On subscriptions to government loans, purchasing, selling, transferring, or exchanging public securities, 1-2 per cent.
4. On delivering up public securities, or lodging them in any of the public offices, 1-2 per cent.
5. On receiving and delivering private commissions of wines, cattle, and merchandise, 2 1-2 per cent.
6. On collecting rents, 2 1-2 per cent.
7. On purchase of lottery tickets and amount of prizes, 1 per cent.
8. On the sale of lottery tickets from the other settlements, 2 1-2 per cent.
9. On letters of credit granted, 2 1-2 per cent.
10. On the management of estates, as executors, administrators, or attorneys, 5 per cent.
11. On debts, when a process at law or arbitration is necessary, 2 1-2 per cent.
    And if recovered by such means, 5 per cent.
12. On bills of exchange, notes, &c. dishonoured, 1 per cent.
13. On overdue debts collected by absentees, 2 1-2 per cent.
14. On becoming security for individuals to government, 1 per cent.
15. On all sales or purchases of goods, 5 per cent.
    With the following exceptions:—
    On house, lands, and ships, 2 1-2 per cent.
    On diamonds, pearls, and jewellery, 2 1-2 per cent.
    On treasure and bullion, 1 per cent.
    On all goods and merchandise withdrawn, shipped, or delivered to order, 1-2 commission.
    On all other descriptions of property for sale, if withdrawn or otherwise disposed of by the owners, 1-2 commission.
    On goods transferred to auction or commission salesmen, 1-2 commission.
16. On retail sales, 10 per cent.
17. On guaranteeing sales, bills, bonds, contracts for goods, or other engagements, 2 1-2 per cent.
18. On ships' disbursements, 2 1-2 per cent.
19. On advertising as the agents of owners or commanders of ships for freight or passengers; on the amount of freight and passage money, whether the same shall pass through the agent's hands or not, 5 per cent.
20. On effecting insurance, or writing orders for insurance, 1-2 per cent.
21. On settling losses, partial or general, and returns of premium, 1 per cent.
22. On procuring money on respondentia, wherever payable, 2 per cent.
23. On making up goods to order, and taking risk of advances, 10 per cent.
24. On giving orders for the provision of goods, where a commission is not chargeable on sale or shipment, 2 1-2 per cent.
25. On attending the delivery of contract goods, 2 per cent.

Exports and Imports.—Madras trades with Great Britain and other European countries, the United States, the South American States, China, the Eastern islands, the Burman empire, Calcutta, and Ceylon. In speaking of the trade of Madras, it is to be observed that it comprehends, for the most part, the trade of the whole coast of Coromandel. The principal articles of import are rice and other grain, chiefly from Bengal; cotton piece goods, iron, copper, spelter, and other British manufactures; raw silk from Bengal and China, with betel or areca nut, gold dust, tin, and pepper, from the Malay countries; and rice and pepper from the coast of Malabar, with teak timber from Pegu. The exports consist of plain and printed cottons, cotton wool, indigo, salt, pearls of Ceylon, chank shells, tobacco, soap, natron, some dyeing drugs, and a little coffee produced on the table land of Mysore, and of which the quantity is increasing. The great staples of sugar, rice, opium, saltpetre, and lac dye, of such importance in Bengal, are unknown as exports at Madras.

The following is a statement of the value of the trade of Madras, and its subordinate ports, with Europe and America, in the years 1813-14 and 1828-29.

Countries.	1813-1814.						1828-1829.					
	Imports.			Exports.			Imports.			Exports.		
	Merchandise.	Bullion.	Total.	Merchandise.	Bullion.	Total.	Merchandise.	Bullion.	Total.	Merchandise.	Bullion.	Total.
	Ms. rs.	*Ms. rs.*	*Ms. rs.*	*Ms. rs.*	*Ms. rs.*	*Ms. rs.*	*Ms. rs.*	*Ms. rs.*	*Ms. rs.*	*Ms. rs.*	*Ms. rs.*	*Ms. rs.*
Great Britain	2,717,493	- -	2,717,493	4,308,946	156,187	4,465,133	3,354,625	25,156	3,379,981	3,507,741	732,663	4,240,404
United States of America	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	3,819	7,055	10,874	20,953	-	20,953
Portugal	71,128	2,625	73,753	98,462	- -	98,462	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
France	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	288,593	1,000	289,493	123,006	-	123,006
Brazils	1,224	- -	1,224	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
South American States	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	62,906	- -	62,906
Total	2,789,845	2,625	2,792,475	4,307,408	156,187	4,463,595	3,647,137	32,211	3,780,348	3,719,606	732,663	4,452,269

Taking the Madras rupee at its British mint value of 1*s.* 11*d.* nearly, the joint exports and imports of 1813-14 were 695,373*l.*; and those of 1828-29, 788,959*l.*; showing an increase, in 15 years, of no more than 93,586*l.*, or about 13 per cent.—a striking contrast with the great augmentation which has taken place in the same period in the trade of Calcutta and Bombay. The exports, it will be seen by the Table, have even fallen off. The causes which have led to this state of things deserve some explanation. The raw silks, nankeens, camphor, and cassia of China, which, on account of the monopoly, could not be directly sent from Canton to Europe, were formerly brought by the country ships to Madras, and there reshipped. They are now more conveniently, and in much larger quantity, brought for the same purpose to Singapore. But the chief causes which contribute to retard the external commerce of Madras, are the vexatious restraints on industry, and the taxation so much heavier in that presidency than in Bengal or Bombay. The land tax, instead of being fixed in perpetuity, as in the former, is temporary and fluctuating; and hence, neither British nor native industry is applied with any vigour in the improvement of the productions of the soil. Inland duties prevail every where, and fresh ones are not only exacted when goods pass from one province to another, but often when passing from town to town, or even from village to village. These imposts are, at the same time, farmed to a very corrupt class of persons. Of the value of the trade between Madras and China we have no statement; but the tonnage employed in the export trade, at an average of the 5 years ending with 1817-18, was 3,077 tons; and at an average of the 5 years ending with 1826-27, 2,078 tons. The import tonnage in the same periods amounted respectively to 683 tons and 2,989 tons; the disparity in this case being accounted for, from its having lately become usual for country ships returning in bal

last from China, to touch at Madras for cargoes of salt to be conveyed to Bengal on behalf of the monopoly. For many ages, a commercial intercourse of considerable extent appears to have prevailed between Madras and other ports of the Coromandel coast, and the Malay countries, chiefly those situated within the straits of Malacca, with the west coast of Sumatra, and the island of Java. This is still carried on in native vessels, to the extent of 50 or 60 annually, mostly brigs or ketches, clumsily constructed, but equipped and navigated on the European model. A few British-owned vessels also occasionally engage in it. In this trade, the exports from Madras and its subordinate ports consist chiefly of piece goods and salt. British fabrics have of late years interfered with the former, and the salt of Siam with the latter, so that the trade is on the decline. The principal foreign trade of Pegu, at one time, was carried on with Madras; but within the last 30 years it has been, in a great measure, transferred to Calcutta. There is still, however, a trade of some amount carried on in vessels owned both by Europeans and natives. The exports from Madras to Pegu consist chiefly of piece goods, tobacco, and cocoa nuts; the returns being made in teak timber, horses, orpiment, stick lac, bullion, sapphires, and rubies. The largest branch of the trade of Madras is with Calcutta. In 1813-14, the imports from Madras, and other parts of the Coromandel coast, into Calcutta, amounted to sicca rupees 18,74,941, and the exports to sicca rupees 22,77,934 or jointly to about 425,328*l.* sterling. In 1821-22, the imports amounted to sicca rupees 8,87,221, and the exports to sicca rupees 12,35,015, or jointly to about 212,223*l.*; showing a falling off to the extent of half the whole amount.—The disproportion, in this case, between the imports and exports, is to be accounted for by the omission, in the public accounts, of all salt imported on account of the monopoly, and which has amounted yearly to about 10,000 tons. The great impediment to the intercourse between the Bengal and Madras provinces is the salt monopoly, the quantity of salt taken annually being restricted by the government of Bengal. This limits the consumption of salt in Bengal, where it is naturally dear, and, by compelling the inhabitants of Madras to grow corn on poor lands, precludes the export of the cheap rice of Bengal. The Indian governments, instead of having improved of late years in liberality, have really drawn tighter the cords of monopoly. The effect of this upon the export of corn from Bengal to Madras has been remarkable. In 1806-7, when the salt of Madras was admitted into Calcutta with some liberality, the export of grain to the Coromandel coast amounted to 2,635,658 maunds, or about 470,000 quarters; whereas, in 1823-24, a year of scarcity in the Madras provinces, it amounted to only 1,591,326 maunds, or about 284,000 quarters. The trade between Calcutta and the Coromandel coast is carried on both in European and native vessels. The latter are of the same description, but not so well equipped as those that trade between the Coromandel coast and the Malay islands. In 1810, the number which cleared out from Calcutta for Madras and its subordinate ports was no less than 367, their burden being estimated at 46,073 tons. Since then, their numbers have declined; being, in 1821, only 103 vessels, of the burden of 11,991 tons. The European tonnage employed in this trade is extremely fluctuating. In 1807, a year of extraordinary scarcity in the Madras provinces, the registered tonnage which cleared out from Calcutta for the Coromandel coast amounted to 94,236 tons, which conveyed 6,000,000 quarters of rice. Next year the tonnage amounted to only 6,261 tons. In 1812, another year of scarcity, it was 15,068 tons; and in 1821, a year of plenty, it was but 2,642 tons. These striking facts show the vast importance of a free trade in corn to the countries in question.—(In compiling this article, we have made use of *Hamilton's Description of Hindostan*; *Hamilton's East India Gazetteer*, 2d ed. 1828; *Phipp's Guide to the Commerce of Bengal*; *Papers relative to the Trade with India and China*, printed by order of the House of Commons, and *Evidence taken before the Parliamentary Committee*, in 1829, 1830, and 1831; *Madras Almanack*, for 1831; *Kelly's Cambist*, 2d ed.; and *Horsburgh's Directory*,—an accurate and useful work.)

MAGNESIA (Fr. *Magnésie*; Ger. *Gebraunte Magnesia*; It. *Magnesia*), one of the primitive earths, having a metallic basis. It is not found native in a state of purity, but is easily prepared. It is inodorous and insipid, in the form of a very light, white, soft powder having a specific gravity of 2·3. It turns to green the more delicate vegetable blues, is infusible, and requires for its solution 2,000 parts of water at 60°.

MAHOGANY, the wood of a tree (*Swietenia Mahogani*) growing in the West Indies and Central America. There are two other species of Swietenia found in the East Indies, but they are not much known in this country.

Mahogany is one of the most majestic and beautiful of trees: its trunk is often 40 feet in length, and 6 feet in diameter; and it divides into so many massy arms, and throws the shade of its shining green leaves over so vast an extent of surface, that few more magnificent objects are to be met with in the vegetable world. It is abundant in Cuba and Hayti, and it used to be plentiful in Jamaica; but in the latter island, most of the larger trees, at least in accessible situations, have been cut down. The principal importations into Great Britain are made from Honduras and Campenchy. That which is imported from the islands is called Spanish mahogany; it is not so large as that from Honduras, being generally in logs from 20 to 26 inches square and 10 feet long, while the latter is usually from 3 to 4 feet square and 12 or 14 feet long, but some logs are much larger. Mahogany is a very beautiful and valuable species of wood: its colour is a red brown, of different shades, and various degrees of brightness; sometimes yellowish brown; often very much veined and mottled, with darker shades of the same colour. The texture is uniform, and the annual rings not very distinct. It has no larger septa; but the smaller septa are often very visible, with pores between them, which in the Honduras wood are generally empty, but in the Spanish wood are mostly filled with a whitish substance. It has neither taste nor smell, shrinks very little, and warps or twists less than any other species of timber. It is very durable when kept dry, but does not last long when exposed to the weather. It is not attacked by worms. Like the pine tribe, the timber is best on dry rocky soils, or in exposed situations. That which is most accessible at Honduras grows upon moist low land, and is, generally speaking, decidedly inferior to that brought from Cuba and Hayti; being soft, coarse, and spongy; while the other is close grained and hard, of a darker colour, and sometimes strongly figured. Honduras mahogany has, however, the advantage of holding glue admirably well; and is, for this reason, frequently used as a ground on which to lay veneers of the finer sorts. The best qualities of mahogany bring a very high price. Not long since, Messrs. Broadwood, the distinguished pianoforte manufacturers, gave the enormous sum of 3,000*l.* for three logs of mahogany! These logs, the produce of a *single tree* were each about 15 feet long and 38 inches square: they were cut into veneers of 6 to an inch. The wood was particularly beautiful, capable of receiving the highest polish; and when polished, reflecting the light in the most varied manner, like the surface of a crystal; and, from the wavy form of the pores, offering a different figure in whatever direction it was viewed. Dealers in mahogany generally introduce an auger before buying a log; but, notwithstanding, they are seldom able to decide with much precision as to the quality of the wood, so that there is a good deal of lottery in the trade. The logs for which Messrs. Broadwood gave so high a price were brought to this country with a full knowledge of their superior worth. Mahogany was used in repairing some of Sir Walter Raleigh's ships at Trinidad, in 1597; but it was not introduced into use in England till 1724.

The cutting of mahogany at Honduras takes place at two different seasons; after Christmas, and towards midsummer. The negroes employed in felling the trees are divided into groups of from 10 to 50. The trees are cut about 12 feet from the ground, and are floated down the rivers.

Of 11,542 tons of mahogany imported in 1831, 8214 came from the British West Indies (including Honduras, and 2,923 from Hayti. The duty on foreign mahogany is 7*l.* 10*s.* a ton, whereas Honduras mahogany pays only 1*l.* 10*s.*, and Jamaica mahogany 4*l.* The effect of such a duty must obviously be to force the consumption of the inferior in preference to the superior article. In 1832, the duty produced 45,405*l.*—(See *Tredgold's Principles of Carpentry*, p. 204.; *Library of Entertaining Knowledge*, volume on *Timber Trees and Fruits*; and *Edward's West Indies*, vol. iv. p. 258. ed. 1819, &c.)

Mahogany from Honduras, imported into any free warehousing port in the British possessions in the West Indies or America, in a ship cleared out from Balize, and then warehoused as having been so imported and cleared, may be exported from the warehouse and imported into the United Kingdom, as if it had been imported direct in a British ship, provided it be stated in the ship's clearance that the mahogany had been so warehoused and exported.—(9 *Geo.* 4. c. 76. § 13.)

Mahogany not to be entered as being the produce of any British possession, unless the master of the ship importing the same deliver to the collector or comptroller a *certificate*, and declare that the goods are the produce of such place.—(See *ante*, p. 8.)

(The duty on foreign mahogany has been reduced to 5*l.* per ton.—(6 & 7 *Will.* 4. cap. 60.)—*Sup.*)

MAIZE, or INDIAN CORN (Fr. *Bled de Turquie*; Ger. *Türkisch korn, Mays*; It. *Grano Turco o Siciliano*; Sp. *Trigo de Indias, Trigo de Turquia*), one of the cereal grasses (*Zea Mays*), supposed to be indigenous to South America, being the only species of corn cultivated in the New World previously to its discovery. It was introduced into the Continent about the beginning, and into England a little while after the middle, of the 16th century. Its culture has spread with astonishing rapidity; being now extensively grown in most Asiatic countries, and in all the southern parts of Europe. It has the widest geographical range of all the ceralia, growing luxuriantly at the equator, and as far as the 50th degree of north, and the 40th of south latitude. It has been raised in England, in nursery gardens near the metropolis, for more than a century; and recently it has been attempted to raise it in the fields, but with indifferent success. Like other plants that have been long in cultivation, it has an immense number of varieties. The ear consists of about 600 grains, set close together in rows, to the number of 8, 10, or 12. The grains are usually yellow; but they are sometimes red, bluish, greenish, or olive-coloured, and sometimes striped and variegated. The maize of Virginia is tall and robust, growing 7 or 8 feet high; that of New England is shorter and lower; and the Indians further up the country have a still smaller sort in common use. The stalk is jointed like the sugar cane. The straw makes excellent fodder; and the grain, as a bread corn, is liked by some; but though it abounds in mucilage, it contains little or no gluten, and is not likely to be much used by those who can procure wheaten or even rye bread.—(*Loudon's Encyclopædia of Agriculture*, &c.) For the imports of maize, duties, &c., see Corn Laws and Trade.

MALAGA, a city and sea-port of Spain, in the kingdom of Granada, in lat. 36° 43½′ N., lon. 4° 25′ 7″ W. Population, perhaps, 55,000.*

Harbour.—Malaga has an excellent harbour. It is protected on its eastern side by a fine mole, full 700 yards in length. At its extremity a light-house has been constructed, furnished with a powerful light, revolving once every minute. At a distance it appears obscured for 45 seconds, when a brilliant flash succeeds for the other 15 seconds. A shoal has grown up round the mole head, and the depth of water throughout the harbour is said to be diminishing. Latterly, however, a dredging machine has been employed to deepen it, by clearing out the mud and accumulating sand. The depth of water, at the entrance to the harbour and within the mole, is from 26 to 30 feet; and close to the city, from 8 to 10feet. The harbour could easily accommodate more than 450 merchant ships: it may be entered with all winds, and affords perfect shelter.

Trade, &c.—Owing to the want of official returns, and to the prevalence of smuggling, which may be said to have annihilated all fair trade, it is not possible to obtain any accurate accounts of the trade of Malaga, or, indeed, of any Spanish port. The great articles of export are wine and fruits, particularly raisins and almonds, grapes, figs, and lemons; there is also a considerable exportation of olive oil, with quantities of brandy, anchovies, cummin seed, aniseed, barilla, soap, &c. The lead exported from Malaga is brought from Adra.—(See Lead.) The imports are salt fish, iron hoops, bar iron, and nails; cotton stuffs, hides, earthenware, &c., with dye stuffs, all sorts of colonial produce, butter and cheese from Holland and Ireland, linens from Germany, &c. The trade with England seems to be diminishing, and that with the United States to be increasing. This is a consequence, no doubt, of Malaga wine being very little in demand in the former, while it is pretty largely consumed in the latter. The Americans are also the largest consumers of Malaga fruit.

The following details, abstracted from Mr. Inglis's valuable work, entitled "Spain in 1830," contain the fullest and by far the best account that we have met with of the trade of Malaga. Their authenticity may, we believe, be depended upon.

"*Wine.*—The wines of Malaga are of two sorts, sweet and dry; and of the former of these there are four kinds: first, the common 'Malaga,' known and exported under that name. In this there is a certain proportion of boiled wine, which is allowed to burn, and which communicates a slightly burnt taste to the 'Malaga.' The grape from which this wine is made is a white grape, and every pipe of

* The consul says 75,000; but we have little doubt that this is very much beyond the mark. In the *Weimar Almanack* the population is set down at 52,370.

'Malaga' contains no less than *eleven* gallons of brandy. Secondly, 'Mountain.' This wine is made from the same grape as the other, and like it contains colouring matter and brandy; the only difference is that, for 'Mountain,' the grape is allowed to become riper. Thirdly, 'Lagrimas,' the richest and finest of the sweet wines of Malaga; the name of which almost explains the manner in which it is made. It is the droppings of the ripe grape hung up, and is obtained without the application of pressure.

"The dry wine of Malaga is produced from the same grape as the sweet wine, but pressed when greener; in this wine there is an eighth part more of brandy than in the sweet wine; no less than 1-12th part of the dry Malaga being brandy.

"The whole produce of the Malaga vineyards is estimated at from 35,000 to 40,000 pipes; but owing to the increasing stock of old wine in the cellars, it is impossible to be precise in this calculation. The export of all sorts of Malaga wine may be stated at about 27,000 pipes. The principal market is the United States and South America; and to these the export is upon the increase. The average price of the wines shipped from Malaga does not exceed 35 dollars per pipe; but wines are occasionally exported at the price of 170 dollars. Many attempts have been made at Malaga to produce sherry, but not with perfect success. The sherry grape has been reared at Malaga upon a soil very similar to that of Xeres; but the merchants of Malaga have not ventured to enter the wine for export. One reason of the very low price of the wines of Malaga is to be found in the cheapness of labour; field labour is only 2½ reals a day (4½d.). In the fruit and vintage time it is about double.

"*Fruit.*—Next to its wines, the chief export of Malaga is fruit, consisting of raisins, almonds, grapes, figs, and lemons; but of these, raisins are principally exported. I have before me a note of the exports of Malaga for the months of September and October, 1830—the chief, though not the sole, exporting months—and I find that during that time the export of raisins amounted to 266,845 boxes, and 31,916 smaller packages. Of this quantity, 125,334 boxes were entered for the United States; 45,513 for England; the remaining quantity being for France, the West Indies, the Spanish ports, South America, and Holland.

"The raisins exported from Malaga are of three kinds, *muscatel*, *bloom*, or *sun raisin*, and *lexias*.—The muscatel is the finest raisin in the world. In its preparation no art is used; the grape is merely placed in the sun, and frequently turned. The bloom, or sun raisin, is a different grape from the muscatel; but its preparation is the same. The lexias acquire this name from the liquor, or ley, in which they are dipped, and which is composed of water, ashes, and oil; these, after being dipped, are also dried in the sun. All muscatel raisins are exported in boxes, and also a part of the bloom raisins. In 1829, the exports of muscatel and bloom raisins were 325,000 boxes of 25 lbs. each; in all, 8,125,000 lbs. This quantity is independent of the export of bloom raisins in casks, and of lexias; the latter amounting to about 30,000 arrobas. The export of raisins to England has fallen off, while that to America has considerably increased. In 1824, 75 ships cleared from Malaga, for England, with fruit; in 1830, down to the 1st of November, 34 vessels had cleared out.

"Of the other fruits raised near Malaga, grapes, almonds, and lemons are the most extensively exported. In the months of September and October, 1830, 11,019 jars of grapes were shipped for England; 6,429 for America; and 1,650 for Russia. During the same months, 5,335 arrobas of almonds (133,375 lbs.) were shipped for England, this being nearly the whole export; there were also exported, during the same period, 3,749 boxes of lemons for England; 4,201 ditto for Germany; and 840 ditto for Russia.

"*Oil.*—There is also a large export of oil from Malaga; but the exportation during the latter part of 1830, would be no criterion of the average; because, the Greenland whale fishery having failed, extensive orders had been received from England.

"*Shipping.*—The trade between England and Malaga is on the decline: that with both the Americas is increasing, especially in wines. The number of British vessels entered at the port of Malaga, in 1827, I find from an official note furnished by the British consul to have been 104; in 1828, 126; in 1829, 105; and in 1830, to the 1st of November, 83, exclusive of small Gibraltar vessels. The number of American vessels entering in 1829, was 55; but the average burden of the Americans being 173 tons, and that of the English vessels not exceeding 100, the whole American is nearly equal to the whole English trade."—(Vol. ii. pp. 190—196.)

Money.—Accounts are kept in reals of 34 maravedis vellon.—(For the coins, and their value, used at Malaga, see CADIZ.)

Weights and Measures.—The weights are the same as those of Cadiz. The arroba, or cantara = 4½ English wine gallons; the regular pipe of Malaga wine contains 36 arrobas, but is reckoned only at 34; a bota of Pedro Ximenes wines = 53½ arrobas; a bota of oil is 42, and a pipe 35 arrobas; the latter weighs about 800 lbs. avoirdupois: a carga of raisins is 9 baskets, or 7 arrobas; a cask contains as much, though only called 4 arrobas: as a last for freight are reckoned—4 botas or 5 pipes of wine or oil; 4 bales of orange peel; 5 pipes of Pedro Ximenes wine or oil; 10 casks of almonds (each about 380 lbs. English); 20 chests of lemons and oranges; 22 casks of almonds (of 8 arrobas each); 44 casks of raisins (of 4 arrobas each); 88 half casks of raisins; 50 baskets of 160 jars of raisins.

Port Charges.—The port and harbour dues amount, on an English vessel of 300 tons, to about 21*l.*; on a Spanish vessel, of the same burden, they would be about 11*l.* 10*s.*

Warehousing.—Goods may be warehoused for 12 months, paying 2 per cent. *ad valorem* in lieu of all charges; but, at the end of the year, they must be either entered for consumption or reshipped. The 2 per cent. is charged, whether they lie a day or the whole year.

There is an excellent account of Malaga in *Townsend's Travels in Spain*, vol. iii. pp. 10—42. The *Answers* by the consul at Malaga to the *Circular Queries* contain little or no information.

MALMSEY. See WINE.

MALT (Ger. *Maly*; Du. *Mout*; Fr. *Mal, Blédgermé*; It. *Malto*; Sp. *Cebada retonada ó entallecida*; Rus. *Solod*; Lat. *Maltum*). The term malt is applied to designate grain which, being steeped in water, is made to germinate to a certain extent, after which the process is checked by the application of heat. This evolves the saccharine principle of the grain, which is the essence of malt. The process followed in the manufacture is very simple. Few changes have been made in it; and it is carried on at this moment very much in the same manner that it was carried on by our ancestors centuries ago. Rice, and almost every species of grain has been used in malting; but in Europe, and especially in England, malt is prepared almost wholly from barley. It is the principal ingredient in the manufacture of beer, and is not used for any other purpose.

Duties on, and Consumption of Malt. Influence of the reduction of the Duty and the Opening of the Trade.—Owing to malt liquor having early become the favourite beverage of the people of England, the manufacture of malt has carried on amongst us, for a length-

ened period, on a very large scale. Instead, however, of increasing with the increasing wealth and population of the country, it has been nearly stationary for the last hundred years. This apparently anomalous result is probably in some measure to be accounted for by the increased consumption of tea and coffee, which are now in almost universal use; but there cannot be a question that it is mainly owing to the exorbitant duties with which malt, and the ale or beer manufactured from it, have been loaded, and to the oppressive regulations imposed on the manufacture of malt and the sale of beer. The effect of these duties and regulations was to impose a tax of about 7*s.* on the malt and beer made from a bushel of barley; which, taking the average price of barley at from 4*s.* to 5*s.* a bushel, was equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of from 140 to 175 per cent.! The exorbitancy of the duty was not, however, its most objectionable feature. It was about equally divided—one half being assessed directly on malt, and the other on beer: but the beer duty affected only beer brewed by public brewers, or for sale, and did not affect that which was brewed for private use; and as rich families brewed all the beer they made use of, the consequence of this distinction was, that the beer duty fell wholly on the lower and middle classes, who did not brew any beer; or, in other words, the poor man was compelled to pay twice the duty on the malt he made use of that was paid by the rich man! That such a distinction should ever have been made, or submitted to for any considerable period, is certainly not a little astonishing. Originally, however, the distinction was not so great as it afterwards became; and being increased by slow degrees, the force of habit reconciled the parliament and the country to the gross inequality and oppressiveness of the tax. But the public attention being at length forcibly attracted to the subject, and the effect of the exorbitant duties on malt and beer in increasing the consumption of ardent spirits having been clearly pointed out—(see *Edinburgh Review*, No. 98. art. 4.), the beer duty was repealed in 1830. This measure of substantial justice and sound policy reflects the greatest credit on the administration of the Duke of Wellington; which is also entitled to the public gratitude for having put an end to the licensing system, and established, for the first time, a really free trade in beer.

The repeal of the duty has materially increased the consumption of malt; and the anticipations of those who contended that its abolition, if combined with a free trade in beer, would be no great loss to the revenue, are in a fair way of being realised. The clamour that has been raised against the measure, on account of its supposed influence in increasing drunkenness, is, we firmly believe, wholly without foundation. If the measure has increased, as it certainly has done, the consumption of beer, it has at the same time equally diminished the consumption of gin; and it is surely superfluous to add, that this is a most beneficial change. It is true that a number of new public houses have been opened for the sale of beer; but it has not hitherto been proved that this circumstance, though it seems to have occasioned no common alarm among the clergy and magistrates in different parts of the country, has been productive of any public inconvenience. Like all newly opened lines of business, the trade of beer selling has been overdone; and a considerable number of beer shops have been shut up. "It is not," as Dr. Smith sagaciously remarked, "the multiplication of alehouses that occasions a general disposition to drunkenness among the common people; but that disposition, arising from other causes, necessarily gives employment to a multitude of alehouses."—(*Wealth of Nations*, vol. ii. p. 146.) The way to eradicate this disposition is by giving a better education to the poor, and inspiring them with a taste for less grovelling enjoyments. All that the fiscal regulations and police enactments intended to promote sobriety have ever done, is to make bad worse, to irritate and disgust, to make the lower classes more enamoured of that which they conceive is unjustly withheld from them, and to stimulate them to elude and defeat the law.—(See vol. i. p. 15.)

The following Tables show the consumption of malt in England and Wales from 1787 down to 1833, and in the whole kingdom from 1821. They show that the consumption of malt had been about stationary for nearly half a century, notwithstanding the population had been more than doubled in that period, and that the wealth of all classes had been materially increased. In point of fact, however, the consumption had been stationary for a much longer period—for *more than an entire century!* For it appears from the accounts given by the very well-informed Mr. Charles Smith, in his tracts on the *Corn Trade* (2d ed. p. 199.), that the quantity of malt that paid duty in England and Wales, at an average of the 10 years ending with 1723, was 3,542,000 quarters a year; and that the annual average during the next 10 years was 3,358,071 quarters. The beer duties being, in effect, as much a part of the malt duty as if they had been laid directly on malt, it is indispensable that they should always be taken into account, before drawing any conclusions as to the influence of the duty. Ample information with respect to them will be found in the article ALE AND BEER; but, to save the trouble of references, the whole is brought, as far as respects the 10 years previous to their repeal, into one point of view in the subjoined Table, No. I.

I. An Account of the Number of Quarters of Malt charged with Duty, the Amount of the said Duty, the Rate per Quarter in each Year; also, the Number of Quarters of Malt used by Brewers and Victuallers; the Number of Barrels of Strong, Intermediate, and Table Beer, separately; the Amount of Duty on Beer, and the Rate of Duty per Barrel for each sort of Beer, in each Year, from the 5th of January, 1831, to the 5th of January, 1833; in Imperial Measure.

England.

Years ended 5th of January.	Malt: Quarters charged with Duty.	Malt: Rate per Quarter.	Malt: Amount of Duty.	Malt: Quarters used by Brewers and Victuallers.	Beer: Strong, at 8s. 10d. per Barrel.*	Beer: Table, at 1s. 11½d. per Barrel.*	Beer: Intermediate, at 4s. 11d. per Barrel.	Beer: Amount of Duty.
	Qrs.		£ s. d.		Barrels.	Barrels.	Barrels.	£ s. d.
1831	2,985,530	28s. 10½ 8/21 d.	4,311,446 2 6	No account has been kept of the quantities used during these years.	5,666,617	1,518,695	- -	2,836,149 1 1
1832	3,267,304	- - -	4,718,360 10 0		5,909,891	1,528,575	- -	2,957,366 8 6
1833	3,336,554	From 25 Feb. 1833, 20s. 8d.	3,624,242 8 0		6,306,981	1,570,043	- -	3,153,561 5 7
1834	3,103,644	- - -	3,203,502 17 6		6,395,835	1,488,045	7,018	3,190,998 12 8
1835	3,451,992	- - -	3,560,693 0 0		6,704,514	1,544,048	15,660	3,326,277 14 2
1836	3,696,592	- - -	3,813,072 7 6		7,020,946	1,606,899	6,160	3,495,597 9 1
1837	3,416,996	- - -	3,586,064 19 8		6,629,696	1,603,653	7,707	3,468,655 9 9
1838	3,137,049	- - -	3,341,610 6 6		6,271,879	1,523,308	17,158	3,131,662 6 0
1839	3,814,737	- - -	3,941,884 19 1		7,640,621	1,530,419	62,617	3,322,867 2 11
1840	2,998,509	- - -	3,096,126 6 9		5,961,048	1,380,460	55,498	2,983,116 1 5
1841	3,362,613	- - -	3,474,699 16 10		2,364,939	3,570,339	1,066,962	41,834† - -
1842	4,190,434	- - -	4,257,781 10 10		2,284,949	- -	- -	- - -
1843	3,036,731	- - -	4,090,678 9 11		3,235,519	- -	- -	- - -

Scotland.

		From Barley.	From Beer or Bigg.					
		s. d.						
1831	147,776	28 10½ 8/21	8s. 10½ 8/21 d. From 5 July, 1830, 24s. 9 4/21	212,982 6 6	No account as above.	122,114	207,983	- - 80,972 6 0
1832	163,907	- -	From 5 July, 1831, 22s. 8½ 3/21 d.	221,605 9 8		128,939	219,345	- - 85,069 4 6
1833	175,396	From 23 Feb. 1833, 20s. 8d.	From 23 Feb. 1833, 14s. 5 2/21 d. From 5 July, 1832, 15s. 9 8/21	183,071 16 7		78,607	126,107	227,478 - - 85,117 13 9
1834	203,073	- - -	- - -	196,695 15 10		75,100	119,998	208,532 - - 80,532 8 6
1835	348,576	- - -	- - -	335,505 8 1		74,979	118,813	239,956 - - 81,894 10 0
1836	490,730	- - -	- - -	462,144 6 6		85,430	133,903	264,035 - - 91,731 2 7
1837	340,819	- - -	16s.	339,104 8 10		72,956	122,158	271,335 - - 79,940 0 1
1838	339,959	- - -	- - -	325,488 18 11		79,481	112,067	241,393 - - 72,877 0 10
1839	483,394	- - -	- - -	478,507 15 2		89,577	118,943	347,443 - - 76,084 16 8
1840	464,190	- - -	- - -	457,587 19 4		75,305	111,071	299,364 - - 71,786 19 5
1841	509,743	- - -	- - -	505,651 4 6		99,416	75,978	178,011† - - -
1842	593,369	- - -	- - -	515,578 8 1		118,033	- -	- - - -
1843	458,096	- - -	- - -	498,096 5 7		193,800	- -	- - - -

Ireland.

1831	294,208	28s. 10½ 8/21 d.	319,683 14 0	165,120	
1832	313,664	From 5 April, 1832, 20s. 8d.	347,494 0 0	150,640	
1833	219,548	- - -	275,612 14 0	174,466	
1834	213,364	- - -	216,795 2 6	167,208	
1835	271,249	- - -	268,330 0 0	170,695	
1836	349,656	- - -	344,600 10 0	167,194	
1837	300,891	- - -	315,089 15 2	176,349	
1838	225,849	- - -	232,809 12 10	189,076	
1839	301,192	- - -	311,191 19 0	175,321	
1830	251,579	- - -	250,809 17 2	167,175	
1831	244,951	- - -	251,646 1 11	141,401	
1832	262,730	- - -	263,307 8 7	186,674	
1833	250,794	- - -	250,277 9 8	192,867	

Note.—No return can be made of the quantity of beer brewed in Ireland, the same not being subject to excise duty.

II. Prices of Malt, per Winchester Quarter, at Greenwich Hospital, from 1730 to 1832.

Years.	Prices.	Years.	Prices.	Years.	Prices.
1730	20s. 6d.	1805	85s. 7d.	1825	71s. 10½d.
1740	27s. 3½d.	1810	84s. 5d.	1826	65s. 1d.
1750	24s.	1815	69s. 7½d.	1827	64s. 10d.
1760	24s. 9d.	1820	68s. 8½d.	1828	61s. 7d.
1770	28s. 3d.	1821	61s. 11d.	1829	61s. 10½d.
1780	31s. 1d.	1822	59s. 8½d.	1830	56s. 1½d.
1790	35s. 6d.	1823	59s. 11d.	1831	70s. 5½d.
1800	84s.	1824	62s. 1d.	1832	58s. 8d.

* From the year 1827, the rate of duty per barrel for strong beer was—common brewers, 9s.; victuallers, 9s. 10d.; table beer, common brewers, 1s. 9½d.; victuallers, 1s. 11½d.; the same also for Scotland.
† Beer duty ceased the 10th of October, 1830.

III. An Account of the To... to 1830, bo...

Years ended 5th July.	Malt.	
	Qrs.	bs.
1787	3,409,101	7
1788	3,358,380	1
1789	3,021,314	2
1790	3,583,697	3
1791	3,489,876	2
1792	3,589,671	6
1793	2,956,604	5
1794	3,191,768	7
1795	3,086,695	7
1796	3,517,758	4
1797	3,865,427	3
1798	3,370,431	6
1799	3,698,955	5
1800	1,810,099	3
1801	2,230,868	2
1802	2,792,997	6
1803	3,509,900	2

IV. A Return of the Num... each Collection of E...

Collections.	N...
England.	
Barnstaple	
Bath	
Bedford	1,
Bristol	
Cambridge	1,
Canterbury	
Chester	
Cornwall	
Coventry	
Cumberland	
Derby	
Dorset	
Durham	
Essex	
Exeter	
Gloucester	
Grantham	1,
Halifax	
Hants	
Hereford	
Hertford	1,
Hull	
Isle of Wight	
Lancaster	
Leeds	2,
Lichfield	1,
Lincoln	1,
Liverpool	
Lynn	
Manchester	
Newcastle	
Northampton	
Northwich	
Norwich	1,
Oxford	
Plymouth	
Reading	
Rochester	
Sarum	
Salop	
Sheffield	
Stafford	
Stourbridge	
Suffolk	1
Surrey	1
Sussex	
Tiverton	
Wales, East	
Middle	
North	
West	
Wellington	
Whitby	
Worcester	
York	
Country collections	3
London	
Total	3

III. An Account of the Total Quantity of Malt made in England and Wales in each Year, from 1787 to 1830, both inclusive, the Rates of Duty, and the Amount of the Duty.

Years ended 5th July.	Malt.	Rate of Duty.	Amount of Duty.	Years ended 5th July.	Malt.	Rate of Duty.	Amount of Duty.
	Qrs. bls.	s. d.	£ s. d.		Qrs. bls.	s. d.	£ s. d.
1787	2,409,101 7	10 6	1,789,780 1 2	1804	2,602,721 7	34 8	5,772,412 9 0
1788	2,338,580 1	- -	1,764,264 11 3	1805	2,792,923 1	- -	4,841,066 15 0
1789	2,031,214 2	- -	1,591,439 19 7	1806	2,435,990 0	- -	5,955,716 0 0
1790	2,633,697 2	- -	1,487,691 2 5	1807	3,114,020 3	- -	5,397,635 6 4
1791	2,489,876 2	12 6	2,138,008 14 1	1808	2,800,787 3	- -	4,854,698 2 4
1792	2,582,671 6	{ 12 6 / 10 6 }	2,142,950 12 10	1809	2,851,598 7	- -	4,942,771 7 8
				1810	3,035,401 4	- -	5,261,363 12 0
1793	2,056,604 5	- -	1,604,717 8 6	1811	3,349,760 5	- -	5,806,251 15 0
1794	2,191,768 7	- -	1,677,253 13 2	1812	2,322,336 5	- -	4,012,716 16 4
1795	2,080,695 7	- -	1,620,515 6 8	1813	2,797,741 7	- -	4,849,419 5 0
1796	2,517,758 4	- -	1,846,823 4 3	1814	3,263,785 5	- -	5,657,228 8 4
1797	2,865,427 2	- -	2,029,349 7 5	1815	3,384,004 0	- -	5,865,606 18 8
1798	2,370,431 6	- -	1,709,476 13 4	1816	3,281,929 2	- -	5,688,677 11 8
1799	2,698,955 5	- -	2,083,701 14 0	1817	2,142,002 4	18 8	1,999,202 6 8
1800	1,810,080 3	- -	950,296 18 5	1818	3,307,866 5	- -	3,087,342 3 8
1801	2,220,868 2	- -	1,218,455 16 7	1819	2,793,252 3	- -	2,607,053 11 0
1802	2,792,297 6	18 8	2,612,040 6 11	1820	3,066,894 2	23 0	4,075,506 8 10
1803	3,809,990 2	- -	3,555,906 18 0				

IV. A Return of the Number of Bushels of Malt made, and the Amount of Duties collected thereon, in each Collection of Excise in the United Kingdom, in the Year ended 5th of January, 1836.

Collections.	Number of Bushels Malt.	Amount of Duty.	Collections.	Number of Bushels of Malt.	Amount of Duty.
		£ s. d.			£ s. d.
England.			*Scotland.*		
Barnstaple - -	310,458	40,100 16 6	Aberdeen - -	208,572	21,644 13 5
Bath - -	828,427	107,005 3 1	Ayr - -	273,127	34,160 18 6
Bedford - -	1,581,737	204,307 13 11	Argyle, North -	49,764	4,979 16 3
Bristol - -	538,616	69,575 2 2	South -	444,516	45,927 13 11
Cambridge - -	1,349,035	174,250 7 1	Caithness - -	65,993	6,920 19 10
Canterbury - -	415,902	53,720 13 6	Dumfries - -	79,382	10,155 10 9
Chester - -	649,209	83,856 3 3	Elgin - -	177,850	21,632 5 9
Cornwall - -	376,760	48,664 16 8	Fife - -	203,154	26,240 14 6
Coventry - -	931,602	120,331 18 6	Glasgow - -	581,259	73,498 6 9
Cumberland - -	403,984	52,181 5 4	Haddington - -	189,051	24,491 1 9
Derby - -	881,358	113,842 1 6	Inverness - -	115,363	14,782 11 0
Dorset - -	345,425	44,617 7 11	Linlithgow - -	298,236	38,291 12 11
Durham - -	238,775	30,841 15 5	Montrose - -	139,107	17,922 15 7
Essex - -	970,804	125,395 10 4	Perth - -	265,420	34,152 1 0
Exeter - -	260,263	33,617 6 1	Stirling - -	593,260	76,336 7 0
Gloucester - -	532,865	68,828 7 11	Edinburgh - -	774,816	99,930 11 5
Grantham - -	1,166,807	153,295 18 1			
Halifax - -	652,175	84,239 5 5	Total -	4,458,770	551,016 0 4
Hants - -	437,008	56,446 17 4			
Hereford - -	209,250	34,779 5 9			
Hertford - -	1,445,411	186,698 18 5			
Hull - -	345,201	44,588 9 3			
Isle of Wight -	463,555	59,875 17 1	*Ireland.*		
Lancaster - -	393,195	50,787 13 9	Armagh - - -	94,451	9,647 12 1
Leeds - -	2,143,369	276,929 6 7	Athlone - - -	32,739	4,223 9 0
Lichfield - -	1,060,411	136,969 15 1	Clonmel - - -	76,978	9,942 19 10
Lincoln - -	1,185,631	153,142 14 3	Coleraine - -	51,070	5,197 0 0
Liverpool - -	100,877	13,029 18 11	Cork - - -	324,923	41,969 4 5
Lynn - -	630,077	81,384 18 11	Drogheda - -	68,473	8,844 8 7
Manchester - -	*nil.*	*nil.*	Dundalk - -	203,908	24,011 12 9
Newcastle - -	413,495	53,409 [illegible] 5	Foxford - -	40,387	4,039 15 7
Northampton - -	665,088	85,907 4 0	Galway - -	52,225	6,732 19 8
Northwich - -	152,287	19,670 8 1	Kilkenny - -	240,676	31,087 6 4
Norwich - -	1,222,320	157,883 0 0	Limerick - -	83,568	10,791 4 0
Oxford - -	553,882	71,543 1 10	Lisburn - - -	152,990	16,022 11 11
Plymouth - -	560,618	73,188 3 2	Londonderry - -	80,920	8,111 16 8
Reading - -	830,288	107,215 10 8	Mallow - - -	131,673	17,007 15 3
Rochester - -	374,803	48,413 1 1	Maryborough - -	75,077	9,697 8 11
Sarum - -	814,753	105,238 18 7	Nass - - -	63,010	7,860 13 2
Salop - -	675,449	87,244 11 10	Sligo - - -	46,219	4,648 4 9
Sheffield - -	743,877	96,084 2 2	Tralee - - -	17,883	2,309 17 9
Stafford - -	573,573	74,086 10 3	Waterford - -	125,487	16,208 14 9
Stourbridge - -	789,519	101,979 10 9	Wexford - -	321,341	41,508 10 11
Suffolk - -	1,299,707	167,887 3 1	Dublin - - -	68,710	8,733 6 5
Surrey - -	1,271,743	164,266 16 1		2,353,608	288,507 12 9
Sussex - -	539,124	69,636 17 0			
Uxbridge - -	588,926	76,069 12 2			
Wales, East -	496,518	64,137 9 0			
Middle -	304,367	38,022 8 1			
North -	296,807	38,337 11 5			
West -	219,697	28,377 10 7			
Wellington - -	312,307	40,347 8 1	TOTALS.		
Whitby - -	214,984	27,768 15 4			
Worcester - -	380,134	49,100 12 10	England - -	36,078,712	4,660,166 19 4
York - - -	570,125	73,641 2 11			
			Scotland - -	4,458,770	* 551,016 0 4
Country collections	36,019,290	4,652,491 12 6			
London - - -	59,422	7,675 6 10	Ireland - -	2,353,608	288,507 12 9
Total -	36,078,712	4,660,166 19 4	United Kingdom -	42,891,090	5,499,780 12 5

Regulations as to the Manufacture of Malt.—These are embodied in the acts 7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 52. and 11 Geo. 4. c. 17. The former act is exceedingly complex: it has no fewer than *eighty three* clauses; and the regulations embodied in it, though frequently repugnant to common sense, are enforced by 108 penalties, amounting in all to the enormous sum of 13,600*l.*! Under such a statute, it was hardly possible for the most honest and cautious maltster to avoid incurring penalties. Such, indeed, in the nature of this act, that one is almost tempted to believe, in looking into it, that if its framers had any object more than another at heart, it was to condense into it whatever was most contradictory and absurd in the *forty* statutes that had previously been passed for the collection of the malt duty and the oppression of the trade! But it was not in the nature of things that such a law could be allowed to exist for any considerable period. It was not only loudly and universally condemned by the maltsters, but by all the more intelligent officers of excise. In consequence, the 11 Geo. 4. c. 17. was passed. This latter statute is entitled to very considerable praise; it repeals a good many of the penalties, and some of the most vexatious and useless regulations, in the former; so that the business may now be carried on with equal security to the revenue, and with infinitely less risk and annoyance on the part of the manufacturer. The existing regulations principally refer to the gauging of the cisterns, the wetting of the malt, the emptying of the cisterns, the gauging of the malt when in the couch frames, the payment of the duties, &c. But as no one would think of undertaking the business of a maltster without having a copy of both acts in his possession, it would be quite unnecessary for us, even if our limits permitted, to give any abstract of these acts. The license duty on maltsters, and the number of maltsters who took out licenses in 1832, distributed into classes according to the extent of their business, will be found specified in the article *Licenses (Excise)*.

Malt may not be imported into the United Kingdom for home use under pain of forfeiture; but it may be warehoused for exportation. —(*6 Geo. 4. c. 107. sect. 52.*)

MALTA, an island in the Mediterranean, nearly opposite to the southern extremity of Sicily, from which it is about 54 miles distant.

Valetta, the capital, is situated on the north coast of the island, the light-house in the castle of St. Elmo being in lat. 35° 54′ 0″ N., lon. 14° 31′ 10″ E. Malta is about 29 miles long, and 10 or 12 broad. The island of Gozo, about a fourth part of the size of Malta, lies to the north-west of the latter, at about 4 miles' distance; and in the strait between them is the small island of Cumino. In 1835, the resident population of Malta amounted to 109,154; and including troops and strangers, the total population amounted to 106,578. The population of Gozo, at the same period, was 16,547. The total population of both islands making 123,125. The entire revenue collected in Malta amounts to about 100,000*l.* a year, of which about 23,000*l.* is derived from the rent of lands; the expenditure, exclusive of that incurred in England on account of the island, amounts to about 88,000*l.*

Valetta, the capital of the island, is defended by almost impregnable fortifications. "These," says Mr. Brydone, "are, indeed, most stupendous works. All the boasted catacombs of Rome and Naples are a trifle to the immense excavations that have been made in this little island. The ditches of a vast size, are all cut out of the solid rock: these extend for a great many miles; and raise our astonishment to think that so small a state has ever been able to make them." —(*Tour through Sicily and Malta*, Letter 15.) Since the island came into our possession, the fortifications have been considerably improved; so that at present it is a place of very great strength.

After the capture of Rhodes by the Turks, the Emperor Charles V. made a present of Malta to the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, in whose possession it remained till 1798, when it was taken by the French. It was taken from the latter by the English in 1800; and was definitively ceded to us in 1814.

The island consists mostly of a rock, very thinly covered with soil, a good deal of which has been brought, at an immense expense, from Sicily; but being cultivated with the utmost care, it produces excellent fruits, particularly the celebrated Maltese oranges, corn, cotton, with small quantities of indigo, saffron, and sugar. The principal dependence of the inhabitants is on their cotton; the crop of which, amounting to about 4,000,000 lbs. a year, is partly exported raw and partly manufactured to the value of from 80,000*l.* to 100,000*l.* The corn raised in the island is not sufficient to feed the inhabitants for more than 5 or 6 months. The trade in corn used to be monopolised by government; and after the monopoly was abandoned, duties on importation, varying, like those in this country, with the price, were imposed. But in 1835 these duties were abolished; and the fixed duties on corn entered for consumption, specified in the subjoined tariff, were substituted in their stead.

Malta presents unusual facilities, which have not hitherto been taken proper advantage of, for becoming the entrepôt of the corn trade of the Mediterranean and Black Sea. Her warehouses for corn are, like those of Sicily and Barbary, excavated in the rock; and are, perhaps, the best fitted of any in Europe for the safe keeping of corn. The present lodging of grain may be preserved an indefinite period; and it is affirmed that though it should, on being deposited, be affected by the weevil, it is very soon freed from that destructive insect. It is not often that corn can be brought direct from Odessa, Taganrog, &c. to England, without the risk of being damaged; but were it brought in the first instance to Malta, and landed there, it might afterwards be conveyed in the best order to London, or any where else. Malta is also admirably well suited for becoming the centre of the corn trade of Egypt, Barbary, Italy, &c.

During the late war, particularly during the period when Napoleon's anti-commercial system was in operation, Malta became a great entrepôt for colonial and other goods, which were thence conveyed, according as opportunities offered, to the adjacent ports. This commerce ceased with the circumstances that gave it birth; and for some years after the return of peace, the trade of the island was depressed below its natural level, by the imposition of various oppressive discriminating duties. In 1819, this vexatious system was partially obviated; but it continued to exert a pernicious influence till 1837, when, pursuant to the recommendation of Messrs. Austin and Lewis, Commissioners of Inquiry, the then existing tariffs of customs duties and port charges were wholly abolished; and a new tariff (which is subjoined) was issued in their stead. It imposes moderate duties, for the sake of revenue only, on a few articles in general demand, without regard to the country from whence they come, at the same time that it equalises the tonnage duties, and reduces the warehouse rent on articles in bond to the lowest level. Every thing has thus been done that was possible to secure the natural advantages enjoyed by Malta for becoming the grand entrepôt of the Mediterranean trade: and we have little doubt they will powerfully contribute to bring about that result.

There are some good springs of fresh water. Valetta is partly supplied by water brought by an aqueduct a distance of about 6 miles, and partly by the rain water collected in cisterns.

Harbour.—The harbour of Valetta is double, and is one of the finest in the world. The city is built on a narrow tongue of land, having the castle and light of St. Elmo at its extremity and an admirable port on each side. That on the south-eastern side, denominated the grand port, is the most frequented. The entrance to it, about 250 fathoms wide, has the formidable batteries of St. Elmo on the one hand, and those of Fort Ricasoli on the other. In entering, it is necessary not to come within 50 or 60 fathoms of the former, on account of a spit which projects from it; but in the rest of the channel there is from 10 to 12 fathoms water. The port, which runs about 1 3-4 mile inwards, has deep water and excellent anchorage throughout; the largest men of war coming close to the quays. Port Marsamuscett, on the north-western side of the city, is also a noble harbour. The entrance to it, which is about the same breadth as that of the Grand Port, is between St. Elmo and Fort Tigne. In the centre of the basin is an island, on which are built a castle and a lazaretto, for the convenience of the ships performing quarantine, by which the port is principally used. Owing to the narrowness of the entrance, and the usual variableness of the wind, it is customary for most vessels bound for Valetta to take a pilot on board before entering the harbour.

TARIFF (A).—Duties on Imports, and Dues for Store Rent, which the Collector of Customs is required to levy on the Account of the Government of Malta.

	Import Duties.	Store Rents on Articles lodged in Bond.
	L. *s.* *d.*	*L.* *s.* *d.*
Beer, per Maltese barrel	0 2 0	0 0 1
Cattle: bullocks, and other animals of the kind, per head	0 10 0	
Horses and mules, per head	1 0 0	
Charcoal, per salm	0 0 6	0 0 1
Grain:—		
Wheat, per salm	0 10 0	0 0 2
Indian corn, per salm	0 6 0	0 0 2
Barley, per salm	0 4 0	0 0 2
Saggina, per salm	0 3 0	0 0 2
Other inferior grains	0 5 0	0 0 2
Manufactured grain, per cantar	0 6 0	0 0 2
Wheat, indian corn, barley, or other inferior grains, if damaged so as to be unfit for the food of man (commonly called *remenziezzo*), per salm	0 2 0	0 0 2
Manufactured grain, if damaged so as to be unfit for the food of man, per cantar	0 2 0	0 0 2
Oil, olive, per caffiso	0 0 6	0 0 1
Potatoes, per cantar	0 0 10	0 0 2
Pulse and seeds		
Beans, caravances, chick-peas, kidney-beans, lentils, lupins, peas, and vetches, per salm	0 2 0	0 0 2
Carob-beans and cotton seeds, per cantar	0 0 6	0 0 2
Spirits; viz. for every Maltese barrel of such spirits of any strength, not exceeding the strength of proof, by Sykes's hydrometer (namely London proof), and so in proportion for any greater strength than the strength of proof	1 2 0	0 0 2
Vinegar, per Maltese barrel	0 2 0	0 0 2
Wines, the value of which shall exceed 15*l.* per pipe of 11 Maltese barrels, per Maltese barrel	0 11 0	0 0 2
All other wines, per Maltese barrel	0 2 0	0 0 2

Observations.—1. The duties payable by the salm on grain, pulse, and seeds (except large Sicilian beans) to be charged by the strike measure. The duties on large Sicilian beans and on charcoal to be charged by the heaped measure.

2. Every liquid compounded of spirit and any other ingredient or ingredients, and containing more than 25 per cent. of spirit of the strength of proof, to be liable to the duty on spirits which is imposed by the present tariff.

3. The store rents on grain lodged in bond to be payable from the day on which the grain was lodged. The store rents on every other article mentioned in the present tariff to be payable from the tenth day after the day on which such article was lodged.

TARIFF (B).—Tonnage dues which the Collector of Customs is required to levy on the Account of the Government of Malta.

Vessels discharging merchandise in the island, shall, on clearing outwards, pay for every ton or any part thereof . . 0*l.*

TARIFF (C).—Fees which the Collector of Customs is required to levy on the Account of the Government of Malta.

	L. *s.* *d.*
For each certificate under the office seal	0 2 6
For each sheet of printed official forms	0 0 1

Tariff of Dues authorised to be levied for Account of Government, by the Superintendent of Quarantine, Malta.

Shipping in Quarantine.—1. Vessels entered upon a quarantine to pay, for each day of their continuance in port, as follows:—

	s.	d.
Vessels not exceeding 25 tons	0	6
— from 26 tons to 50 —	1	0
— from 51 — 100 —	1	6
— from 101 — 150 —	2	0
— from 151 — 200 —	2	6
— from 201 — 250 —	3	0
— from 251 and upwards	3	0

2. Vessels of whatever size, sailing in quarantine, having entered upon the performance thereof, to pay at the above rates, but in no case more than 2*l.* a day for the remainder of the term of quarantine.

3. Vessels liable to quarantine, not having entered upon the performance thereof, to pay 2*s.* for each day of their continuance in port.

4. Vessels compelled by stress of weather to enter the great harbour, to be subject, while they remain there, to the additional charge of 2*s.* a day, for every guard boat which the Superintendent of Quarantine may deem it necessary to place over them.

*** Any vessel in quarantine entering the great harbour, without a justifiable cause, incurs the penalty of 200 dollars imposed by the second article of the proclamation, dated 12th October, 1830. (No. 2111.)

5. Vessels having contagious diseases on board to pay an extra rate in proportion to the expense that may be incurred, but in no case to exceed 20*s.* a day, in addition to the usual rate.

Effects received into the lazaret for deperation to be chargeable with a due proportion of the actual expense thereof, which, at present, on ordinary occasions, is at the rate of 2*s.* 6*d.* a day for each guardian, and 1*s.* 5*d.* a day for each labourer, whom it may be necessary to employ.

	s.	d.
Cattle landed in the lazaret to be chargeable, for each		
Horse, mule, or ass	2	0
Bullock, or other animal of the kind	2	0
Sheep, goat, pig, or other small animal	1	0

Persons performing quarantine in the lazaret, to pay at the rate of 2*s.* 6*d.* a day, for each guardian employed, but no single individual to be chargeable with more than 1*l.* 5*d.* a day.

Documents issued under the office seal, 2*s.* 6*d.* each.

Table exhibiting the various Articles, and their Value, in Sterling Money imported into the Island of Malta during each of the Four Years ending with 1837.

Species of Imports.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.
	L.	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*
Manufactures of all sorts	160,982	131,654	136,988	119,096
Sugar, refined and crushed	23,353	16,905	19,152	16,522
Coffee and cocoa	16,939	12,788	19,926	18,741
Indigo	1,443	1,482	1,180	781
Rum	6,980	3,859	10,419	2,740
Spices	27,390	17,461	22,429	17,799
Raw sugar	2,488	2,019	2,922	2,989
Tea	1,171	2,970	2,178	1,952
Brimstone				
Drugs and articles used in dying	2,646	4,427	3,463	2,446
Flax, hemp and tow	2,920	906	3,249	2,340
Hides, salted and dried	4,977	14,888	10,084	6,579
Resin and tar	645	1,589	1,978	3,007
Seeds in general	4,167	4,069	4,339	4,654
Raw silk	13	1,335	5	946
Tobacco leaf	15,335	21,766	20,445	14,396
Wax	464	231	1,864	2,175
Wood (timber, deals, &c.)	8,378	10,457	6,158	8,450
Wool and cotton wool	257	2,548	1,856	2,985
Miscellanies (raw materials)	2,103	2,876	2,664	1,283
Beans, peas, caravances, saggina, &c.	29,065	28,894	42,529	29,858
Biscuit	190	277	1,516	none

Species of Imports.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.
	L.	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*
Bullocks, pigs, and sheep	24,418	27,729	31,230	11,711
Carob-beans	3,102	5,348	5,192	2,451
Coals and charcoal	10,858	10,514	25,521	18,778
Cheese	4,522	4,474	12,381	12,676
Fish, salted and dried	11,476	12,183	15,901	5,566
Flour	182	619	1,133	398
Fruits, dried	16,960	14,467	34,208	10,756
Grain, viz.—Wheat	96,337	106,577	114,923	87,413
Indian corn	6,978	5,188	631	3,105
Barley	6,389	7,166	6,318	3,549
Meat, salted, and dried	6,511	3,323	2,963	426
Mules, horses, and asses	848	527	516	995
Olive and linseed oil	26,730	24,422	36,738	29,545
Olives, salted	1,050	431	736	452
Olive stones and firewood	5,516	6,967	5,765	6,319
Paste and macaroni	700	1,324	992	806
Potatoes	1,814	1,606	2,108	3,140
Rice	2,665	4,143	1,056	1,121
Spirits (brandy and gin)	6,052	17,629	10,041	8,463
Vinegar	1,453	892	1,830	827
Wines	42,891	40,369	67,722	71,963
Miscellanies (provisions)	1,636	2,687	1,827	954
Totals	291,666	370,262	435,531	347,484

List of Vessels belonging to the Island of Malta on the 1st of January, 1838.

Vessels.	Sizes.	Tons.
38	under 10 tons each	245
25	from 10 to 25 tons	364
9	25 to 50	168
18	50 to 100	1,402
20	100 to 150	4,659
21	150 to 200	3,837
10	200 to 250	2,265
10	250 to 300	2,720
6	300 tons and upwards	2,040
171	of all sizes, making	17,500

Movement of Shipping at Malta, during each of the Four Years ending with 1837.

The Year and Sizes.	Ships inwards. No.	Ships inwards. Tons.	Ships inwards. Men.	Ships outwards. No.	Ships outwards. Tons.	Ships outwards. Men.
1834.						
Vessels above 40 tons	935	140,632	10,052	1,025	153,116	10,992
under 40	788	14,299	7,586	715	15,682	7,852
Total	1,723	154,931	17,638	1,740	168,798	18,844
1835.						
Vessels above 40 tons	1,151	187,159	12,431	1,232	197,678	13,230
under 40	916	18,479	8,836	955	18,210	6,071
Total	2,067	205,638	21,267	2,187	215,888	19,301
1836.						
Vessels above 40 tons	1,268	186,616	12,891	1,361	202,737	13,983
under 40	700	12,884	6,745	732	13,530	7,059
Total	1,968	199,500	19,636	2,093	216,267	20,922
1837.						
Vessels above 40 tons	1,129	157,079	11,673	1,198	168,298	12,434
under 40	420	8,275	3,924	439	8,634	4,101
Total	1,549	165,334	15,597	1,637	177,032	16,535

Average Prices of Wheat in Entrepôt at Malta, during each of the Ten Years ending with 1837, per Salme, in Sterling Money.

Year.	Price.
	L. s. d.
1828	1 16 1 3-4
1829	1 15 10 1-4
1830	1 9 2 1-2
1831	1 12 3 1-2
1832	1 12 3 1-2
1833	1 9 1 3-4
1834	1 9 10 1-4
1835	1 10 2 3-4
1836	1 7 1 1-4
1837	1 6 9

The central position, excellent port, and great strength of Malta, make it an admirable naval station for the repair and accommodation of the men-of-war and merchant ships frequenting the Mediterranean, and render its possession of material importance to the British empire. Since Malta built vessels were admitted into the ports of the United Kingdom on the same terms as those of British built, the trade of ship-building has materially increased in the island. The Maltese shipwrights are diligent expert workmen; and, their wages being moderate, it is a favourable place for careening. Owing to the want of a dry dock, all ships above the size of a sloop of war, that require to have their bottoms examined, have to come to England for that purpose. This, surely, should be obviated. Quarantine is strictly enforced at Malta; but there is every facility for its performance, and the charges are less than at any other port in the Mediterranean.

Malta is now the centre of a very extensive steam-packet system: the steamers from England for the Ionian Islands, Constantinople, Alexandria, and other ports of the Levant, touching here. The French steamers from these ports usually perform quarantine at Malta.

Money.—In 1825, British silver money was introduced into Malta; the Spanish dollar being made legal tender at the rate of 4*s.* 4*d.*; the Sicilian dollar at 4*s.* 2*d.*; and the scudo of Malta at 1*s.* 8*d.*

Weights and Measures.—The pound or rottolo, commercial weight = 30 oncie = 12,216 English grains. Hence 100 rottoli (the cantaro) = 174 1-2 lbs. avoirdupois, or 79·14 kilog. Merchants usually reckon the cantaro at 175 lbs.

The salma of corn, stricken measure = 8·221 Winchester bushels; heaped measure is reckoned 16 per cent. more. The caffiso, or measure for oil, contains 5 1-2 English gallons = 25·018 litres. The barrel is double the caffiso. The Maltese foot = 11 1-6th English inches = ·2835 mètres. The canna = 8 palmi = 81·9 English inches = 2·079 mètres. Merchants usually convert Malta measure into English in the proportion of 3 1-3 palmi to a yard, or 2 2-7th yards to 1 canna.

Bills on London are usually drawn at 30 and 60 days' sight. The deputy commissary general is obliged to grant, at all times, bills on the treasury here for British silver tendered to him, at the rate of 100*l.* bill for every 101*l.* 10*s.* silver, receiving, at the same time, other silver at a fluctuating rate of exchange.

MAN (ISLE OF) is, as every one knows, situated in the Irish sea, at about an equal distance from England, Scotland, and Ireland. It is about 30 miles long, and 10 or 12 broad. The interior is mountainous, and the soil no where very productive. Population

in 1831, 40,985. This island used to be one of the principal stations of the herring fishery; but for a considerable period it has been comparatively deserted by the herring shoals,—a circumstance which is not to be regretted; for the fishery, by withdrawing the attention of the inhabitants from agriculture and manufactures, and leading them to engage in what has usually been a gambling and unproductive business, has been, on the whole, injurious to the island. The steam packets from Glasgow to Liverpool touch at the Isle of Man; which has, in consequence, begun to be largely frequented by visiters from these cities, and other parts of the empire, whose influx has materially contributed to the improvement of Douglas and other towns.

The feudal sovereignty of Man was formerly vested in the Earls of Derby, and more recently in the Dukes of Athol,—a circumstance which accounts for the fact of the duties on most commodities consumed in the island having been, for a lengthened period, much lower than those on the same commodities when consumed in Great Britain. This distinction, which still subsists, has produced a great deal of smuggling, and been in no ordinary degree injurious to the revenue and trade of the empire. During the present century, indeed, the clandestine trade of Man has been confined within comparatively narrow limits; but to accomplish this, a considerable extra force of Custom-house officers and revenue cruisers is required, and the intercourse with the island has to be subjected to various restraints. Nothing, as it appears to us, can be more impolitic than the continuance of such a system. The public has, at a very heavy expense, purchased all the feudal rights of the Athol family; and having done so, it is certainly high time that an end were put to the anomalous absurdity of having a considerable island, lying, as it were, in the very centre of the empire, and in the direct line between some of the principal trading towns, with different duties on many important articles! It might be necessary, perhaps, to make some compensation to the inhabitants for such a change; and this might be done, with advantage to them and without expense to the public, by modifying and improving the internal regulations and policy of the island, which are very much in need of amendment. We do not, indeed, imagine that the island would lose any thing by the proposed alteration; for the temptation which the present system holds out to engage in smuggling enterprises diverts the population from the regular pursuits of industry, and, along with the herring lottery, is the principal cause of that idleness for which the Manx are so notorious. We subjoin an

ABSTRACT OF 3 & 4 WILL. IV., c. 60., FOR REGULATING THE TRADE OF THE ISLE OF MAN.

Commencement.—To commence the 1st of September, 1833.—§ 1.

Duties payable on the Importation of Goods into the Isle of Man.—There shall be raised, levied, collected, and paid unto his Majesty, his heirs and successors, the several duties of customs respectively set forth in the table herein-after contained, denominated "Table of Duties," upon importation into the Isle of Man of the several goods, wares, and merchandise, according to the quantity or value thereof specified in such table, and so in proportion for any greater or less quantity or value of the same; (that is to say,)

Table of Duties.

A Table of the Duties of Customs payable on Goods, Wares, and Merchandise imported into the Isle of Man.

	£.	s.	d.
Coals, from the United Kingdom		Free.	
Coffee, the duties of consumption in the United Kingdom not having been then paid thereon, the lb.	0	0	4
Hemp, the cwt.	0	0	1
Hops, from the United Kingdom, the lb.	0	0	1½
Iron, from foreign parts, for every 100l. of the value thereof	10	0	0
Spirits; viz.—			
Foreign spirits, the gallon	0	4	6
Rum of the British plantations, not exceeding the strength of proof by Sikes's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater strength the gallon	0	3	0
Sugar, muscovado, the cwt.	0	1	0
Tea; viz.—			
Bohea, the lb.	0	0	6
Green, the lb.	0	1	0
Tobacco, the lb.	0	1	6
Wine; viz.—			
French, the tun of 252 gallons	16	0	0
any other sort, the tun of 252 gallons	12	0	0
Wood, from foreign parts; viz.—			
Deal boards, for every 100l. of the value thereof	10	0	0
Timber, for every 100l. of the value thereof	10	0	0
Goods, wares, and merchandise imported from the United Kingdom, and entitled to any bounty or drawback of excise on exportation from thence, and not herein-before enumerated or charged with duty, for every 100l. of the value thereof	5	0	0
Goods, wares, and merchandise imported from the United Kingdom, and not herein-before charged with duty, for every 100l. of the value thereof	2	10	0
Goods, wares, or merchandise imported from any place from whence such goods may be lawfully imported into the Isle of Man, and not herein-before charged with duty, for every 100l. of the value thereof	15	0	0

Except the several goods, wares, and merchandise following, and which are to be imported into the Isle of Man duty free, (that is to say,)

Flax, flax seed, raw or brown linen yarn, wood ashes, weed ashes, flesh of all sorts; also corn, grain, or meal of all sorts, when importable; any of which goods, wares, or merchandise may be imported into the said isle from any place in any ship or vessel.

Any sort of white or brown linen cloth, hemp, hemp seed, horse, black cattle, sheep; all utensils and instruments fit and necessary to be employed in manufactures, in fisheries, or in agriculture; bricks, tiles, all sorts of young trees, sea shells, lime, soapers' waste, packthread, small cordage, for nets, salt, boards, timber, wood hoops, being the growth, production, or manufacture of the United Kingdom, and imported from thence in British ships.

Iron in rods or bars, cotton, indigo, naval stores, and any sort of wood commonly called lumber, (viz. deals of all sorts, timber, balks of all sizes, barrel boards, clap boards, pipe boards, or pipe hoop, white boards for shoemakers, hroom and cant spars, bow staves, espevan, clap holt, ebony wood, headings for pipes and for hogsheads, and for barrels, hoops for coopers, oars, pipe and hogshead staves, barrel staves, firkin staves, trunnels, speckled wood, sweet wood, small spars, oak plank, and wainscot,) being of the growth, production, or manufacture of any British colony or plantation in America or the West Indies, and imported from the United Kingdom in British ships.—Sect. 2.

British Goods from the United Kingdom to appear upon the Cockets.—No goods shall be entered in the Isle of Man as being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom, or as being imported from thence, except such goods as shall appear upon the cocket or cockets of the ship or vessel importing the same to have been duly cleared at some port in the United Kingdom, to be exported to the said Isle.—§ 3.

Goods enumerated in the following Schedule importable only under Licence.—The several sorts of goods enumerated or described in the schedule herein-after contained, denominated "Schedule of Licence Goods," shall not be imported into the Isle of Man, nor exported from any place to be carried to the Isle of Man, without the licence of the commissioners of customs first obtained, nor in greater quantities in the whole, in any one year, than the respective quantities of such goods specified in the said schedule; and such goods shall not be so exported nor so imported, except from the respective places set forth in the said schedule, and according to the rules subjoined thereto; (that is to say,)

Schedule of Licence Goods.

Wine, 110 tuns.
Spirits; viz.—
Foreign brandy, 10,000 gallons.
Foreign geneva, 10,000 gallons.
From the United Kingdom, or from any place from which the same might be imported into the United Kingdom, for consumption therein.
Rum of the British plantations, 60,000 gallons.
From Great Britain.
Raisins, 70,000 lbs.
Green tea, 5,000 lbs.
Coffee (unless the duties of consumption in the United Kingdom shall have been then paid thereon), 8,000 lbs.
Tobacco, 60,000 lbs.
Muscovado sugar, of the British possessions, 10,000 cwt.
Playing cards, 4,000 packs.
From England.
Refined sugar, 800 cwt.
From the port of Liverpool.
And such additional quantities of any such several sorts of goods as the commissioners of his Majesty's treasury shall from time to time, under any special circumstances of necessity, direct, from such ports respectively: subject to the rules following; (that is to say,)

1. All such goods to be imported into the port of Douglas, and by his Majesty's subjects, and in British ships or vessels of the burden of 50 tons or upwards:
2. Such tobacco to be shipped only in ports in England, where tobacco is allowed to be imported and warehoused without payment of duty:
3. Such wine to be so imported only in casks or packages containing not less than a hogshead each, or in cases containing not less than 3 dozen reputed quart bottles, or 6 dozen reputed pint bottles each:
4. Such brandy and geneva to be imported only in casks containing 100 gallons each, at least:
5. Such brandy and geneva not to be of greater or higher degree of strength than that of 1 to 9 over hydrometer proof:
6. Such goods, when exported from Great Britain, may be so exported from the warehouse in which they have been secured without payment of duty:
7. If the duties of importation have been paid in the United Kingdom on such goods, a full drawback of such duties shall be allowed on the exportation:
8. Upon the exportation from Liverpool of such refined sugar, the same bounty shall be allowed as would be allowable on exportation to foreign parts:
9. Upon exportation from the United Kingdom of any such goods from the warehouse, or for drawback, or for bounty, so much of the form of the bond, or of the declaration, or of any other document, required in the case of exportation of such goods generally to foreign parts, as is intended to prevent the landing of the same in the Isle of Man shall be omitted:
10. No drawback or bounty to be allowed, nor export bond cancelled, until a certificate of the due landing of the goods at the port of Douglas be produced from the collector and comptroller of the customs at that port.
11. If any goods be laden at any foreign port or place, the species and quantity of such goods, with the marks, numbers, and denominations of the casks or packages containing the same, shall be indorsed on the licence, and signed by the British consul at the port of lading, or, if there be no British consul, by two known British merchants:
12. Upon importation into the port of Douglas of any such goods, the licence for the same shall be delivered up to the collector or comptroller of that port.—Sect. 4.

Application for Licence to be delivered to Officers between May and July.—Every application for licence to import any of the goods aforesaid into the Isle of Man shall be made in writing, and delivered, between the 5th day of May and the 5th day of July in each year, to the collector or comptroller of the port of Douglas in the said isle; and such application shall specify the date thereof, and the name, residence, and occupation of the person applying, and the description and quantity of each article for which such licence is required; and all such applications, with such particulars, shall be entered in a book to be kept at the Custom-house at the port of Douglas, and to be there open for public inspection during the hours of business; and on the 5th day of July in each year such book shall be closed; and within 14 days thereafter the collector and comptroller shall make out and sign a true copy of such entries, specifying the applicants resident, and the applicants not resident in the said isle, and deliver or transmit such copy to the governor or lieutenant-governor of the said isle for the time being.—§ 5.

Governor to allot Quantities.—Within 14 days after the receipt of such copy, the governor or lieutenant-governor of the said isle shall allot the whole quantity of each article, in the first place, among the applicants resident in the said island, in case the whole quantity of any article shall not have been applied for by residents; then shall allot the quantity not so applied for among the non-resident applicants, in such proportions in all cases as he shall judge most fair and equitable; and shall cause a report thereon to be drawn up in writing, and sign and transmit the same to the Lords Commissioners of his Majesty's Treasury of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and shall cause a duplicate of such report so signed, to be transmitted to the commissioners of customs.—§ 6.

Commissioners of Customs to grant Licences.—Upon receipt of such duplicate report the commissioners of customs shall grant licenses, to continue in force for any period until the 5th of July then next ensuing, for the importation into the Isle of Man of the quantities of such goods as are allowed by law to be so imported, with their licence, according to the allotments in such report, and dividing the whole portion allotted to any one applicant into several licences, as they shall be desired and see fit; and such licences shall be transmitted without delay to the collector and comptroller of Douglas, to be by them delivered to the different applicants, after taking bond for the same under the provisions of this act.—§ 7.

Before Delivery of Licences, Bond to be given.—Previous to the delivery of any such licences to the persons to whom they are granted, the collector and comptroller of Douglas shall take the bond of such persons to his Majesty, his heirs and successors, with sufficient security, for the importation of the articles for which the said licences are respectively granted, on or before the 5th day of July succeeding the delivery of such licences, with such conditions, and for the forfeiture of such sums, not exceeding the whole amount of duties payable in Great Britain on articles similar to those specified in such licences, as the commissioners of customs shall think fit: provided always, that if any person to whom such licence shall be granted shall not have given such bond prior to the 5th day of January next after the granting such licence, it shall be lawful for the governor or lieutenant-governor of the said isle, if he shall see fit, to transfer any such licence to any other person who shall be desirous to take up the same, and willing and able to give such bond; and such transfer shall be notified by indorsement on the licence, signed by such governor or lieutenant-governor.—§ 8.

Counterfeiting or falsifying Licence, Penalty 500*l.*—If any person or persons shall counterfeit or falsify any licence or other document required for the importation into the Isle of Man of any goods which would otherwise be prohibited to be imported into the said isle, or shall knowingly or wilfully make use of any such licence, or other document so counterfeited or falsified, such person or persons shall, for every such offence, forfeit the sum of 500*l.*—§ 9.

Licence Goods not to be re-exported, &c.—It shall not be lawful to re-export from the Isle of Man any goods which have been imported into the said isle with licence of the commissioners of customs as aforesaid; and it shall not be lawful to carry any such goods coastwise from one part of the said isle to another, except in vessels of 50 tons burden at the least, and in the same packages in which such goods were imported into the said isle; and it shall not be lawful to remove any wine from one part of the said isle to another, by and except in such packages or in bottles.—§ 10.

Foreign Goods not to be exported to United Kingdom.—It shall not be lawful to export from the Isle of Man to any part of the United Kingdom any goods which are of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any foreign country.—§ 11.

Goods imported or exported, &c. contrary to Law forfeited, &c.—If any goods shall be imported into or exported from the Isle of Man, or carried coastwise from one part of the said isle to another part of the same, or shall be waterborne, or brought to any wharf or other place with intent to be waterborne, to be so exported or carried, or shall be removed by land within the said isle, contrary to any of the directions or provisions of this act, the same, and the packages containing the same, shall be forfeited, together with all ships, vessels, or boats, and all cattle and carriages used or employed therein; and every person offending therein shall forfeit, for every such offence, the sum of 100*l.*, or the full amount of all duties which would be payable in respect of such or similar goods, for home consumption of the same, in the United Kingdom, at the election of the commissioners of customs.—§ 12.

Goods prohibited to be imported into the Isle of Man.—The several sorts of goods enumerated or de-

scribed in the schedule herein-after contained, denominated "Schedule of Prohibitions," shall not be imported into the Isle of Man; (that is to say,)

Schedule of Prohibitions.

Goods, the produce or manufacture of places within the limits of the United East India Company's charter; except from the United Kingdom:
Cotton yarn, cotton cloth, linen cloth, glass manufactures, woollen manufactures, unless bona fide laden in and imported directly from the United Kingdom:
Spirits of greater strength than 1 to 9 over hydrometer proof except spirits the produce of the British possessions in America, or the Cape of Good Hope;
British distilled spirits:
All goods prohibited to be imported into the United Kingdom to be used or consumed therein, on account of the nature or description of the same.—Sect. 13.

Limiting the Quantity of Spirits, Tea, and Tobacco for Uses of Seamen.—If any decked vessel, bound from the Isle of Man to any port of Great Britain or Ireland, shall have on board for the use of the seamen, any spirits exceeding the quantity of ¼ gallon for each seaman, or any tobacco exceeding 1 lb. weight for each seaman, or any tea exceeding 2 lbs. weight for the whole of the seaman on board such vessel, or if any open boat, bound from the Isle of Man to any port of Great Britain or Ireland, shall have on board, for the use of the seamen, any spirits exceeding 1 quart for each seaman, or any tobacco exceeding ¼ lb. weight for each seaman, or any tea exceeding 1 lb. weight for the whole of the seamen on board such boat, all such foreign spirits, tobacco, and tea respectively, together with the casks or packages containing the same, and also every such vessel or boat, together with all the guns, furniture, ammunition, tackle, and apparel thereof, shall be forfeited.—§ 14.

Certificate for Goods the Produce of the Isle of Man.—Before any goods shall be shipped in the Isle of Man for exportation to the United Kingdom, as being the produce or manufacture of that island, proof shall be made by the written declaration of some competent person, to the satisfaction of the collector and comptroller of the customs at the port of shipment, that such goods, describing and identifying the same, are the produce or the manufacture, as the case may be, of the said island, and in such declaration shall be stated the name of the person by whom such goods are intended to be entered and shipped; and such person, at the time of entry (not being more than 1 month after the date of such declaration) shall make and subscribe a declaration before such collector or comptroller, that the goods to be shipped in virtue of the entry are the same as are mentioned in such declaration; and thereupon the collector and comptroller shall, on demand, give to the master of the ship in which the goods are to be exported a certificate of such proof of produce, or of manufacture, having been made in respect of such goods, describing the same, and setting forth the name of the exporter, and of the exporting ship, and of the master thereof, and the destination of the goods; and such certificate shall be received at the port of importation in the United Kingdom, instead of the certificate of the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of the said island, heretofore required.—§ 15.

Management of Duties.—Section 16. relates to the appropriation of the duties, and is of no commercial importance.

MANGANESE (Ger. *Braunstein, Glasseise*; Du. *Bruinsteen*; Fr. *Manganèse, Magnesie, Savon du verre*; It. *Manganesia*; Sp. *Manganesia*; Lat. *Magnesia nigra, Manganesium*), a metal which, when pure, is of a greyish white colour, like cast iron, and has a good deal of brilliancy. Its texture is granular; it has neither taste nor smell; it is softer than cast iron, and may be filed; its specific gravity is 8. It is very brittle, and can neither be hammered nor drawn out into wire. Its tenacity is unknown. When exposed to the air, it attracts oxygen with considerable rapidity. It soon loses its lustre, and becomes grey, violet, brown, and at last black. These changes take place still more rapidly if the metal be heated in an open vessel. Ores of manganese are common in Devonshire, Somersetshire, &c. The ore of manganese, known in Derbyshire by the name of *black wadd*, is remarkable for its spontaneous inflammation with oil. Oxide of manganese is of considerable use; it is employed in making oxymuriatic acid, for forming bleaching liquor. It is also used in glazing black earthenware, for giving colours to enamels, and in the manufacture of porcelain. It is the substance generally used by chemists for obtaining oxygen gas.—(*Thomson's Chemistry, &c.*)

MANGEL WURZEL, or FIELD BEET (Fr. *Betteraves*; Ger. *Mangold Wurzel*; It. *Biettola*), a mongrel between the red and white beet. It has been a good deal cultivated in France, Germany, and Switzerland, partly as food for cattle, and partly to be used in distillation, and in the extraction of sugar. Its culture in Great Britain is very recent; and Mr. Loudon questions whether it has any advantages over the turnip for general agricultural purposes. The preparation of the soil is exactly the same as for turnips, and immense crops are raised on strong clays. The produce per acre is about the same as that of the Swedish turnip: it is applied almost entirely to the fattening of stock, and the feeding of milch cows.—(*Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture.*)

MANNA (Fr. *Manne*; Ger. *Mannaesche*; It. *Manna*), the concrete juice of the *Fraxinus ornus*, a species of ash growing in the south of Europe. The juice exudes spontaneously in warm dry weather, and concretes into whitish tears; but the greater part of the manna of commerce is obtained by making incisions in the tree, and gathering the juice in baskets, where it forms irregular masses of a reddish or brownish colour often full of impurities. Manna is imported in chests, principally from Sicily and Calabria. The best is in oblong pieces or flakes, moderately dry, friable, light, of a whitish or pale yellow colour, and in some degree transparent: the inferior kinds are moist, unctuous, and brown. It has a slight peculiar odour, and a sweet taste, with some degree of bitterness not very pleasant, and leaving a nauseous impression on the tongue.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

MANIFEST, in commercial navigation, is a document signed by the master, containing the name or names of the places where the goods on board have been laden, and the place or places for which they are respectively destined; the name and tonnage of the vessel, the name of the master, and the name of the place to which the vessel belongs; a particular account and description of all the packages on board, with the marks and numbers thereon, the goods contained in such packages, the names of the respective shippers and consignees

as far as such particulars are known to the master, &c. A separate manifest is required for tobacco. The manifest must be made out, dated, and signed by the captain, at the place or place: where the goods, or any part of the goods, are taken on board.—(See IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION.)

MANILLA, the capital of Luconia, the largest of the Philippine Islands, and the principal settlement of the Spaniards in the East, in lat. 14° 36′ 8″ N., lon. 120° 53½′ E. Population about 40,000, of whom from 1,200, to 1,500 may be Europeans. Manilla is built on the shore of a spacious bay of the same name, at the mouth of a river navigable for small vessels a considerable way into the interior. The smaller class of ships anchor in Manilla roads, in 5 fathoms, the north bastion bearing N. 37° E., the fishery stakes at the river's mouth N. 18° E., distant about a mile; but large ships anchor at Cavita, about 3 leagues to the southward, where there is a good harbour, well sheltered from the W. and S. W. winds. The arsenal is at Cavita, which is defended by Fort St. Philip, the strongest fortress on the islands. The city is surrounded by a wall and towers, and some of the bastions are well furnished with artillery.

Though situated within the tropics, the climate of the Philippines is sufficiently temperate; the only considerable disadvantage under which they labour in this respect being that the principal part of the group comes within the range of the typhoons. The soil is of very different qualities; but for the most part singularly fertile. They are rich in mineral, vegetable, and animal productions. It is stated in a statistical account of the Philippines, published at Manilla in 1818 and 1819, that the entire population of the islands amounted to 2,249,852, of which 1,376,222 belonged to Luconia. There were, at the period referred to, only 2,837 Europeans in the islands, and little more than 6,000 Chinese. The natives are said to be the most active, bold, and energetic, of any belonging to the Eastern Archipelago. "These people," says a most intelligent navigator, "appear in no respect inferior to those of Europe. They cultivate the earth like men of understanding; are carpenters, joiners, smiths, goldsmiths, weavers, masons, &c. I have walked through their villages, and found them kind, hospitable, and communicative; and though the Spaniards speak of and treat them with contempt, I perceived that the vices they attributed to the Indians, ought rather to be imputed to the government they have themselves established."—(*Voyage de M. De la Perouse*, c. 15.)

The principal articles of export consist of indigo, sugar, rice, sapan wood, birds' nests, tripang or *biche de mer*, dried beef, hides, ebony, gold dust, &c. The principal articles of import are stuffs for clothing, iron, hardware, furniture, fire-arms, and ammunition, &c.

Account of the Trade of Manilla for the Year 1831, from the Official Report.

Shipping.—Arrivals and Departures in 1831.

American	26	arrived,	29	sailed.	English	19	arrived,	19	sailed.	Prussian	1 arrived, 1 sailed.
Chinese junks	5	—	5	—	French	1	—	2	—	Spanish	43 — 43 —
Danish	7	—	6	—	Hamburgh	2	—	2	—		
Dutch	4	—	4	—	Portuguese	5	—	4	—		115 116

Statement of the principal Articles of Export from Manilla in 1831.

		Arrobas.	*Arrobas.*	*Arrobas.*			*Arrobas.*	*Arrobas.*
Indigo, 1st		2,723			Coffee, clean			14,624
2d		3,102			Wax raw		32	
3d		310½			manufactured		964	
		6,143½						996
liquid		24,975½			Hides			23,058
				31,119	Horns			205
Sugar				915,737½	Mother-o'-pearl shells			1,262
Rice				1,074,170	Rum	gallons 8,716		
Hemp				154,917	Sapan wood			50,671
Oil, cocoa nut				6,964	Tobacco			4,279
Tortoise shell, 1st		33			Exclusive of bird's nests, pepper, mats, sharks' fins, biche de mer, &c.			
2d		245						
3d		90½						
fairo		13½						
				382				

Total value of imports in 1831, including specie - - - - 1,459,776 dollars.
— of exports - - - - - - - - 1,303,621 —
Amount of duties - - - - - - - - 244,066 —

In 1832, 136 ships arrived at Manilla, of which 35 were American, 34 English, and 53 Spanish. The imports during the same year were, goods 1,204,894 dollars, and treasure 464,300 do., being together 1,669,194 dollars. The exports were, goods 1,531,540 dollars, treasure 317,990 do., together 1,849,530 dollars.

It was believed that the crop of sugar in Luconia in 1833, would amount to about 28,000 000 lbs.

At this moment, the imports of British goods into the Philippines are estimated to amount to from 60,000*l.* to 100,000*l.* a year; but we have no doubt that the opening the trade to China will very materially increase our intercourse with Manilla.

Considering the great fertility and varied productions of the Philippines, and their peculiarly favourable situation for carrying on commerce, the limited extent of their trade, even with its late increase, may excite surprise. This, however, is entirely a consequence of the wretched policy of the Spanish government, which persevered until very recently in excluding all foreign ships from the ports of the Philippines—confining the trade between them and Mexico and South America to a single ship! Even ships and settlers from China were excluded. "Provisions," says La Perouse, "of all kinds are in the greatest abundance here, and extremely cheap; but clothing, European hardware, and furniture, bear an excessively high price. The want of competition, together with prohibitions and restraints

of every kind laid on commerce, *render the productions and merchandise of India and China at least as dear as in Europe!*" Happily, however, this miserable policy, the effects of which have been admirably depicted by M. de la Perouse, has been materially modified during the last few years. The events of the late war destroyed for ever the old colonial system of Spain; and the ships of all nations are now freely admitted into Manilla and the other ports in the Philippines. An unprecedented stimulus has, in consequence, been given to all sorts of industry; and its progress will no doubt become more rapid, according as a wider experience and acquaintance with foreigners makes the natives better aware of the advantages of commerce and industry, and disabuses them of the prejudices of which they have been so long the slaves.

The *Monies*, *Weights*, and *Measures*, used at Manilla, are nearly the same as in Spain.—(See CADIZ.) They have, however, this difference,—that they estimate weight by piastres: 16 piastres are supposed to — 1 lb. Spanish weight, though they are not quite so much; 11 ounces or piastres — 1 tale of silk; 22 ounces — 1 catty; 8 ounces — 1 marc of silver; and 10 ounces — 1 tale of gold. 16 piastres or ounces — 15¼ ounces avoirdupois; 100 catties — 1 picul — 133⅓ lbs. avoirdupois.

(Account of the Quantity and Value of the Produce exported from Manilla in 1837.

Articles.	By Foreign Vessels.	By Spanish Vessels.	Total.	Price.	Gross Amount.
				Doll. Rls.	Doll. Rls.
Sugar	195,832 pic.	26,331 pic.	222,163 pic.	4 2	944,277 6
Sapanwood	14,004 —	9,091 —	23,695 —	1 - -	23,695
Hemp	57,383 —	2,104 —	59,487 —	4 2	252,734 6
Cotton	2,950 —	2,914 —	5,864 —	15 - -	84,960
Coffee	6,206 —	632 —	6,838 1-2 —	13 - -	88,894
Buffalo	7,531 —	2,124 1-2 —	9,655 1-2 —	3 7	37,415 - - 10
Mother of pearl shells	1,004 —	11 —	1,015 —	14 - -	14,210
Hide cuttings	1,417 —	1,521 —	2,938 —	3 - -	8,814
Hemp, cordage	875 —	300 1-2 —	1,195 1-2 —	9 - -	10,756 4
Streaked ebony	9,421 —	382 —	9,803 —	1 2	12,253 6
Roots of sapanwood	5,520 —	1,746 —	2,266 —	- - 4	1,133
Pieces of molove (timber)	4,368 —	- -	4,368 —	5 4	24,024
Indigo	1,653 1-2 — 99 ctys.	142 — 99 ctys.	1,795 1-2 — 99 ctys.	66 - -	118,503
Leaf tobacco	85 —	35 —	120	12 - -	420
Tortoise shell	2,706 ctys.	1,910 1-2 ctys.	4,616 1-2 ctys.	7 4	34,623 6
Rice	45,007 —	70,996 coys.	126,003 coys.	1 2	157,503 6
Paddy	16,564 pic.	19,048 pic.	35,613 pic.	- - 4	17,806
Coffee in husk	96 —	- -	96 —	3 6	324
Hats	19,396 in no.	234 in no.	19,629 in no.	1 6	34,350 6
Cigar cases	5,851 —	70 —	5,921 —	- - 4	2,960 4
Cigars	3,141 boxes	1,457 boxes	4,598 boxes	25 - -	114,950
Manilla hemp cloth	19,050 pieces	10,000 pieces	29,050 pieces	- - 3	10,893 6
Ditto	4,078 1-2 —	50 —	4,121 —	- - 1½	773 3 10
Cocoa-nut oil	876 1-2 casks	- -	876 1-2 casks	2 6	2,410 3
Ditto	768 1-2 —	- -	768 1-2 —	2 2	1,728
Rum	6,951 gallons	132 gallons	7,083 gallons	3 - -	2,656 1
Canes	1,440	- -	1,440	- - 4	720
Liquid indigo	- -	230 pic.	230 pic.	4 - -	920
Ditto	- -	606 casks	606 casks	3 4	2,121
Cotton canvas	- -	560 pieces	560 pieces	12 - -	6,720
Mats	- -	762	762	- - 2	190 4
			Total		2,012,638 65 10½

Sun.)

MARBLE (Ger. Rus. and Lat. *Marmor*; Du. *Marmer*; Fr. *Marbre*; It. *Marmo*; Sp. *Marmol*), a genus of fossils, composed chiefly of lime; being a bright and beautiful stone, moderately hard, not giving fire with steel, fermenting with and soluble in acid menstrua, and calcining in a slight fire.

The colours by which marbles are distinguished are almost innumerable. Some are quite black; others, again, are of a snowy white; some are greenish, others greyish, reddish, bluish, yellowish, &c.; while some are variegated and spotted with many different colours and shades of colour. The finest solid modern marbles are those of Italy, Blankenburg, France, and Flanders. Great quantities of very beautiful marble have been lately discovered at Portsoy in Banffshire, and at Tiree and other places in the Western Isles. Kilkenny, in Ireland, has abundance of beautiful black marble intermixed with white spots, called *Kilkenny marble*. Derbyshire abounds in this mineral. Near Kenlyn-bay, in Anglesea there is a quarry of beautiful marble, called *verde di Corsica*, from its also being found in Corsica. Its colours are green, black, white, and dull purple, irregularly disposed. Italy produces the most valuable marble, and its exportation makes a considerable branch of her foreign commerce. The black and the milk-white marble of Carara, in the duchy of Massa, are particularly esteemed.

The marbles of Germany, Norway, and Sweden are very inferior, being mixed with a sort of scaly limestone.

Marble is of so hard, compact, and fine a texture, as readily to take a beautiful polish. That most esteemed by statuaries is brought from the island of Paros, in the Archipelago: it was employed by Praxiteles and Phidias, both of whom were natives of that island; whence also the famous Arundelian marbles were brought. The marble of Carara is likewise in high repute among sculptors.

The specific gravity of marble is from 2·700 to 2·800. Black marble owes its colour to a slight mixture of iron.

MARITIME LAW. By maritime law is meant the law relating to harbours, ships, and seamen. It forms an important branch of the commercial law of all maritime nations. It is divided into a variety of different departments; such as those with respect to harbours, to the property of ships, the duties and rights of masters and seamen, contracts of affreightment, average, salvage, &c. The reader will find those subjects treated of under their respective heads.

Sketch of the Progress of Maritime Law.—The earliest system of maritime law was compiled by the Rhodians, several centuries before the Christian era. The most celebrated

authors of antiquity have spoken in high terms of the wisdom of the Rhodian laws: luckily, however, we are not wholly left, in forming our opinion upon them, to the vague though commendatory statements of Cicero and Strabo.—(*Cicero pro Lege Manilia; Strab.* lib. xiv.) The laws of Rhodes were adopted by Augustus into the legislation of Rome; and such was the estimation in which they were held, that the Emperor Antoninus, being solicited to decide a contested point with respect to shipping, is reported to have answered, that it ought to be decided by the Rhodian laws, which were of paramount authority in such cases, unless they happened to be directly at variance with some regulation of the Roman law.—(*"Ego quidem mundi dominus, lex autem maris legis id Rhodia, qua de rebus nauticis præscripta est, judicetur, quatenus nulla nostrarum legum adversatur. Hoc idem Divus quoque Augustus judicavit."*) The rule of the Rhodian law with respect to average contributions in the event of a sacrifice being made at sea for the safety of the ship and cargo, is expressly laid down in the Digest (lib. xiv. tit. 2.); and the most probable conclusion seems to be, that most of the regulations as to maritime affairs embodied in the compilations of Justinian have been derived from the same source. The regulations as to average adopted by all modern nations, are borrowed, with hardly any alteration, from the Roman, or rather, as we have seen, from the Rhodian law!—a conclusive proof of the sagacity of those by whom they had been originally framed. The only authentic fragments of the Rhodian laws are those in the Digest. The collection entitled *Jus Navale Rhodiorum*, published at Bâle in 1561, is now admitted by all critics to be spurious.

The first modern code of maritime law is said to have been compiled at Amalphi, in Italy,—a city at present in ruins; but which, besides being early distinguished for its commerce, will be for ever famous for the discovery of the Pandects, and the supposed invention of the mariner's compass. The Amalphitan code is said to have been denominated *Tabula Amalphitana*. But if such a body of law really existed, it is singular that it should never have been published, nor even any extracts from it. M. Pardessus has shown that all the authors who have referred to the Amalphitan code and asserted its existence, have copied the statement of Freccia, in his book *De Subfeudis*.—(*Collection des Loix Maritimes*, tome i. p. 145.) And as Freccia assures us that the Amalphitan code continued to be followed in Naples at the time when he wrote (1570), it is difficult to suppose that it could have entirely disappeared; and it seems most probable, as nothing peculiar to it has ever transpired, that it consisted principally of the regulations laid down in the Roman law, which, it is known, preserved their ascendancy for a longer period in the south of Italy than any where else.

But, besides Amalphi, Venice, Marseilles, Pisa, Genoa, Barcelona, Valencia, and other towns of the Mediterranean, were early distinguished for the extent to which they carried commerce and navigation. In the absence of any positive information on the subject, it seems reasonable to suppose that their maritime laws would be principally borrowed from those of Rome, but with such alterations and modifications as might be deemed requisite to accommodate them to the particular views of each state. But whether in this or in some other way, it is certain that various conflicting regulations were established, which led to much confusion and uncertainty; and the experience of the inconveniences thence arising, doubtless contributed to the universal adoption of the *Consolato del Mare* as a code of maritime law. Nothing certain is known as to the origin of this code. Azuni (*Droit Maritime de l'Europe*, tome i. pp. 414—439., or rather Jorio, *Codice Ferdinando*, from whose work a large proportion of Azuni's is literally translated) contends, in a very able dissertation, that the Pisans are entitled to the glory of having compiled the whole, or at least the greater part, of the *Consolato del Mare*. On the other hand, Don Antonio de Capmany, in his learned and excellent work on the commerce of Barcelona—(*Antiguo Comercio de Barcelona*, tomo i. pp. 170—183.), has endeavoured to show that the *Consolato* was compiled at Barcelona; and that it contains the rules according to which the consuls, which the Barcelonese had established in foreign places so early as 1268, were to render their decisions. It is certain that the *Consolato* was printed for the first time at Barcelona, in 1502; and that the early Italian and French editions are translations from the Catalan. Azuni has, indeed, sufficiently proved, that the Pisans had a code of maritime laws at a very early period, and that several of the regulations in it are substantially the same as those in the *Consolato*. But it does not appear that the Barcelonese were aware of the regulations of the Pisans, or that the resemblance between them and those in the *Consolato* is more than accidental; or may not fairly be ascribed to the concurrence that can hardly fail to obtain among well-informed persons legislating upon the same topics, and influenced by principles and practices derived from the civil law.

M. Pardessus, in the second volume of his excellent work already referred to, appears to have been sufficiently disposed, had there been any grounds to go upon, to set up a claim in favour of Marseilles to the honour of being the birthplace of the *Consolato*; but he candidly admits that such a pretension could not be supported, and unwillingly adheres to Capmany's opinion.—"Quoique François," says he, "quoique portée par des sentimens de reconnoissance, qu'aucun évènement ne sauroit affoiblir, à faire valoir tout ce qui est en faveur de

Marseilles, je dois reconnoître franchement que les probabilités l'emportent en faveur de Barcelone."—(Tome ii. p. 24.)

But to whichever city the honour of compiling the *Consolato* may be due, there can be no doubt that its antiquity has been greatly exaggerated. It is affirmed, in a preface to the different editions, that it was solemnly accepted, subscribed and promulgated, as a body of maritime law, by the Holy See in 1075, and by the Kings of France and other potentates at different periods between 1075 and 1270. But Capmany, Azuni, and Pardessus, have shown in the clearest and most satisfactory manner that the circumstances alluded to in this preface could not possibly have taken place, and that it is wholly unworthy of the least attention. The most probable opinion seems to be, that it was compiled, and began to be introduced, about the end of the 13th or the beginning of the 14th century. And notwithstanding its prolixity, and the want of precision and clearness, the correspondence of the greater number of its rules with the ascertained principles of justice and public utility, gradually led, without the intervention of any agreement, to its adoption as a system of maritime jurisprudence by all the nations contiguous to the Mediterranean. It is still of high authority. Casaregis says of it, though, perhaps, too strongly "*Consulatus maris, in materiis maritimis, tanquam universalis consuetudo habens vim legis inviolabiliter attenda est apud omnes provincias et nationes.*"—(Disc. 213. n. 12.)

The collection of sea laws next in celebrity, but anterior, perhaps, in point of time, is that denominated the *Roole des Jugements d'Oleron*. There is as much diversity of opinion as to the origin of these laws, as there is with respect to the origin of the *Consolato*. The prevailing opinion in Great Britain has been, that they were compiled by direction of Queen Eleanor, the wife of Henry II., in her quality of Duchess of Guienne; and that they were afterwards enlarged and improved by her son Richard I., at his return from the Holy Land: but this statement is now admitted to rest on no good foundation. The most probable theory seems to be, that they are a collection of the rules or practices followed at the principal French ports on the Atlantic, as Bordeaux, Rochelle, St. Malo, &c. They contain, indeed, rules that are essential to all maritime transactions, wherever they may be carried on; but the references in the code sufficiently prove that it is of French origin. The circumstance of our monarch's having large possessions in France at the period when the Rules of Oleron were collected, naturally facilitated their introduction into England; and they have long enjoyed a very high degree of authority in this country. "I call them the Laws of Oleron," said a great civilian—(*Sir Leoline Jenking, Charge to the Cinque Ports*), "not but that they are peculiarly enough English, being long since incorporated into the customs and statutes of our admiralties; but the equity of them is so great, and the use and reason of them so general, that they are known and received all the world over by that rather than by any other name." Molloy, however, has more correctly, perhaps, said of the laws of Oleron, that "they never obtained any other or greater force than those of Rhodes formerly did; that is, they were esteemed for the reason and equity found in them, and applied to the case emergent."—(*De Jure Maritimo et Navali*, Introd.)

A code of maritime law issued at Wisby, in the island of Gothland, in the Baltic, has long enjoyed a high reputation in the North. The date of its compilation is uncertain; but it is comparatively modern. It is true that some of the northern jurists contend that the Laws of Wisby are older than the Rules of Oleron, and that the latter are chiefly copied from the former! But it has been repeatedly shown that there is not so much as the shadow of a foundation for this statement.—(See *Pardessus, Collection*, &c. tome i. pp. 425—462. *Foreign Quarterly Review*, No. 13. art *Hanseatic League*.) The Laws of Wisby are not certainly older than the latter part of the 14th or beginning of the 15th century; and have obviously been compiled from the *Consolato del Mare*, the Rules of Oleron, and other codes that were then in use. Grotius has spoken of these laws in the most laudatory manner:—"*Quæ de maritimus negotiis*," says he, "*insulæ Gothlandiæ habitatoribus placuerunt, tantum in se habent, tum equitatis, tum prudentiæ, ut omnes oceani accolæ eo, non jure quam proprio, sed velut gentium jure, utantur.*"—(*Prolegomena ad Procopium*, p. 64.)

Besides the codes now mentioned, the ordinances of the Hanse towns, issued in 1597 and 1614, contain a system of laws relating to navigation that is of great authority. The judgments of Damme, the customs of Amsterdam, &c. are also often quoted.*

But by far the most complete and well digested system of maritime jurisprudence that has ever appeared, is that comprised in the famous *Ordonnance de la Marine* issued by Louis XIV. in 1681. This excellent code was compiled under the direction of M. Colbert, by individuals of great talent and learning, after a careful revision of all the ancient sea laws of France and other countries, and upon consultation with the different parliaments, the courts of admiralty, and the chambers of commerce, of the different towns. It combines whatever experience and the wisdom of ages had shown to be best in the Roman laws, and in the institutions of the modern maritime states of Europe. In the preface to his treatise on the

* A translation of the Law of Oleron, Wisby, and the Hanse towns, is given in the 3d edition of Malyne's *Lex Mercatoria*; but the edition of them by the work of M. Pardessus, referred to in the text is infinitely superior to every other.

Law of Shipping, Lord Tenterden says,—"If the reader should be offended at the frequent references to this ordinance, I must request him to recollect that those references are made to the maritime code of a great commercial nation, which has attributed much of its national prosperity to that code: a code composed in the reign of a politic prince; under the auspices of a wise and enlightened minister; by laborious and learned persons, who selected the most valuable principles of all the maritime laws then existing; and which, in matter, method, and style, is one of the most finished acts of legislation that ever was promulgated."

The ordinance of 1681 was published in 1760, with a detailed and most elaborate commentary by M. Valin, in 2 volumes, 4to. It is impossible which to admire most in this commentary, the learning or the sound good sense of the writer. Lord Mansfield was indebted for no inconsiderable portion of his superior knowledge of the principles of maritime jurisprudence to a careful study of M. Valin's work.

That part of the *Code de Commerce* which treats of maritime affairs, insurance, &c. is copied, with very little alteration, from the ordinance of 1681. The few changes that have been made are not always improvements.

No system or code of maritime law has ever been issued by authority in Great Britain. The laws and practices that now obtain amongst us in reference to maritime affairs have been founded principally on the practices of merchants, the principles laid down in the civil law, the Laws of Oleron and Wisby, the works of distinguished jurisconsults, the judicial decisions of our own and foreign countries, &c. A law so constructed has necessarily been in a progressive state of improvement; and, though still susceptible of material amendment, it corresponds, at this moment, more nearly, perhaps, than any other system of maritime law, with those universally recognised principles of justice and general convenience, by which the transactions of merchants and navigators ought to be regulated.

The decisions of Lord Mansfield did much to fix the principles, and to improve and perfect the maritime law of England. It is also under great obligations to Lord Stowell. The decisions of the latter chiefly, indeed, respect questions of neutrality, growing out of the conflicting pretensions of belligerents and neutrals during the late war; but the principles and doctrines which he unfolds in treating those questions, throw a strong and steady light on most branches of maritime law. It has occasionally, indeed, been alleged,—and the allegation is probably, in some degree, well founded,—that his Lordship has conceded too much to the claims of belligerents. Still, however, his judgments must be regarded, allowing for this excusable bias, as among the noblest monuments of judicial wisdom of which any country can boast. "They will be contemplated," says Mr. Serjeant Marshall, "with applause and veneration, as long as depth of learning, soundness of argument, enlightened wisdom, and the chaste beauties of eloquence, hold any place in the estimation of mankind."—(*On Insurance*, Prelim. Disc.)

The "Treatise of the Law relative to Merchant Ships and Seamen," by the late Chief Justice of the Court of King's Bench, does credit to the talents, erudition, and liberality of its noble and learned author. It gives, within a brief compass, a clear and admirable exposition of the most important branches of our maritime law; and may be consulted with equal facility and advantage by the merchant or general scholar, as by the lawyer. Mr. Serjeant Marshall has entered very fully into some, and has touched upon most points of maritime law, in his work on *Insurance*; and has discussed them with great learning and sagacity. The works of Mr. Justice Park, Mr. Holt, and a few others, are also valuable. Of the earlier treatises, the *Lex Mercatoria* of Malynes is by far the best; and, considering the period of its publication (1622), is a very extraordinary performance.

Statutes with respect to Importation and Exportation, Navigation, &c.—The preceding remarks refer merely to the principles, or leading doctrines, of our maritime law. These, however, have often been very much modified by statutory enactments; and the excessive multiplication of acts of Parliament suspending, repealing, or altering parts of other acts, has often involved our commercial and maritime law in almost inextricable confusion, and been most injurious to the public interests. No one, indeed, who is not pretty conversant with the subject, would readily imagine to what an extent this abuse has sometimes been carried. From the Revolution down to 1786, some hundreds of acts were passed, each enacting some addition, diminution, or change, in the duties, drawbacks, bounties, and regulations previously existing in the customs. In consequence the customs laws became so intricate and unintelligible, that hardly one merchant in fifty could tell the exact amount of duty affecting any article, or the course to be followed either in entering or clearing out vessels; being obliged to leave it entirely to the clerks of the Custom-house to calculate the amount of duties, and to direct him how to proceed so as to avoid forfeiting the goods and the ship! and yet, so powerful is the influence of habit in procuring toleration for the most pernicious absurdities, that this monstrous abuse was allowed to go on increasing for 50 years after it had been denounced as intolerable. Mr. Pitt has the merit of having introduced something like order into this chaos. Under his auspices, all the separate customs duties existing in 1787 were repealed, and new ones substituted in their stead; consisting, in most instances, of the equivalents, so far at least as they could be ascertained, of the old duties. In carrying this mea-

sure into effect, the House of Commons passed no fewer than 3,000 resolutions. The regulations as to entries and clearances were also simplified.

The advantages resulting from this measure were very great; but during the war, so many new duties and regulations were passed, that the necessity for a fresh consolidation became again very urgent, and was effected in 1819. It was not, however, in the customs department only, or in the mere article of duties, that the merchant and ship owners were bewildered by the multiplicity of statutory regulations. There was not a single branch of the law regulating their transaction that escaped the rage for legislation. Previously to 1822, no fewer than 113 statutes had been passed relating to the fisheries, and the makers and buyers of sails and cordage were supposed to be familiar with the various obscure and contradictory regulations embodied in the *twenty-three* acts of parliament relating to these articles! But the enormity of the abuse will be rendered more apparent, by laying before the reader the following extract from the *Report of the Lords' Committee on Foreign Trades in* 1820.

"Before," say their Lordships, "your committee proceed to advert to the points which have been the principal objects of their inquiry, they are anxious to call the attention of the House to the excessive accumulation and complexity of the laws under which the commerce of the country is regulated, with which they were forcibly impressed in the very earliest stage of their proceedings. These laws, passed at different periods, and many of them arising out of temporary circumstances, an ount, as stated in a recent computation of them, to upwards of *two thousand*, of which no less than 1,100 were in force in 1815; and many additions have been since made. After such a statement, it will not appear extraordinary that it should be matter of complaint by the British merchant, that, so far from the course in which he is to guide his transactions being plain and simple—so far from being able to undertake his operations, and to avail himself of favourable openings, as they arise, with promptitude and confidence—he is frequently reduced to the necessity of resorting to the services of professional advisers, to ascertain what he may venture to do, and what he must avoid, before he is able to embark in his commercial adventures with the assurance of being secure from the consequences of an infringement of the law. If this be the case (as is stated to your committee) with the most experienced among the merchants, even in England, in how much greater a degree must the same perplexity and apprehension of danger operate in foreign countries and on foreign merchants, whose acquaintance with our statute book must be supposed to be comparatively limited, and who are destitute of the professional authority which the merchant at home may at all times consult for his direction? When it is recollected, besides, that a trivial unintentional deviation from the strict letter of the acts of parliament may expose a ship and cargo to the inconvenience of seizure, which (whether sustained or abandoned) is attended always with delay and expense, and frequently followed by litigation, it cannot be doubted that such a state of the law must have the most prejudicial influence both upon commercial enterprise in the country, and upon our mercantile relations and intercourse with foreign nations; and perhaps no service more valuable could be rendered to the trade of the empire, nor any measure more effectually contribute to promote the objects contemplated by the House, in the appointment of this committee, than an accurate revision of this vast and confused mass of legislation; and the establishment of some certain, simple, and consistent principles, to which all the regulations of commerce might be referred, and under which the transactions of merchants engaged in the trade of the United Kingdom might be conducted with facility, safety, and confidence."—(p. 4.)

Since this Report was printed, a very considerable progress has been made in simplifying and clearing up the statute law, on the principles laid down in it. The law as to shipping and navigation has been particularly improved. The principles laid down in the famous navigation acts of 1650 and 1660 were, indeed, sufficiently distinct and obvious; but when these acts were passed, there were above 200 statutes in existence, many of them antiquated and contradictory, which they did not repeal, except in so far as the regulations in them might be inconsistent with those in the new acts. But besides these, a number of statutes were passed almost in every session since 1660, explaining, limiting, extending, or modifying in one way or other, some of the provisions of the navigation acts; so that ultimately there were questions perpetually arising, as to which it was very difficult to discover the precise law. On such occasions, recourse was often had to the courts; and the good sense and equity which generally characterised their decisions mitigated the mischievous consequences resulting from the uncertainty of the statute law, and even gave it the appearance of consistency. Latterly, however, this uncertainty has been well nigh removed. One of the bills introduced by Mr. Wallace for the improvement of the navigation laws repealed about *two hundred* statutes! and the new acts substituted in the place of those that were repealed were drawn up with laudable brevity and clearness. But various alterations having been subsequently made in these acts, new statutes embodying the changes were passed last session. The principal are—the 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 54., for the encouragement of British shipping and navigation, which may be called the present navigation law—(see NAVIGATION LAWS); the 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55., for the registry of British vessels—(see REGISTRY); the 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52., containing the regulations with respect to importation and expor-

tation—(see IMPORTATION AND EXPORTATION); and the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 59., for regulating the trade with the British possessions abroad—(see COLONIES AND COLONY TRADE). Mr. Hume, formerly of the customs, now of the Board of Trade, had the principal share in the compilation of these acts, which do honour to his sagacity, industry, and talents for arrangement.

It may be worth while observing, that hardly a session passes without giving birth to more or fewer acts, making certain changes or modifications in those referred to above. Where these changes apply only to some particular emergency, without affecting the general principles or rules laid down in the statutes, there can be no doubt that they should be embodied in separate acts; but where any modification or alteration is to be made in the principles of the law, the better way, as it appears to us, would be to introduce it directly into the leading act on the subject—re-enacting it in an amended or altered form. In no other way is it possible to preserve that unity and clearness which are so very desirable. The multiplication of statutes is a very great evil, not only from the difficulty of ascertaining the exact degree in which one modifies another, but from its invariably leading to the enactment of contradictory clauses. The property and transactions of merchants ought not to depend upon the subtleties and niceties of forced constructions, but upon plain and obvious rules, about which there can be no mistake. It would, however, be idle to expect that such rules can ever be deduced from the conflicting provisions of a number of statutes: those in the same statute are not always in harmony with each other.

MARK, OR MARC, a weight used in several parts of Europe, for various commodities, especially gold and silver. In France, the mark was divided into 8 oz. = 64 drachms = 192 deniers or pennyweights = 4,608 grains. In Holland, the mark weight was also called Troy weight, and was equal to that of France. When gold and silver are sold by the mark, it is divided into 24 carats.

The pound, or *livre*, *poids de marc*, the weight most commonly used in retail dealings throughout France previously to the Revolution, was equal to 2 marcs, and consequently contained 16 oz. = 128 gr. = 384 den. = 9,216 grs. One kilogramme is nearly equal to 2 livres.—Subjoined is a Table of livres, *poids de marc*, from 0 to 10, converted into kilogrammes. Any greater number may be learned by a simple multiplication and addition.

Livs.	*Kilog.*	*Livres.*	*Kilog.*	*Livres.*	*Kilog.*	*Livres.*	*Kilog.*
1 =	0·4895	4 =	1·9580	7 =	3·4265	9 =	4·4045
2 =	0·9790	5 =	2·4475	8 =	3·9160	10 =	4·8951
3 =	1·4685	6 =	2·9370				

MARK, a term sometimes used among us for a money of account, and in some other countries for a coin. The English mark is $\frac{2}{3}$ds of a pound sterling, or 13*s.* 4*d.*; and the Scotch mark is $\frac{2}{3}$ds of a pound Scotch. The mark Lubs, or Lubeck mark, used at Hamburgh, is a money of account, equal to 14$\frac{1}{2}$*d.* sterling.

MARKET, a public place in a city or town, where provisions are sold. No market is to be kept within 7 miles of the city of London; but all butchers, victuallers, &c. may hire stalls and standings in the flesh-markets there, and sell meat and other provisions. Every person who has a market is entitled to receive toll for the things sold in it; and, by ancient custom, for things standing in the market, though not sold; but those who keep a market in any other manner than it is granted, or extort tolls or fees where none are due, forfeit the same.—(See FAIRS.)

MARSEILLES, a large commercial city and sea-port of France, on the Mediterranean, in lat. 43° 17′ 49″ N., lon. 5° 22$\frac{1}{2}$′ E. Population 125,000.

Harbour.—The harbour, the access to which is defended by several strong fortifications, is in the centre of the city, forming a basin 525 fathoms in length, by about 150 do. in breadth. The tide is hardly sensible; but the depth of water at the entrance to the harbour varies from 16 to 18 feet, being lowest when the wind is N.W., and highest when it is S.W. Within the basin the depth of water varies from 12 to 24 feet, being shallowest on the north, and deepest on the south side. Dredging machines are constantly at work to clear out the mud, and to prevent the harbour from filling up. Though not accessible to the largest class of ships, Marseilles is one of the best and safest ports in the world for moderate-sized merchantmen, of which it will accommodate above 1,000. Ships in the basin lie close alongside the quays; and there is every facility for getting them speedily loaded and unloaded. The Isle de Rattonneau, Pomegues, and the strongly fortified islet or rock of If, lie W.S.W. from the port; the latter, which is the nearest to it, being only 1$\frac{1}{2}$ mile distant, and not more than $\frac{1}{2}$ of a mile from the projecting point of land to the south of the city. There is good anchorage ground for men-of-war and other large ships between the Isles de Rattonneau and Pomegues, to the west of the Isle d'If. When coming from the south, it is usual to make the Isle de Planier, in lat. 43° 11′ 54″ N., lon. 5° 13′ 7″ E. A light-house erected on this island is 131 feet high; the flashes of the light, which is a revolving one, succeed each other every $\frac{1}{2}$ minute, and in clear weather it may be seen 7 leagues off. Ships that have made the Isle de Planier, or that of Le Maire, lying east from it about 4$\frac{1}{2}$ miles, steer directly for the Isle d'If, distant about 7 miles from each, and having got within $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{3}{4}$ mile of it, have to for a pilot, who carries them into harbour: it is not, however, obligatory on ships to take a pilot on board; but being obliged to pay for one whether they avail themselves of his services or not, they seldom dispense with them. The charge is 4 sous per ton in, and 2 sous per do. out, for French vessels, and the vessels of countries having reciprocity treaties with France. There is a light-house on the fort St. Jean, on the north side of the entrance to the port. The *lazaretto*, which is one of the finest in Europe, lies a little to the north of the city; and there is an hospital on Ratton eau Island, for individuals whose health is dubious. With the exception of the above charges for pilotage, and the charges for such vessels as perform quarantine, there are no port charges on ships entering at, or clearing out from, Marseilles.

Trade, &c.—Marseilles is a city of great antiquity, and has long enjoyed a very extensive commerce. Havre, partly, no doubt, from its being, as it were, the port of Paris, used to

enjoy a greater share of the trade of France; but, notwithstanding the increased importance of the former, it has recently been surpassed by Marseilles. The customs duties collected at Havre, in 1831, were 22,410,689 fr., whereas those collected at Marseilles during the same year, amounted to 25,813,063 fr.; and, in 1832, the difference was still more decided in favour of the latter. The following is a statement of the customs duties collected at Marseilles during each of the 5 years ending with 1832:—

	Francs.		*Francs.*
1828	24,315,130	1831	25,813,063
1829	23,914,247	1832	30,678,394
1830	25,899,394		

This statement shows conclusively, that the trade of Marseilles is not only increasing rapidly, but that it is already very extensive. She is the grand emporium of the commerce between France and the countries bordering on the Mediterranean. To the Levant she exports colonial products, light woollens, silks, &c. To Italy, the exports consist of all kinds of colonial produce, woollens, linens, liqueurs, oil, hardware, and lead. The exports to England consist of silks, brandy, madder, wines, verdigris, brimstone, soap, oil, preserved fruits, gloves, ribands, shawls, capers, anchovies, syrups, essences, perfumery, &c. The principal imports are, wheat from the Black Sea and the coast of Africa, sugar and coffee, cotton, indigo, fish, pepper, iron, lead, dye woods, hides, &c. Regulations as to warehousing similar to those of Bordeaux; which see.

Arrivals.—In 1831 there arrived at Marseilles:—

Arrivals.	Ships.	Tons
French ships from foreign countries	866	88,018
—— from French colonies	66	20,469
—— coasters	3,329	176,332
—— from the fishery	43	1,891
Foreign vessels	1,407	185,941
Totals	5,731	473,236

The arrivals in 1832 were considerably greater, and among them were 77 British ships, of the burden of 12,831 tons.—For further particulars see *Annuaire du Commerce Maritime* for 1833, p. 247.; *Archives du Commerce*, tom. i. p. 183.; *Administration des Douanes* for 1831, p. 342. &c. The answers sent by the consul to the *Circular Queries* did not afford us any information of any sort whatever.)

The *Monies*, *Weights*, and *Measures* of Marseilles are the same as those of the rest of France.—(See BORDEAUX.)

MASTER, in commercial navigation, the person intrusted with the care and navigation of the ship.

The situation of master of a ship is so very important, that in some countries no one can be appointed to it, who has not submitted to an examination by competent persons, to ascertain his fitness for properly discharging its duties.—(See the famous French Ordonnance of 1681, tit. ii. art. 1.; and the Ordonnance of the 7th of August, 1825. The latter specifies the various subjects on which candidates shall be examined, and the mode of conducting the examination.) But in this country the owners are left to their own discretion as to the skill and honesty of the master; and although he is bound to make good any damage that may happen to the ship and cargo by his negligence or unskilfulness, he cannot be punished as a criminal for mere incompetence.

No one is qualified to be the master of a British ship, unless he be a natural-born British subject, or naturalised by act of parliament, or a denizen by letters of denization; or have become a subject of his Majesty by conquest, cession, &c., and have taken the oaths of allegiance; or a foreign seaman who has served 3 years, in time of war, on board of his Majesty's ships.

"The master is the confidential servant or agent of the owners; and in conformity to the rules and maxims of the law of England, *the owners are bound to the performance of every lawful contract made by him relative to the usual employment of the ship.*"—(Abbott (late Lord Tenterden) *on the Law of Shipping*, part ii. c. 2.)

From this rule of law, it follows that the owners are bound to answer for a breach of contract, though committed by the master or mariners against their will, and without their fault.—(*Id.*) Nor can the expediency of this rule be doubted. The owners, by selecting a person as master, hold him forth to the public as worthy of trust and confidence. And in order that this selection may be made with due care, and that all opportunities of fraud and collusion may be obviated, it is indispensable that they should be made responsible for his acts.

The master has power to hypothecate, or pledge, both ship and cargo for *necessary repairs executed in foreign ports* during the course of the voyage; but neither the ship nor cargo can be hypothecated for repairs *executed at home*.

The master has no lien upon the ship for his wages, nor for money advanced by him for stores or repairs. In delivering judgment upon a case of this sort, Lord Mansfield said—"As to wages, there is no particular contract that the ship should be a pledge; there is no usage in trade to that purpose; nor any implication from the nature of the dealing. On the

contrary, the law has always considered the captain as contracting personally with the owner; and the case of the captain has, in that respect, been distinguished from that of all other persons belonging to the ship. This rule of law may have its foundation in policy, for the benefit of navigation; for, as ships may be making profit and earning every day, it might be attended with great inconvenience, if, on the change of a captain for misbehaviour, or any other reason, he should be entitled to keep the ship till he is paid. Work done for a ship in England is supposed to be done on the personal credit of the employer: in foreign parts the captain may hypothecate the ship. The defendant might have told the tradesman, that he only acted as an agent, and that they must look to the owner for payment."

The master is bound to employ his whole time and attention in the service of his employers, and is not at liberty to enter into any engagement for his own benefit that may occupy any portion of his time in other concerns; and therefore, if he do so, and the price of such engagement happen to be paid into the hands of his owners, they may retain the money, and he cannot recover from them.—(*Abbott*, part ii. c. 4.)

During war, a master should be particularly attentive to the regulations as to sailing under convoy; for, besides his responsibility to his owners or freighters, he may be prosecuted by the Court of Admiralty, and fined in any sum not exceeding 500*l.*, and imprisoned for any term not exceeding 1 year, if he wilfully disobey the signals, instructions, or lawful commands of the commander of the convoy; or desert it without leave.—(43 *Geo.* 3. c. 160.)

Wilfully destroying or casting away the ship, or procuring the same to be done by the master or mariners, to the prejudice of the owners, freighters, or insurers; running away with the cargo; and turning pirates; are capital offences punishable by death.—(7 & 8 *Geo.* 4. c. 29., and antecedent statutes.)

After the voyage has been commenced, the master must proceed direct to the place of his destination, without unnecessarily stopping at any intermediate port, or deviating from the shortest course. No such deviation will be sanctioned, unless it has been occasioned by stress of weather, the want of necessary repair, avoiding enemies or pirates, succouring of ships in distress, sickness of the master or mariners, or the mutiny of the crew.—(*Marshall on Insurance*, book i. c. 6. § 3.) To justify a deviation, the necessity must be real, inevitable, and imperious; and it must not be prolonged one moment after the necessity has ceased. A deviation without such necessity vitiates all insurances upon the ship and cargo, and exposes the owners to an action on the part of the freighters. If a ship be captured in consequence of deviation, the merchant is entitled to recover from the owners the prime cost of the goods, with shipping charges; but he is not entitled to more, unless he can show that the goods were enhanced in value beyond the sum above mentioned.

If a merchant ship has the misfortune to be attacked by pirates or enemies, the master is bound to do his duty as a man of courage and capacity, and to make the best resistance that the comparative strength of his ship and crew will allow.

By the common law, the master has authority over all the mariners on board the ship,—it being their duty to obey his commands in all lawful matters relating to the navigation of the ship, and the preservation of good order. But the master should, in all cases, use his authority with moderation, so as to be the father, not the tyrant, of his crew. On his return home he may be called upon, by action at law, to answer to a mariner he has either beat or imprisoned during the course of the voyage; and unless he show sufficient cause for chastising the mariner, and also that the chastisement was reasonable and moderate, he will be found liable in damages. Should the master strike a mariner without cause, or use a deadly weapon as an instrument of correction, and death ensue, he will be found guilty, according to the circumstances of the case, either of manslaughter or murder.—(*Abbott*, part ii. c. 4.)

The master may by force restrain the commission of great crimes; but he has no jurisdiction over the criminal. His business is to secure his person, and to deliver him over to the proper tribunals on his coming to his own country.—(See art. SEAMEN.)

If by shipwreck, capture, or other unavoidable accident, seamen, subjects of Great Britain, be found in foreign parts, his Majesty's governors, ministers, consuls, or two or more British merchants, residing in such parts, may send such seamen home in ships of war, or in merchant ships homeward bound in want of men; and if such ships cannot be found, they may send them home in merchant ships that are fully manned, but no such merchant ship shall be obliged to take on board more than *four* such persons for every 100 tons burthen: and the master, upon arrival, and producing to the Navy Board a certificate from the governor, minister, consul, &c. where he shipped the men, and his own affidavit of the time he maintained them, shall receive 1*s.* 6*d. per diem* for all such seamen above his own complement of men.—(53 *Geo.* 3. c. 85.) A subsequent statute (58 Geo. 3. c. 38.) inflicts a penalty of 100*l.* on any master of a merchant vessel who shall refuse to take on board or bring home any seafaring man, a subject of Great Britain, left behind in any foreign country, upon being required to do so by the competent authorities.

The master of a ship forcing any man on shore when abroad, or refusing to bring back

such of the men he carried out with him as are in a condition to return, shall, upon conviction of such offence, be imprisoned for such term as the court shall award.—(9 *Geo* 4. c. 31.)

A penalty of 20*l.* is imposed on every master of a vessel, who, having, on account of sickness, left any seafaring man at any foreign port or place, shall neglect or refuse to deliver an account of the wages due, and to pay the same.—(58 *Geo.* 3. c. 58.)

The law makes no distinction between carriers by land and carriers by water. The master of a merchant ship is, in the eye of the law, a carrier; and is, as such, bound to take reasonable and proper care of the goods committed to his charge, and to convey them to the place of their destination, *barring only the acts of God and the king's enemies.* Every act which may be provided against by ordinary care renders the master responsible. He would not, for example, be liable for damage done to goods on board in consequence of a leak in the ship occasioned by the violence of the tempest, or other accident; but if the leak were occasioned by rats, he would be liable, for these might have been exterminated by ordinary care, as by putting cats on board, &c. On the same principle, if the master run the ship in fair weather against a rock or shallow known to expert mariners, he is responsible. If any injury be done to the cargo by improper or careless stowage, the master will be liable.

The master must not take on board any contraband goods, by which the ship and other parts of the cargo may be rendered liable to forfeiture or seizure. Neither must he take on board any false or colourable papers, as these might subject the ship to the risk of capture or detention. But it is his duty to procure and keep on board all the papers and documents required for the manifestation of the ship and cargo, by the law of the countries from and to which the ship is bound, as well as by the law of nations in general, or by treaties between particular states. These papers and documents cannot be dispensed with at any time, and are quite essential to the safe navigation of neutral ships during war.—(See SHIPS' PAPERS.)

It is customary in bills of lading to insert a clause limiting the responsibility of the master and owners, as follows:—"*The act of God, the king's enemies, fire, and every other dangers and accidents of the seas, rivers, and navigation, of whatever nature and kind soever, save risk of boats, as far as ships are liable thereto, excepted.*" When no bill of lading is signed, the master and owners are bound according to the common law.

The most difficult part of the master's duty is, when, through the perils of the sea, the attacks of enemies or pirates, or other unforeseen accidents, he is prevented from completing his voyage. If his own ship have suffered from storms, and cannot be repaired within a reasonable time, and if the cargo be of a *perishable nature*, he is *at liberty* to employ another ship to convey it to the place of destination. He may do the same if the ship have been wrecked and the cargo saved, or if his own ship be in danger of sinking, and he can get the cargo transferred to another;* and in *extreme cases* he is at liberty to dispose of the cargo for the benefit of its owners. But, to use the words of Lord Chief Justice Tenterden, "the disposal of the cargo by the master is a matter that requires the utmost caution on his part. He should always bear in mind that it is his *duty to convey it to the place of destination.* This is the purpose for which he has been intrusted with it, and this purpose he is bound to accomplish by every reasonable and practical method. What, then, is the master to do, if, by any disaster happening in the course of his voyage, he is unable to carry the goods to the place of destination, or to deliver them there? To this, as a general question, I apprehend no answer can be given. Every case must depend upon its own peculiar circumstances. The conduct proper to be adopted with respect to perishable goods will be improper with respect to a cargo not perishable: one thing may be fit to be done with fish or fruit, and another with timber or iron: one method may be proper in distant regions, another in the vicinity of the merchant; one in a frequented navigation, another on unfrequented shores. The wreck of the ship is not necessarily followed by an impossibility of sending forward the goods, and does not of itself make their sale a measure of necessity or expedience: much less can the loss of the season, or of the proper course of the voyage, have this effect. An unexpected interdiction of commerce, or a sudden war, may defeat the

* The most celebrated maritime codes, and the opinions of the ablest writers, have differed considerably as to these points. According to the Rhodian law (Pand. 1. 10. § 1.) the captain is released from all his engagements, if the ship, by the perils of the sea, and without any fault on his part, become incapable of proceeding on her voyage. The laws of Oleron (art. 4), and those of Wisby (arts. 10. 37. 55.), say that the captain *may hire another ship*; harmonising in this respect with the present law of England. The famous French ordinance of 1681 (tit. *Du Frêt*, art. 11.), and the *Code du Commerce* (art. 296.), *order the captain to hire another ship*; and if he cannot procure one, freight is to be due only for that part of the voyage which has been performed (*pro ratâ itineris peracti*). Valin has objected to this article, and states that practically it meant only that the captain must hire another ship if he would earn the whole freight. Emerigon (tom. i. p. 428.) holds that the captain, being the agent not only of the owners of the ship, but also of the shippers of the goods on board, is bound, in the absence of both, to use his best endeavours to preserve the goods, and to do whatever, in the circumstances, he thinks will most conduce to the interest of all concerned; or what it may be presumed the shippers would do, were they present. This, which seems to be the best and wisest rule, has been laid down by Lords Mansfield and Tenterden, as stated above, and may be regarded as the law of England on this point.

adventure and oblige the ship to stop in her course; but neither of these events doth of itself alone make it necessary to sell the cargo at the place to which it may be proper for the ship to resort. In these and many other cases, the master may be discharged of his obligation to deliver the cargo at the place of destination; but it does not therefore follow that he is authorised to sell it, or ought to do so. What, then, is he to do? In general, it may be said, *he is to do that which a wise and prudent man will think most conducive to the benefit of all concerned.* In so doing, he may expect to be safe, because the merchant will not have reason to be dissatisfied; but what this thing will be, no general rules can teach. Some regard may be allowed to the interest of the ship, and of its owners; but the interest of the cargo must not be sacrificed to it. Trans-shipment for the place of destination, if it be practicable, is the first object, because that is in furtherance of the original purpose: if that be impracticable, return, or a safe deposit, may be expedient. A disadvantageous sale (and almost every sale by the master will be disadvantageous) is the last thing he should think of, because it can only be justified by that necessity which supersedes all human laws."—(*Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 3.)

The master of a ship is liable for goods of which she is robbed in part; and the reason, as Lord Mansfield stated, is, lest room should be given for collusion, and the master should get himself robbed on purpose, in order that he might share in the spoil. The master is, however, entitled to indemnify himself out of the seamen's wages for losses occasioned by their neglect.

If any passenger die on board, the master is obliged to take an inventory of his effects; and if no claim be made for them within a year, the master becomes proprietor of the goods, but answerable for them to the deceased's legal representatives. Bedding and furniture become the property of the master and mate; but the clothing must be brought to the mast head, and there appraised and distributed among the crew.

If a master die, leaving money on board, and the mate, becoming master, improve the money, he shall, on allowance being made to him for his trouble, account both for interest and profits.

No master is to proceed on any voyage for parts beyond the seas without previously coming to an agreement, *in writing*, with his mariners, for their wages. If he do so, he shall forfeit, for every mariner so taken without a written agreement 5*l.*—(2 *Geo.* 2. c. 36. § 1.)

The master of every vessel is required by the 2 Geo. 2. c. 36. to keep a regular account of the penalties and forfeitures due to Greenwich Hospital in consequence of the mariners' disobedience, to deduct the same from their wages, and to pay the amount thereof to the collector of the Greenwich Hospital duty, within 3 months after such deduction, upon pain of forfeiting treble the value thereof to the use of the said hospital.

Masters of vessels laden with coals are directed by 6 Geo. 4. c. 107. § 120. to produce to any officer of customs demanding its production, a copy of the certificate originally delivered to them by the fitters or vendors, and to deliver the certificate to the collector or comptroller of the port to which the coals are carried.

For the duty of the master, as respects Custom-house regulation, see the articles Importation and Exportation, Quarantine, Smuggling, &c.; and for a further discussion of this important subject, see the excellent work of *Lord Tenterden on the Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 3. &c.; *Chitty on Commercial Law*, vol. iii. c. 8. &c.; and the articles Charterparty, Freight, &c. in this Dictionary.

MASTICH, or MASTIC (Ger. *Mastix*; Du. *Mastik*; Fr. *Mastic*; It. *Mastice*; Sp. *Almastica, Almaciga*; Arab. *Arāh*). This resinous substance is the produce of the *Pistacia lentiscus*, a native of the Levant, and particularly abundant in the island of Chios. It is obtained by making transverse incisions in the trunks and branches of the trees, whence the mastic slowly exudes. About 1,500 cwt. are annually exported from Chios, part of which is brought to this country, packed in chests. The best is in the form of dry, brittle, yellowish, transparent tears; it is nearly inodorous, except when heated, and then it has an agreeable odour; chewed, it is almost insipid, feeling at first gritty, and ultimately soft; its virtues are trifling.—(*Ainslie's Materia Indica*; *Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

MATE, in a merchant ship, the deputy of the master, taking in his absence the command. There are sometimes only 1, and sometimes 2, 3, or 4 mates in a merchantman, according to her size; denominated 1st, 2d, 3d, &c. mates. The law, however, recognises only 2 descriptions of persons in a merchantman—the master and mariners; the mates being included in the latter, and the captain being responsible for their proceedings.

In men-of-war, the officers immediately subordinate to the captain are called lieutenants. But the *master*, or officer whose peculiar duty it is to take charge of the navigation of the ship, has certain mates under him, selected from the midshipmen. The boatswain, gunner, carpenter, &c. have each their mates or deputies, taken from the crew.

The officers subordinate to the commander in the ships belonging to the East India Company, were called 1st, 2d, 3d, &c. officers. East Indiamen had no sailing masters, the commanders performing that duty.—(*Falconer's Marine Dictionary*, &c.)

MATS (Du. *Matten*; Fr. *Nattes*; Ger. *Matten*; It. *Stuoje, Stoje*; Port. *Esteiras*; Rus. *Progoshki*; Sp. *Esteras*), textures composed, for the most part, of flags, reeds, the bark of trees, rushes, grass, rattans, old ropes, &c. In this country mats are used for a great variety of purposes. The coarser sort are very largely employed in the packing of furniture and goods; in the stowage of corn and various other articles on board ship; in horticultural operations; in covering the floors of churches and other public buildings, &c.: the finer sorts are principally employed in covering the floors of private houses.

In Europe mats are principally manufactured for sale in Russia, where they are produced in immense quantities, forming an article of very considerable value and importance. They are partly formed of flags; but principally of the inner bark of the lime or linden tree, the latter being known in this country by the name of *bast* mats. The Russian peasants manufacture this sort of material into shoes; and in consequence of the vast quantity of matting made use of in this way, and in shipments abroad, the destruction of the linden tree is immense; though, as it grows rapidly, there is probably less risk of its exhaustion than Mr. Tooke seems to have supposed.—(*View of Russia*, vol. iii. p. 262.) In 1832 above 840,000 pieces of mat were exported from Archangel only; and in addition to this there is a very considerable exportation from Petersburgh, Riga, and other ports. Russian mats fetch at present (January, 1834), in the London market, *4l.* 10*s.* per 100, duty (*1l.* 3*s.* 9*d.* the 100) included. Mats not otherwise enumerated or described are subject to a duty of 20 per cent. *ad valorem*.

Various descriptions of reed mats are extensively manufactured in Spain and Portugal; some of them being very beautifully varied. In Spain large quantities of matting are made of the esparto rush.—(See ESPARTO.)

Rush floor mats, and rattan table mats of a very superior description are brought from China. They should be chosen clean, of a bright clear colour, and should, when packed, be thoroughly dry.

The mats of the Japanese are soft and elastic, serving them both for carpets and beds; they are made of a peculiar species of rush cultivated for the purpose.

The bags in which sugar is imported from the Mauritius consist of matting formed of the leaves of a tree growing in the island, interwoven in broad stripes. They are very strong and durable, and may be washed and cleaned without sustaining any injury. Being imported in large quantities, they are sold very cheap.—(Besides *Tooke's Russia*, already referred to, see *Milburn's Oriental Commerce*, and the valuable little work entitled *Vegetable Substances, Materials of Manufactures*, published by the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, pp. 116—123.)

It is probable that mats formed the first sort of wove fabrics produced by man; and it is worthy of remark that but few savage tribes have been discovered that have not attained to considerable eminence in their manufacture. On the coast of Guinea and other places on the west of Africa, pieces of fine mat, about a yard long, and of a pretty uniform texture, were denominated *makkutes*, and formed a sort of money; the value of commodities being rated and estimated in them!—(*Morellet, Prospectus d'un Dictionnaire de Commerce*, p. 122.) They enjoyed this distinction, no doubt, from their utility, and the great care and labour bestowed on their preparation. There is hardly an island in the South Seas in which the natives have not acquired great skill and dexterity in the making of mats. The finer sorts consist, generally, of dyed reeds or grass; and have a very brilliant appearance.

MAURITIUS. See PORT LOUIS.

MEAD, or METHEGLIN (Ger. *Meht, Meth*; Du. *Meede, Meedrank*; Fr. *Hydromél*; It. *Idromele*; Rus. *Lipez*), the ancient, and for a long time, the favourite drink of the northern nations. It is a preparation of honey and water. Manufacturers of mead for sale must take out an annual licence.

MEAL (Ger. *Mehl*; Du. *Meel*; Fr. and It. *Farine*; Sp. *Farina*; Rus. *Muka*; Lat. *Farina*), the edible part of wheat, oats, rye, barley, and pulse of different kinds, ground into a species of coarse flour.

MEDALS, are pieces of metal, generally in the form of a coin, and impressed with some peculiar stamp, intended to commemorate some individual or action. Medals are of very different prices—varying according to their rarity and preservation, the fineness of the metal, the beauty of the workmanship, &c.

MEDITERRANEAN PASS. The nature of this sort of instrument has been described by Mr. Reeves, in his *Treatise on the Law of Shipping*, as follows:—

"In the treaties that have been made with the Barbary states, it has been agreed, that the subjects of the King of Great Britain should pass the seas unmolested by the cruisers of those states; and for better ascertaining what ships and vessels belong to British subjects, it is provided that they shall produce *a pass*, under the hand and seal of the Lord High Admiral, or the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty. In pursuance of these treaties, passes are made out at the Admiralty, containing a very few words, written on parchment, with ornaments at the top, through which a scolloped indenture is made: the *scolloped tops* are sent to Barbary; and being put in possession of their cruisers, the commanders are instructed

to suffer all persons to pass who have passes that will fit these scolloped tops. The protection afforded by these passes is such, that no ships, which traverse the seas frequented by these rovers, ever fail to furnish themselves with them, whether in the trade to the East Indies, the Levant, Spain, Italy, or any part of the Mediterranean; and from the more particular need of them in the latter, they, no doubt, obtained the name of *Mediterranean passes*. For the accommodation of merchants in distant parts, blank passes, signed by the Lords of the Admiralty, are lodged with the governors abroad, and with the British consuls, to be granted to those who comply with the requisites necessary for obtaining them. As this piece of security is derived wholly from the stipulations made by the crown with a foreign power, the entire regulation and management of it has been under the direction of his Majesty, who, with the advice of his privy council, has prescribed the terms and conditions on which these passes shall be granted. Among others are the following:—They are to be granted for none but British-built ships, or ships made free, navigated with a master and $\frac{3}{4}$ths of the mariners British subjects, or foreign protestants made denizens. Bond is to be given in the sum of 300*l.* if the vessel is under 100 tons, and in 500*l.* if it is that or more, for delivering up the pass within 12 months, unless in the case of ships trading from one foreign port to another; and such passes need not be returned in less than 3 years.

"It has been found expedient, at the conclusion of a war, and sometimes during a peace, to recal and cancel all passes that have been issued, and to issue others in a new form. This has been done for 2 reasons. 1st, That these useful instruments, by various means, either accidental or fraudulent, came into the hands of foreigners, who, under cover of them, carried on in security a trade which otherwise would belong to British subjects, and which had been purchased by the crown, at the expense of keeping up this sort of alliance. 2dly, That the Barbary states complained, that, adhering to the rule of fitting the other part of the indenture to the passes, they were obliged to suffer ships to pass that did not belong to British subjects."

The act 58 Geo. 3. c. 143. makes the forging of a Mediterranean pass felony without benefit of clergy. The 9 Geo. 4. c. 76. enacts, that no Mediterranean pass shall be issued for the benefit of any person as being an inhabitant of Malta or of Gibraltar but not being a person entitled to be an owner of a British registered ship, unless such person shall have resided at Malta or Gibraltar, respectively, upwards of 15 years previously to the 10th of October, 1827.

Mediterranean passes are either granted for 1 voyage, or are attached to the ship's certificate of registry, and are in force so long as the said certificate. A stamp duty of 2*l.* is charged on each pass so issued. When issued in the colonies, they continue in force for 12 months to colonial ships, and for 1 voyage to British ships supplied with them. The duty on such passes is 5*s.*—We subjoin

An Account of the Amount paid by Ships for the Mediterranean Pass; stating the Number of Passes granted, the aggregate Amount received in the Years 1828-9, and to what Purpose the same was applied.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 132. Sess. 1830.)

No. of Passes.	For what Time in Force.	Stamp Duty on each.	Aggregate Charge on each.	Total.
	1828.	*L.* *s.* *d.*	*L.* *s.* *d.*	*L.* *s.* *d.*
220	One voyage	2 0 0	2 10 0	550 0 0
343	Attached to the ship's certificate of registry, and in force so long as the said certificate	2 0 0	5 5 0	1,795 10 0
100	Issued in the colonies, and in force for 12 months to colonial ships, and for 1 voyage to British ships supplied with them	0 5 0	2 0 0	400 0 0
				2,745 10 0
	Deduct stamp duties			1,174 0 0
			L.	1,571 10 0
	1829.			
220	One voyage	2 0 0	2 10 0	510 0 0
330	Attached to the ship's certificate of registry, and in force so long as the said certificate	2 0 0	5 5 0	1,732 10 0
250	Issued in the colonies, and in force for 12 months to colonial ships, and for 1 voyage to British ships supplied with them	0 5 0	2 0 0	500 0 0
				2,742 10 0
	Deduct stamp duties			1,062 10 0
			L.	1,680 0 0

The foregoing fees for Mediterranean passes, after deducting the sums paid for stamps, have been applied, as all other fees are, in aid of the sum voted on the navy estimate for the contingent expenses of the Admiralty Office.

MEMEL, a commercial town of East Prussia, in lat. 55° 41′ 42″ N., lon. 21° 8′ 14″ E. Population 8,500. Memel is situated on the north-east side of the great bay, denominated the *Currische Haf*, near its junction with the Baltic. It is, consequently, the principal *entrepôt* of the country traversed by the Niemen, and as such enjoys a pretty extensive commerce.

Harbour.—The harbour of Memel is large and safe; but the bar at the mouth of the Currische Haf has seldom more than 17 feet water, and sometimes not more than 13 or 14 feet; so that ships drawing more than 16 feet water are frequently obliged to load and unload a part of their cargoes in the roads, where the anchorage is but indifferent, particularly when the wind is N. or N.W. A light-house, originally 75, but now 100 feet in height, has been erected on the N.E. side of the entrance to the harbour. The light, which is fixed and powerful, may be distinguished in clear weather at more than 20 miles distance. The outer buoy lies in 6 fathoms water, about a mile without the light-house, which bears from it, S.E. by E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. The channel thence to the harbour is marked by white buoys on the north, and red on the south side. Three beacons to the north of the town, when brought into a line, lead directly into the harbour. Inasmuch, however, as the channel is subject to frequent changes, both in depth and direction, it is always prudent, on arriving at the outer buoy, to heave to for a pilot; but this is not obligatory; and the Prussian authorities have issued directions for ships enter-



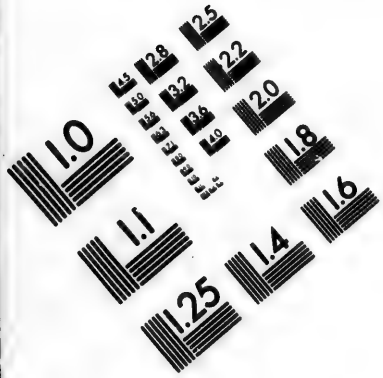
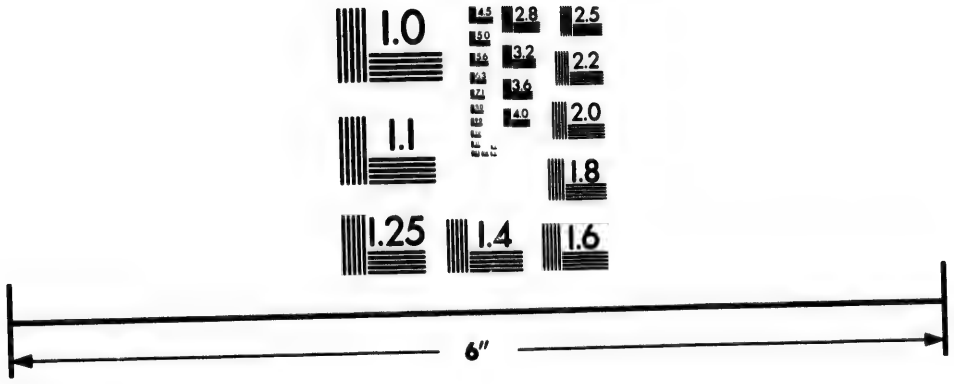
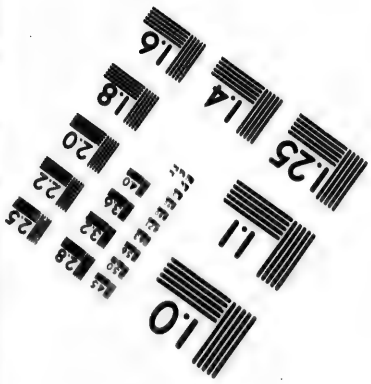
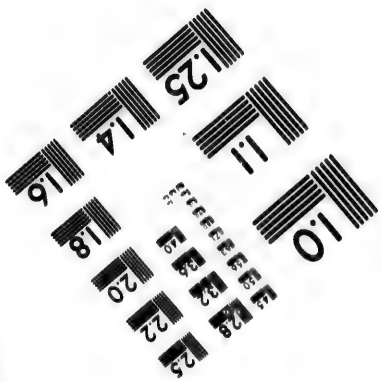




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ing without a pilot, which may be found in Mr. Norrie's *Sailing Directions for the Cattegat and Baltic*, p. 36.

Trade.—Timber forms the principal article of export; for though that of Dantzic be considered better, it is generally cheaper, and almost always more abundant, at Memel. It comes principally from the estates of Prince Radzivil, and is floated down the river in rafts. Here, as at Dantzic, the best quality of all sorts of wood articles is called *krohn*, or crown, the 2d *brack*, and the 3d *bracke brack*. Large quantities of hemp and flax are also exported, as are bristles, hides, linseed (the finest for crushing brought to England), wax, pitch and tar, &c. The exports of grain are sometimes very considerable. The wheat of Lithuania is reckoned the best. All flax and hemp shipped from Memel must be *bracked*, or assorted by sworn selectors.—(See FLAX, and HEMP.) The imports consist principally of coffee, sugar, spices, dye woods, tobacco, rum, cotton stuffs and yarn, cutlery, wine, &c. Merchants at Memel generally send their bills to Königsberg to be sold, charging their correspondents with 1 per cent. for bank commission, postages, &c. The navigation generally closes about the latter end of December, and opens about the middle of March.

Notwithstanding the difficulties which our corn laws and timber duties throw in the way of our commerce with Prussia, we have a very extensive intercourse with Memel. Our imports consist principally of fir timber, and the ships that go out are mostly only partially loaded, or in ballast. We subjoin an

Account of the Ships entering and clearing out from Memel in 1830, distinguishing those belonging to each Country, and those that entered and cleared out in Ballast.

Flags.		Ships.	Lasts.	Loaded.		In Ballast.	
				Ships.	Lasts.	Ships.	Lasts.
Danish	inward	22	1,744	7	541	15	1,203
	outward	31	1,732	31	1,723		
Mecklenburgh	inward	3	331	2	215	1	116
	outward	3	331	3	331		
Russian	inward	5	173	4	131	1	41
	outward	5	172	5	172		
Swedish	inward	6	544	3	150	3	394
	outward	6	544	3	394	2	150
Norwegian	inward	30	1,991	14	1,016	15	975
	outward	29	1,991	29	1,991		
British	inward	230	43,292	22	2,941	208	39,451
	outward	333	43,236	333	43,236		
Hanoverian	inward	35	2,314	10	416	25	1,898
	outward	35	2,314	35	2,314		
Oldenburgh	inward	14	517	3	100	11	417
	outward	14	517	14	517		
Netherlands	inward	28	2,286	1	251	27	2,035
	outward	32	2,286	32	2,286		
Prussian	inward	212	28,254	59	7,549	153	20,705
	outward	213	28,264	213	28,227	1	37
Total		1,397	162,822	841	95,400	556	67,422

The *Monies*, *Weights*, and *Measures* of Memel are the same as those of Dantzic; which see.

For further particulars see *Oddy's European Commerce*, pp. 220—224.; *Coulier sur les Phares*; *Fryber's New Contributions to a Knowledge of the Commercial State of the Prussian Monarchy* (Germ.), Berlin, 1832; *Jacob's First Report on the Agriculture of the North of Europe*, &c.

MERCURY, OR QUICKSILVER (Fr. *Vif argent*; Ger. *Quicksilber*; It. *Argento vivo*; Sp. *Azogue*; Rus. *Rtut*; Lat. *Hydrargyrum*; Arab. *Zibākh*; Hind. *Parah*; Sans. *Pārada*). This metal was known in the remotest ages, and seems to have been employed by the ancients in gilding, and separating gold from other bodies, just as it is by the moderns. Its colour is white, and similar to that of silver; hence the names of *hydrargyrum*, *argentum vivum*, *quicksilver*, by which it has been known in all ages. It has no taste or smell. It possesses a good deal of brilliancy; and when its surface is not tarnished, it makes a very good mirror. Its specific gravity is 13·568. It differs from all other metals in being always fluid, unless when subjected to a degree of cold equal to —39°, when it becomes solid. The congelation of mercury was first observed in 1759.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

Mercury is found in various parts of the world. Among the principal mines are those of Almaden, near Cordova, in Spain; Idria, in Carnolia; Wolfstein and Morsfield, in the Palatinate; Guancavelica, in Peru, &c. "Most of the ores of mercury are readily distinguished from those of any other metal; in the 1st variety, globules of the metal are seen attached to or just starting on the surface, which is at once a sufficient criterion, mercury being unlike every other metal; in the 2d, by the fine white colour, and the action of the blow-pipe, which sublimes the mercury and leaves the silver behind; the 3d, by its beautiful deep red tint, varying from cochineal to scarlet red, excepting in those termed hepatic cinnabars, which are generally of a lead grey; the 4th, by its grey colour, its partial solubility in water, and its complete volatilisation by heat, emitting at the same time an arsenical odour. Before the blow-pipe, these varieties burn with a blue flame and sulphurous odour, leaving more or less residue behind them, and which may consist of earthy matter, as silex and alumina, together with the oxides of iron and copper."—(*Joyce's Chem. Min.*)

Mercury is often adulterated by the admixture of lead, bismuth, zinc, and tin. When the metal quickly loses its lustre, is covered with a film, or is less fluid and mobile than usual, or does not readily divide into round globules, there is reason to suspect its purity.

It is stated by Dr. A. T. Thomson, in his *Dispensatory*—a work generally distinguished for its accuracy—that most of the mercury used in this country is brought from Germany. But whatever may have been the case formerly, this is not certainly true at present. On the contrary, of 314,286 lbs. of quicksilver imported in 1831, none was brought from Germany; 269,558 lbs. were brought direct from Spain, and 13,714 lbs. from Gibraltar; of the latter, a part was derived from Carniola, and a part from Spain; 31,014 lbs. were brought from Italy. Only 192,310 lbs. were retained for home consumption in 1831.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 550. Sess. 1833.)

Quicksilver is produced in several of the provinces of China. During the war, when the intercourse between Europe and America was interrupted, the price of quicksilver rose to such a height in the latter, that it answered to import it from China. But since the peace it has been regularly exported to the latter. At an average of the 14 years ending with 1828, the imports of quicksilver by the English and Americans into Canton amounted to 646,085 lbs. a year, worth 310,962 dollars.—(*Lords' Report of* 1831, p. 657.)

There are 2 sulphurets of mercury; the black or *ethiops mineral*, and the red or *cinnaber*. When mercury and sulphur are triturated together in a mortar, the former gradually disappears, and the whole assumes the form of a black powder, denominated ethiops mineral. If this powder be heated red-hot, it sublimes; and on a proper vessel being placed to receive it, a cake is obtained, of a fine red colour, which is called cinnabar. This cake, when reduced to powder, is well known in commerce by the name of *vermilion*. Cinnabar may be prepared in various other ways.

Calomel, or protochloride of mercury (*mercurius dulcis*), is the most useful of all the preparations obtained from it. It is in the form of a dull white, semi-transparent mass, having a specific gravity of 7·176. It is more generally employed, and with better effect, than almost any other remedy in the whole range of the materia medica.

Besides its uses in medicine, mercury is extensively employed in the amalgamation of the noble metals, in water-gilding, the making of vermilion, the silvering of looking-glasses, the making of barometers and thermometers, &c.

MILE, the usual measure of roads in England, being 8 furlongs, or 1,760 yards.

MILK (Fr. *Lait*; It. *Latte*; Lat. *Lac*), a fluid secreted by the female of all those animals denominated *mammalia*, and evidently intended for the nourishment of her offspring. The milk of every animal has certain peculiarities which distinguish it from all other milk. But the animal whose milk is most used by man, and with which, consequently, we are best acquainted, is the cow. The external character of all milk is that of a white opaque fluid, having a sweetish taste, and a specific gravity somewhat greater than that of water. When allowed to remain at rest, it separates into 2 parts; a thick whitish fluid called *cream*, collecting in a thin stratum over its surface, and a more dense watery body, remaining below. Milk which has stood for some time after the separation of the cream, becomes acescent, and then coagulates. When the coagulum is pressed gently, a serous fluid is forced out, and there remains the caseous part of the milk, or pure cheese.

Butter, one of the most valuable animal products, is solidified cream, and is obtained artificially by churning.—(See BUTTER.)

Milk has always been a favourite food of most European nations, and especially of the British. *Lacte et carne vivant*, says Cæsar of our ancestors; and the same articles still continue to form a large part of our subsistence. Mr. Middleton estimates (*Agricultural Survey of Middlesex*, 2d ed. p. 419.), that, in 1806, no fewer than 8,500 milch cows were kept for the supply of London and its environs with milk and cream; and he estimates the average quantity of milk obtained from each cow at *nine quarts* a day, or 3,285 quarts a year, leaving, every deduction being taken into account, 3,200 quarts of marketable produce.

If Mr. Middleton be well founded in these estimates, we may reasonably calculate the number of cows that are at present kept in London and its environs at 9,000, and their annual produce at 28,800,000 quarts of milk. Now, as milk is sold by the retailers at 4*d.* a quart after the cream is separated from it, and as the cream is usually sold at 3*s.* a quart, and there is reason to suspect that a good deal of water is intermixed with the milk, we believe we should not be warranted in estimating that the milk, as obtained from the cow, is sold at less than 6*d.* a quart which gives 720,000*l.* as the total price of the milk consumed in the city and its immediate vicinity. If to this sum were added the further sums paid for cheese and butter, the magnitude of the entire sum paid in the metropolis for milk, and the various products derived from it, would appear astonishing.

MILLET (Ger. *Hirse*; Fr. *Millet, Mil*; It. *Miglio, Panicastrello*; Sp. *Mijo*; Lat. *Milium, Panicum miliaceum*). There are 3 distinct species of millet; the Polish millet, the common or German millet, and the Indian millet. It is cultivated as a species of grain; and is sometimes employed to feed poultry, and as a substitute for rice. The Indian millet grows to a large size; but the autumns in England are seldom dry and warm enough to allow of its being cultivated here.—(*Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture.*)

MILL-STONES (Ger. *Mühlsteine*; Fr. *Pierres meulières*; It. *Mole macine*; Sp. *Muelas de molino*; Rus. *Schernowoi kamen*), the large circular stones, which, when put in motion by machinery, grind corn and other articles. The diameter of common mill-stones is from 5 to 7 feet, and their thickness varies from 12 to 18 inches. These stones have been principally imported from Rouen and other parts of France; the burr-stones of that country being supposed more durable than our own. Mill-stones are, however, found at Conway, North Wales, and in some parts of Scotland, which are said to equal any imported from foreign countries. Good mill-stones usually last 35 or 40 years.

"Milo," says Mr. Urquhart, "abounds in admirable mill-stones, which I believe answer better than the French burr for the hard wheat of the Black Sea, so much preferred in the Levant to the soft, though not so in England, for want of proper stones. These stones, of full dimensions, might be shipped at Milo for 5*l.* or 6*l.* the pair. But were they brought here, they would be met with a duty of 11*l.* 8*s.* the pair, whereas French burrs, a pair of which cost 35*l.*, pay but 10*s.* the 100."—(*Turkey and its Resources*, p. 146.) This extraordinary difference in the duty depends on the stones being under or over 4 feet in diameter. Surely, however, if a duty must be laid on such an article as mill-stones, common sense would suggest that it should be charged according to their weight or cubical contents. Were it not for the absurd way in which it is imposed, it is probable that stones from Milo might be brought home as ballast in some of the Turkey ships, all of which, except those loaded with currants and grain, are light.

MINING COMPANIES. By this designation is commonly meant the associations formed in London, a few years ago, for working mines in Mexico and South America.

The *mania* for mining concerns, which raged in London and the empire generally in 1824

and 1825, after the opening of Mexico and other parts of Spanish America to our intercourse, forms a remarkable, and, we are sorry to add, disgraceful era in our commercial history. Now that the madness is past, we have difficulty in conceiving how men in the habit of sober calculation could be led to entertain such romantic expectations, and to pay such high premiums for shares in distant and uncertain undertakings. We may, therefore, be excused for appropriating a page or two to the history of an infatuation hardly second to that which led to the South Sea and Mississippi schemes.

The mining companies formed at the outset had some sort of basis for favourable expectations, their directors having made contracts for a number of mines in Mexico, described by Humboldt as having enriched many hundred families. This particularly applies to the Real del Monte Company, whose mines are situated in the mountainous district of that name; to the Anglo-Mexican Company, whose mines are at Guanaxuato, the principal mining quarter in Mexico; and to the United Mexican Company, whose contracts, though far too widely spread, comprise several valuable mines at Zacatecas, Sombrerete, Guanaxuato, and other parts.

These associations were formed in London early in 1824, and during the spring and summer of that year their stock or shares bore only a small premium; but towards the winter it began progressively to rise, to the surprise of several of the directors; seeing that it arose less from any favourable intelligence of the mines (for the accounts from Mexico merely reported the arrival of the English agents) than from a blind ardour and spirit of speculation in the public,—a spirit which, seeing nothing tempting in our own funds, or in those of continental Europe, directed itself to distant objects, and particularly to Spanish America. It appeared as if our countrymen were about to reap an immediate harvest; to lay their hands on a treasure hid for ages. America, it was said, had been discovered, in one sense, above 3 centuries; but this was the true discovery,—the effectual access to its resources. Every new contract for a Mexican mine produced a rise in the shares of the companies, as if this fresh undertaking must necessarily be a source of profit to the others! And the result was, that in January, 1825, the premium on the shares of each of the companies mentioned above exceeded cent. per cent., although no substantial reason could be given for any advance whatever. It must not, however, be imagined that this rise of price was occasioned solely by the competition of individuals who intended to continue to hold stock, and to trust to the dividends made by the companies for a return. That this was the case in the first instance, is, speaking generally, true. But others, actuated by very different views, speedily entered the field. A peculiar combination of circumstances, at the head of which must be placed an almost incredible degree of ignorance and folly on the part of a considerable portion of the public, spread a spirit of gambling among all classes. Many who were most eager in the pursuit of shares, intended only to hold them for a few days or weeks, to profit by the rise which they anticipated would take place, by selling them to others more credulous or bold than themselves. The confidence of one set of speculators confirmed that of others. Meanwhile the public gullibility, or rather its indiscriminating rapacity, was liberally administered to. Company after company was formed without any previous contract; in other words, without any foundation whatever! The plan was to fix on a district in America understood to contain mines; to form a company bearing the name of such district; to obtain a first payment from the shareholders, and to send out agents, or commissioners, as they were termed, to survey the district and engage mines. Such was the case of most of those having the names of districts in South America, subjoined to the present statement: it was the case also of the Hispaniola or St. Domingo Company, formed on the basis of accounts given by Dr. Robertson of mines wrought in that island some 3 centuries ago! And yet lawyers, clergymen, and even the nobles of the land, were candidates for shares in these miserable bubbles, in the hope of finding (in which, luckily, most of them were disappointed) some dupe to buy their shares at a premium.*

As the year 1825 proceeded, the mania gradually declined, not from any falling off in the prospects of the companies, but from the supply of money in London. Speculative merchants had made immense importations of cotton, silk, wool, timber, and other articles; money was, of course, wanted to pay for these; the banks were drained; discounts became difficult; mining shares and South American stock were brought to sale; and the holders found, to their cost, that the public had recovered its senses. The panic in December, 1825, took place; the shares of the 3 principal companies, some of which had been at a premium of 500 per cent., fell to par: that is, 100*l.* in money, and no more, could be got for 100*l.* of the company's stock! This price they maintained a considerable time, because most of the parties interested continued to have a favourable impression of the issue of their undertakings.

* Those who may be desirous of seeing the extent to which the public credulity was practised upon in 1824 and 1825, may consult a pamphlet published by H. English, broker, in 1827, which contains an account of all the joint stock companies formed and projected in these memorable years. It presents a most extraordinary picture. There were in all 74 mining companies formed and projected! The number and quality of the other schemes were similar. It is due to Mr. Baring to say that he denounced the evil when in progress; and warned the unthinking multitude of the ruin they were bringing upon themselves; but to no purpose.

Demands, however, were made for additional sums to meet the expenditure abroad: the shareholders felt all the pressure of these demands, after their incomes at home had been reduced by the change of times: and in 1826 and 1827 mining shares progressively declined, so that 100*l.* stock fetched only 20*l.* or 25*l.* in money. The bubble companies were entirely destroyed, and the few only remained who had some foundation to stand upon.

Even these would have been relinquished, or have shrunk into very small dimensions, had not the directors been able to enforce further payments, by forfeiting, in default of such, whatever had been previously paid by the subscribers. The usage was, that on becoming a shareholder each person subscribed the deed of the company, engaging to pay, when called on, such instalments or sums to account (generally 10*l.* on each share) as should be required by the directors, until he had completed payment of the 100*l.* Now, a shareholder who had advanced 50*l.* or 60*l.* naturally consented to pay 10*l.* from time to time, rather than incur the forfeiture of all that he had paid. Those who held only a few shares felt this in a less degree; but to the holders of a number of shares, the grievance was most serious. They raised the money with great difficulty; often selling at a heavy loss their family property, or prevailing on relations to make them advances, to their great inconvenience, and, as far as can yet be seen, with very little prospect of a return from the mines;—a memorable lesson of the caution that should be exercised before signing any engagement in the nature of a company deed. Resentment would be excited against the directors, had they not been, in general, the heaviest sufferers: their regulations required them to hold a certain number of shares (perhaps 20 or 30); but in their blind confidence they frequently held 200 or 300, and drew on themselves a proportionate sacrifice; in several cases, the loss of their whole property.

The managers of the companies formed in the outset are chargeable with ignorance only: they trespassed not knowingly, but from want of information. There had till then been little communication between this country and Spanish America; the monopoly enforced by Old Spain having prevented it. Of the Spaniards settled in Mexico, and driven from it by the civil wars and consequent emancipation of the country, none, or almost none, found their way to this country; they repaired to Cuba, to the south of France, or to Spain. Nor were the published accounts of the country entitled to much confidence: Humboldt's Travels formed the chief authority; but their illustrious author, though generally cautious, seems, in this instance, to have placed too much confidence in vague exaggerated statements. Our merchants knew generally that silver mines formed a main branch of the productive industry of Mexico, and had enriched very many families originally in humble circumstances; but they had no idea of the extent of injury sustained by the mines during the civil war, nor of the amount of expenditure required to bring them into a working state: nor were they aware how little useful information could be expected from the natives; the working of the mines, like every operation requiring skill and intelligence, having been superintended by natives of Old Spain, who had either fallen in the civil war, or been expelled after the Mexicans succeeded in the contest. Hence, the agents of our companies found on the spot only native Mexicans,—men without education or experience in business, and, it must be added, without any due sense of the importance of candour or probity. They urged our countrymen to drain the mines, not by machinery, of which they had no idea, but by animal power, the use of which was of advantage to the Mexican landholders, by employing their horses, and creating a great consumption of maize, the principal grain of the country. Then, as to the last and most important stage in the business of mining,—the mode of extracting the silver from the ore,—the Mexicans, wholly unacquainted with the improvements made in Germany during the last half century, recommended amalgamation,—a process conducted by them in a very rude manner, and which, in most qualities of silver ore, fails to extract the whole, or any thing like the whole, of the metal. The object of the Mexicans, in short, was merely to cause English capital to be circulated among them; thus giving employment to their people for a time, and bringing the mines into an improved state,—in which state they (the Mexicans) might hope to resume them after our countrymen had exhausted their resources, or had become weary of their contracts.

Actuated by these views, the Mexicans pressed one undertaking after another on the agents of the companies, who were but too eager to enter on them without such incitement. All the companies fell into errors of the same kind, viz. engaging too many mines, and conducting them, for a time, as if their funds were unlimited. They reckoned on finding, as they proceeded, supplies in the produce of the mines; but that produce, though considerable in quantity, seldom yielded the expected result, owing to the very imperfect method of extracting the silver from the ore, as well as to the various disadvantages attendant on the vast distance of the undertakings from this country. These disadvantages were ill supplied by the agents of the companies. Mining in England is not conducted on a scale sufficient to afford any great choice of superintendents for mines abroad: it was necessary, in such appointments, to waive the qualification of mining knowledge, and to be satisfied with men of fair character and reputed ability in their respective professions, however different from mining. Hence the appointments, as agents, of several officers, *naval and military, on the*

half pay list; whose habits, whatever might be their personal merits, were very different from those required for such concerns. Mercantile men might have been more suitable; but a merchant fully employed in business was not likely to relinquish or suspend it; and those who in middle age are not fully employed, frequently are indebted for their leisure to vacillation, want of exertion, or deficient judgment. This suffices to account for the disappointments of the companies in a very material point—the conduct of their commissioners or agents abroad; for, of the whole number, it would be difficult to point out more than 2 or 3 entitled to the praise of judicious management. The same applied to most of the inferior *employés*,—to the practical miners, clerks, and mechanics.

The expense of conveying the requisite machinery from the coast of Mexico to the mining districts, generally at a great distance in the interior, absorbed much capital. The country has few practicable roads, draught carriages are almost unknown, and burdens are carried on the backs of mules and horses: add to this, that Mexico being under-peopled, labour is nearly as high in it as in the United States of North America; and the mechanical arts being in a manner unknown, all skilled workmen, such as carpenters, blacksmiths, and working engineers, had to be sent from England at a heavy expense.

Such were the chief causes of the failure of the Mexican mining companies; and several of these may be referred to one radical disadvantage—the non-existence of silver-mines in England. We have, in Cornwall and in North Wales, considerable mines of tin and copper, while in the northern counties we have mines of lead; but of silver we have none that deserve the name. How much better had it been had our countrymen set out with a consciousness that Germany is the only country in Europe, or, indeed, in the world, in which the treatment of silver ore is conducted on scientific principles! The Saxons at Freyberg succeed in extracting a profit from ore of very inferior quality, often worth only a fourth or fifth part of the ore raised in abundance by the Mexicans on account of our companies, but which, wrought by their crude, inefficient, and expensive process, fails to afford any thing like a satisfactory return. There seems no reason to doubt that the German process may be applied to silver ore in Mexico as in Europe: the difficulties arise, not from difference in the quality of the ore, but from the want of experienced smelters, and the general backwardness of the Mexicans in mechanics. A German mining company established in Mexico has not as yet succeeded; but they have had to contend with the same difficulties as the English companies, with the additional disadvantage of insufficient capital; so that their methods have not had a fair trial.

But though the companies were in all other respects successful, they have a serious drawback to contend with in the unsettled state of the country. No government has as yet been established in Mexico, or in any other of the newly constituted American states, with power sufficient to put down disturbances, or to enforce the observance of contracts. So long as the companies were struggling to put their mines into order, they seem to have sustained little inconvenience from the circumstances now mentioned; but the moment they had succeeded in bringing them once more into a productive state, and were beginning to have a reasonable prospect of obtaining some return for their enormous outlays, they were annoyed by questions as to title, and by the setting up of claims on the mines, of which they had never heard before. Recently, we understand, the claimants have occasionally had recourse to violence, and, in some instances, the companies' servants have been forcibly ejected from their works! We hope, though we can hardly say we believe, that these outrages may be repressed and punished. If they be permitted to continue, it is difficult to see how the companies, how well soever they may be otherwise established, can escape ruin.

Without, however, pretending to anticipate the result of these remote speculations, we shall conclude with a brief notice of the considerations on both sides of the question. The circumstances adverse to the success of mining companies in America, conducted for account of parties in England or in any part of Europe, are—

1. The various disadvantages of distant management. These are so many and so serious, as to admit of only one corrective,—selling the ore as soon as raised, and transferring to individuals, for their own account, the extraction of the metal, as is done in Cornwall, and, in a somewhat different manner, in Saxony. The ores also ought to be raised by paying the workmen, not fixed wages, but a tribute or portion of the proceeds.

2. The half-civilised state of the inhabitants, their unsettled political condition, and the want of power or disposition on the part of the parties in power to make contracts be observed; and to hinder the former proprietors of the mines, or those connected with them, from setting up fictitious claims, and enforcing them by violence.

3. The high price of labour; the ignorance of the natives as to mechanics, and still more as to science. Hence the necessity of having artisans and confidential superintendents from Europe at a heavy expense.

On the other hand, the circumstances in favour of such undertakings are—

1. The abundance of silver ore, which is far greater than in any part of Europe.

2. The former success of mining in Mexico, under a system extremely rude and expensive, compared to that which is now followed in Germany.

3. The probability of continued peace in Europe, and of an abundance of monied capital; so that the failure of the present companies would not involve a relinquishment of their enterprises, any more than the failure of the first New River Company, about two centuries ago, implied an abandonment of their project. Succeeding adventurers might come forward, and pursue the same object on a more judicious plan, and with more ample funds.

4. The probability of Old Spain recognising the independence of Mexico and the other new States; and of the governments becoming more powerful and disposed to do justice.

English Mining Companies connected with America, which are still carried on.

United Mexican.	Mexican.
Real del Monte.	Brazilian (two companies.)
Bolanos. Anglo-Mexican.	Colombian.

The amount of capital invested by these companies is about 1,000,000*l.* sterling.

Mining Companies connected with America, formed in 1825, but long since dissolved.

Anglo-Chilian.	Gold Coast (Africa).
Anglo-Peruvian.	Haytian. Pasco Peruvian.
Bolivar. Chilian.	Peruvian. Potosi La Par.
Chilian and Peruvian.	Rio de la Plata.
Castello. Panamina.	Tlalpuxahua.
General South American.	United Pacific.

The sums raised by these companies were not large; in general only 5 per cent. on their proposed capital.

There were also various companies formed in 1825, for mining in England: they were to the number of 30 and upwards; but they proved in general abortions, with the exception of the British Iron Company (with works chiefly in Staffordshire), which has drawn a large sum from its shareholders.

The following extract from the *Share List* for the 12th of October, 1833, published by Mr. Edmonds, broker, gives an account of the existing mining companies; the number of shares in each; the sums paid on account of such shares; and their selling price, &c. It is an instructive commentary on the prospectuses and prices of 1825.

No. of Shares.	Mining Companies.	Amount of Share.	Average Cost.	Price per Share.	Dividend per Annum.	Dividend payable.
		L.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	
14,080	Anglo-Mexican	100	100 0 0 paid	12 0 0		
2,000	Bolanos	150	0 0 0 —	132 10 0	11 0 0	Oct. Jan.
10,000	Bolivar	50	20 0 0 —	18 0 0	- -	October.
10,000	Brazilian (issued at 5*l.* premium)	25	25 0 0 —	58 0 0	7 10 0	May, Nov.
7,058	Do.	15	1 10 0 —	5 0 0		
4,000	Do. (National)	25	20 0 0 —	23 10 0		
20,000	British Iron	50	50 0 0 —	27 10 0		
10,000	Colombia (issued at 5*l.* premium)	55	51 10 0 —	12 15 0		
20,000	General Mining	20	11 0 0 —	9 0 0		
8,894	Hibernian	50	10 0 0 —	3 10 0		
11,568	Real del Monte mines, Mexican	64	64 0 0 —	55 0 0		
20,000	United Mexican	40	40 0 0 —	15 0 0		
	Do. Scrip	-	2 0 0 —	2 0 0		
	United Mexican do. (New)	-	5 0 0 —	16 0 0		
20,000	Mining Company, Ireland	25	5 10 0 —	1 5 0		
5,000	Brazilian, St. John Del Rey	20	10 0 0 —	5 0 0		
5,850	English Mining Company	25	12 10 0 —	22 0 0	2 0 0	April, Oct.
6,155	Mexican Company	100	45 0 0 —	12 0 0		

MINIUM, OR RED OXIDE OF LEAD, a tasteless powder of an intense red colour, often inclining to orange, and very heavy; its specific gravity being 8·04. It is extensively used in the arts.

MOCHA, the principal port in the Red Sea frequented by Europeans, in that part of Arabia called Yemen, about 40 miles to the north of the Strait of Bab-el-mandeb, lat. 13° 19′ 30″ N., lon. 43° 20′ E. Population variously estimated; but may, perhaps, amount to from 5,000 to 7,000. It is encircled with walls, and indifferently fortified. Its appearance from the sea is imposing.

Mocha is situated on the margin of a dry sandy plain. It is built close to the shore, between 2 points of land which project and form a bay. Vessels drawing from 10 to 12 feet water may anchor within this bay at about a mile from the town; but large ships anchor without the bay in the roads, in 5 or 7 fathoms water—the grand mosque bearing E.S.E., and the fort to the south of the town S. by E., distant about two miles from the shore. The great article of export from Mocha is coffee, which is universally admitted to be of the finest quality. It is not possible to form any very accurate estimate of the quantity exported; but we believe it may be taken at 10,000 tons, or perhaps more. The greater portion is sent to Djidda and Suez; but there is a pretty large export to Bombay, and other parts of India, whence some is sent to Europe; occasionally, however, the exports from Mocha and Hodeida, direct for Europe, are very considerable. Besides coffee, the principal articles of export are, dates, adjoue, or paste made of dates, myrrh, gum Arabic, olibanum, senna (*cassia senna*), sharks' fins, tragacanth, horns and hides of the rhinoceros, balm of Gilead, ivory, gold dust, civet, aloes, sagapenum, &c. The principal articles of import are, rice, piece goods, iron and hardware, &c. The ivory, gold dust, and civet, met with at Mocha, are brought from the opposite coast of Abyssinia; whence are also brought slaves, ghee, &c.

The greater part of the foreign trade of Mocha is transacted by the Banians; and it is much safer to deal with them than with either Turks or Arabs. Europeans pay a duty of 3 per cent. *ad valorem* on all goods imported by them from Europe, India, or China; the duty being levied on the amount of the sales. The buyer pays brokerage, cooley and boat hire. All kinds of foreign goods are sold on credit, and the payment is made in 3 instalments, or at a certain day, according as may have been agreed on. Coffee is always paid for in ready money. On the sale of other goods, the produce of the country, a credit is given; or if ready money be paid, a discount is allowed at the rate of 9 per cent. When goods are discharging, the master must furnish the Custom-house officer with a manifest, or account of the marks, numbers, and contents of each package. He then opens two or three bales, taken at random; and if they correspond with the account delivered, no further examination is made; but if they do not correspond, the whole bales are opened, and double duty is charged upon the excess. The quantities being thus ascertained, their value is learned from the account of sales rendered by the seller, and the duty charged accordingly. In this respect there is nothing to object to at Mocha; but a good deal of extortion is practised in the exaction of port charges, presents, &c., which may, however, be defeated by proper firmness. The port charges on ships, or *three-mast* vessels, may amount to about 400 Mocha dollars, and those on brigs to about half as much. Provisions are plentiful and cheap; but water is dear: that in the vicinity being brackish and unwholesome, whatever is used for drinking, by all but the poorest persons, is brought from Mosa, about 20 miles off. Fish are abundant and cheap, but not very good.

Money.—The current coins of the country are carats and commassees: 7 carats = 1 commassee; 60 commassees = 1 Spanish dollar; 100 Spanish dollars = 124 Mocha dollars.

Weights and Measures.—The commercial weights are—

15 Vakias = 1 Rottolo = 1 lb. 2 oz. avoird.	10 Maunds = 1 Frazel = 30 lbs. avoird.
40 Vakias = 1 Maund = 3 lbs. avoird.	15 Frazels = 1 Bahar = 450 lbs. avoird.

There is also a small maund of only 30 vakias: 1 Mocha bahar = 16½ Bombay maunds; 1 Mocha

bahar = 13 Surat maunds = 15·123 seers. Grain is measured by the kellah, 40 of which = 1 tomand, about 170 lbs. avoirdupois. The liquid measures are 16 vakias = 1 nusseah; 8 nusseahs = 1 cade, about 2 English wine gallons. The long measures are the gaz = 25 English inches; the hand covid = 18 inches, and the long iron covid = 27 inches.

In compiling this article, we made use of *Milburn's Oriental Commerce*, and *Elmore's Directory*. Niebuhr has given a plan of the port of Mocha in his *Voyage en Arabie*, tome i. p. 348. ed. Amst. 1776. He has also given some details as to its trade in his *Description de l'Arabie*, p. 191. But the best account we have seen of Mocha is in *Hamilton's Account of the East Indies* (vol. i. pp. 40—58), an accurate and valuable work. Burckhardt did not visit Mocha; which is much to be regretted.

MOGADORE, a sea-port town on the west coast of Morocco, lat. 31° 50′ N., lon. 9° 20′ W. Population about 10,000. It is indifferently fortified; the country in the immediate vicinity is low, flat, sandy, and unproductive. Water is scarce and rather dear; being either rain water collected and preserved in cisterns, or brought from a river about 1½ mile distant. The port is formed by a small island lying to the southward of the town; but as there is not more than 10 or 12 feet water in it at ebb tide, large ships anchor without, the long battery bearing E. distant 1½ mile. The city of Morocco derives its most considerable supplies of European articles from Mogadore, from which it is distant about 4 days' journey (caravan travelling). The principal imports are, English woollen and cotton stuffs and hardware, German linens, tin, copper, earthenware, mirrors, glass, sugar, pepper, paper, and a variety of other articles. The exports principally consist of sweet and bitter almonds, gum Arabic, and other gums, bees' wax, cow and calf skins, ivory, ostrich feathers, gold dust, olive oil, dates, &c.

Money.—Accounts are kept in nutkeels of 10 ounces; the ounce being divided into 4 blankeels, and the blankeel into 24 fluce. From their proportion to the Spanish dollar, the blankeel may be valued at 1d., the ounce at 4d., and the nutkeel or ducat at 3*s.* 4*d.*

Weights and Measures.—The commercial pound is generally regulated by the weight of 20 Spanish dollars; and, therefore, 100 lbs. Mogadore weight, or the quintal, = 119 lbs. avoirdupois. The market pound for provisions is 50 per cent. heavier, or 1 lb. 12½ oz. avoirdupois.

The corn measures are for the most part similar to those of Spain, but there are considerable discrepancies.

The cubit, or canna, = 21 English inches, is the principal long measure.

The most ample details with respect to the trade of Mogadore, and the trade and productions of Morocco in general, may be found in *Jackson's Account of Morocco*, c. 6, 7. and 13.; see also *Kelly's Cambist*.

MOHAIR (Ger. *Mohr*; Fr. *Moire*; It. *Moerro*; Sp. *Mue*, *Muer*), the hair of a variety of the common goat, famous for being soft and fine as silk, and of a silvery whiteness. It is not produced any where but in the vicinity of Angora, in Asia Minor. The exportation of this valuable and beautiful article, unless in the shape of yarn, was formerly prohibited; but it may now be exported unspun. The production, preparation, and sale of mohair have long engrossed the principal attention of the inhabitants of Angora; and it used to form an important article of Venetian commerce.—It is manufactured into camlets and other expensive stuffs. Hitherto but little has been imported into England.—(See, for further particulars, *Tournefort, Voyage du Levant*, tome ii. p. 463., where there is a figure of the goat; and *Urquhart on Turkey and its Resources*, p. 184.)

MOLASSES, or MELASSES (Fr. *Sirop de Sucre, Melasses*; Ger. *Syrup*; It. *Melazzo di zucchero*; Sp. *Miel de azucar, Chancaca*; Port. *Melasso, Assucar liquido*; Rus. *Patoka sacharnaja*), the uncrystallisable part of the juice of the sugar cane, separated from the sugar during its manufacture. It is of a brown or black colour, thick, and viscid; has a peculiar odour, and a sweet empyreumatic taste. Molasses imported from the West India colonies and the Mauritius is charged, on being entered for home consumption, with a duty of 9*s.* a cwt. It is not, however, used in its original state, but is purchased by the sugar-bakers, who, when it is of an ordinary degree of strength, extract from it a coarse, soft species of sugar called bastards, and treacle. But it is obvious, inasmuch as the duty on molasses is fixed, that the duty on the sugar extracted from it will vary indirectly according to the quantity of saccharine matter which it contains; and we understand that, in consequence, molasses is frequently imported so rich as to yield excellent crystallised sugar. We do not know whether the practice has been carried to such an extent as materially to injure the revenue; but it seems pretty clear that the duty ought to be made to depend, in part at least, on the quality of the molasses, or on the quantity of saccharine matter which it contains, as well as on the weight. It is difficult,—unless advantage has been taken of the way in which the duty is assessed, to elude the sugar duties,—to account for the increased importation of molasses.

About 8 gallons of proof spirit may, it is said, be obtained from a cwt. of molasses, such as has recently been imported; but this depends, of course, wholly on the richness of the molasses.

Part of the refuse that remains after refining muscovado sugar, is a sweet syrup, which, as well as the syrup that remains after boiling molasses to obtain bastards, is called treacle. But the treacle obtained from the former is always preferred to that obtained from the latter, and fetches 2*s.* per cwt. more.

Molasses is sometimes used in preparing the coarser sort of preserves; and on the Continent it is extensively used in the manufacture of tobacco.

Account of the Quantities of Molasses imported, exported, and entered for Home Consumption since 1800, with the Rates of Duty thereon, and the Produce of the Duty.—(*Papers published by Board of Trade.*)

Years.	Quantity imported.	Quantity exported.	Quantity cleared for Consumption.	Duty on, from Foreign Parts.	Duty on, from British Possessions.	Nett Revenue.
	Cwt.	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*	*Per Cwt.* L. s. d.	*Per Cwt.* s.	*L.*
1800	20,391	20,691	5,314	1 2 9	10	13,903
1801	88,135	1,799	97,141	—	—	28,549
1802	76,288	749	76,287	—	—	30,379
1803	166,966	966	161,243	—	—	80,622
1823	238,086	1,750	239,540	—	—	119,740
1824	265,962	803	268,454	—	—	166,355
1825	280,504	5,490	279,749	—	—	139,964
1826	422,444	928	412,695	—	—	206,338
1827	332,444	441	331,761	—	—	190,858
1828	316,709	2,312	305,143	—	—	183,072
1829	304,438	4,324	297,588	—	9	153,982
1830	350,643	856	348,526	—	—	166,698
1831	332,576	1,231	508,689	—	—	254,651
1832	285,995					

In 1832, the consumption was, we understand, considerably larger. The imports of foreign molasses are quite inconsiderable.

MONEY. When the division of labour was first introduced, commodities were directly bartered for each other. Those, for example, who had a surplus of corn and were in want of wine, endeavoured to find out those who were in the opposite circumstances, or who had a surplus of wine and wanted corn, and then exchanged the one for the other. It is obvious, however, that the power of changing, and, consequently, of dividing employments, must have been subjected to perpetual interruptions, so long as it was restricted to mere barter. A. carries produce to market, and B. is desirous to purchase it; but the produce belonging to B. is not suitable for A. C., again, would like to buy B.'s produce, but B. is already fully supplied with the equivalent C. has to offer. In such cases—and they must be of constant occurrence wherever money is not introduced—no direct exchange could take place between the parties; and it might be very difficult to bring it about indirectly.*

The extreme inconvenience attending such situations must early have forced themselves on the attention of every one. Efforts would, in consequence, be made to avoid them; and it would speedily appear that the best or rather the only way in which this could be effected, was to exchange either the whole or a part of one's surplus produce for some commodity of known value, and in general demand; and which, consequently, few persons would be inclined to refuse to accept as an equivalent for whatever they had to dispose of. After this commodity had begun to be employed as a means of exchanging other commodities, individuals would become willing to purchase a greater quantity of it than might be required to pay for the products they were desirous of immediately obtaining; knowing that should they, at any future period, want a further supply either of these or other articles, they would be able readily to procure them in exchange for this universally desired commodity. Though at first circulating slowly and with difficulty, it would, as the advantages arising from its use were better appreciated, begin to pass freely from hand to hand. Its value, as compared with other things, would thus come to be universally known; and it would at last be used, not only as the common medium of exchange, but as a standard by which to measure the value of other things.

Now this commodity, whatever it may be, is *money*.

An infinite variety of commodities have been used as money in different countries and periods. But none can be advantageously used as such, unless it possesses several very peculiar qualities. The slightest reflection on the purposes to which it is applied, must, indeed, be sufficient to convince every one that it is indispensable, or, at least, exceedingly desirable, that the commodity selected to serve as money should, (1) be divisible into the smallest portions; (2) that it should admit of being kept for an indefinite period without deteriorating; (3) that it should, by possessing great value in small bulk, be capable of being easily transported from place to place; (4) that one piece of money, of a certain denomination, should always be equal, in magnitude and quality, to every other piece of money of the same denomination; and (5) that its value should be comparatively steady, or as little subject to variation as possible. Without the *first* of these qualities, or the capacity of being divided into portions of every different magnitude and value, money, it is evident, would be of almost no use, and could only be exchanged for the few commodities that might happen to be of the same value as its indivisible portions, or as whole multiples of them: without the *second*, or the capacity of being kept or hoarded without deteriorating, no one would choose to exchange commodities for money, except only when he expected to be able speedily to re-exchange that money for something else: without the *third*, or facility of transportation, money could not be conveniently used in transactions between places at any considerable distance: without the *fourth*, or perfect sameness, it would be extremely difficult to appreciate the value of different pieces of money: and without the *fifth* quality, or comparative steadiness of value, money could not serve as a standard by which to measure the value

* The difficulties that would arise on such occasions, and the devices that would be adopted to overcome them, have been very well illustrated by Colonel Torrens, in his work on the "Production of Wealth," p. 391.

of other commodities; and no one would be disposed to exchange the produce of his industry for an article that might shortly decline considerably in its power of purchasing.

The union of the different qualities of comparative steadiness of value, divisibility, durability, facility of transportation, and perfect sameness, in the precious metals, doubtless formed the irresistible reason that has induced every civilised community to employ them as money. The value of gold and silver is certainly not invariable, but, generally speaking, it changes only by slow degrees; they are divisible into any number of parts, and have the singular property of being easily reunited, by means of fusion, without loss; they do not deteriorate by being kept; and, from their firm and compact texture, they are very difficult to wear. Their cost of production, especially that of gold, is so considerable, that they possess great value in small bulk, and can, of course, be transported with comparative facility; and an ounce of pure gold or silver, taken from the mines in any quarter of the world, is precisely equal, in point of quality, to an ounce of pure gold or silver dug from the mines in any other quarter. No wonder, therefore, when all the qualities necessary to constitute money are possessed in so eminent a degree by the precious metals, that they have been used as such, in civilised societies, from a very remote era. "They became universal money," as M. Turgot has observed, "not in consequence of any arbitrary agreement among men, or of the intervention of any law, but by the nature and force of things."

When first used as money, the precious metals were in an unfashioned state, in bars or ingots. The parties having agreed about the quantity of metal to be given for a commodity, that quantity was then weighed off. But this, it is plain, must have been a tedious and troublesome process. Undoubtedly, however, the greatest obstacle that would be experienced in early ages to the use of gold and silver as money, would be found to consist in the difficulty of determining the degree of their purity with sufficient precision; and the discovery of some means by which their weight and fineness might be readily and correctly ascertained, would be felt to be indispensable to their extensive use as money. Fortunately, these means were not long in being discovered. The fabrication of coins, or the practice of impressing pieces of the precious metals with a stamp indicating their weight and purity, belongs to the remotest antiquity.—(*Goguet De l'Origine des Loix, &c.* tome i. p. 269.) And it may safely be affirmed, that there have been very few inventions of greater utility, or that have done more to accelerate the progress of improvement.

It is material, however, to observe, that the introduction and use of coined money make no change whatever in the *principle* on which exchanges were previously conducted. The coinage saves the trouble of weighing and assaying gold and silver, but it does nothing more. It declares the weight and purity of the metal in a coin; but the *value* of that metal or coin is in all cases determined by precisely the same principles which determine the value of other commodities, and would be as little affected by being recoined with a new denomination, as the burden of a ship by a change of her name.

Inaccurate notions with respect to the influence of coinage seem to have given rise to the opinion, so long entertained, that coins were merely the *signs* of values! But it is clear they have no more claim to this designation than bars of iron or copper, sacks of wheat, or any other commodity. They exchange for other things, because they are desirable articles, and are possessed of real intrinsic value. A draft, check, or bill, may not improperly, perhaps, be regarded as the sign of the money to be given for it. But that money is nothing but a commodity; it is not a sign—it is the thing signified.

Money, however, is not merely the universal equivalent, or *marchandise banale*, used by society: it is also the *standard* used to compare the values of all sorts of products; and the stipulations in the great bulk of contracts and deeds, as to the delivery and disposal of property, have all reference to, and are commonly expressed in, quantities of money. It is plainly, therefore, of the utmost importance that its value should be preserved as invariable as possible. Owing, however, to improvements in the arts, the exhaustion of old mines and the discovery of new ones, the value of the precious metals is necessarily inconstant: though, if we except the effects produced in the 16th century by the discovery of the American mines, it does not appear to have varied so much at other times as might have been anticipated. Great mischief has, however, been repeatedly occasioned by the changes that have been made in most countries in the weight, and sometimes also in the purity, of coins; and since the impolicy of these changes has been recognised, similar, and perhaps still more extensive, disorders have sprung from the improper use of substitutes for coins. It is, indeed, quite obvious, that no change can take place in the value of money, without proportionally affecting the pecuniary conditions in all contracts and agreements. Much, however, of the influence of a change depends on its direction. An increase in the value of money is uniformly more prejudicial in a public point of view than its diminution: the latter, though injurious to individuals, may sometimes be productive of national advantage; but such can never be the case with the former.—(See my *Principles of Political Economy*, 2d ed. pp. 500—504.)

No certain estimate can ever be formed of the quantity of money required to conduct the business of any country; this quantity being, in all cases, determined by the value of the

ey itself, the services it has to perform, and the devices used for economising its employment. Generally, however, it is very considerable; and when it consists wholly of gold and ilver, it occasions a very heavy expense. There can, indeed, be no doubt that the wish to oen this expense has been one of the chief causes that have led all civilized and commerial nations to fabricate a portion of their money of some less valuable material. Of the arious substitutes resorted to for this purpose, paper is, in all respects, the most eligible. s employment seems to have grown naturally out of the circumstances incident to an adancing society. When government becomes sufficiently powerful and intelligent to enforce he observance of contracts, individuals possessed of written promises from others, that they ill pay certain sums at certain specified periods, begin to assign them to those to whom ey are indebted; and when the subscribers are persons of fortune, and of whose solvency o doubt can be entertained, their obligations are readily accepted in payment of debts. But hen the circulation of promises, or bills, in this way, has continued for a while, individuals egin to perceive that they may derive a profit by issuing them in such a form as to fit them r being readily used as a substitute for money in the ordinary transactions of life. Hence he origin of bank notes. An individual in whose wealth and discretion the public have onfidence, being applied to for a loan, say of 5,000*l.*, grants the applicant his bill or note, ayable on demand, for that sum. Now, as this note passes, in consequence of the confience placed in the issuer, currently from hand to hand as cash, it is quite as useful to the orrower as if it had been gold; and supposing that the rate of interest is 5 per cent., it ill yield, so long as it continues to circulate, a revenue of 250*l.* a year to the issuer. A anker who issues notes, coins, as it were, his credit. He derives the same revenue from the an of his written promise to pay a certain sum, that he could derive from the loan of the m itself, or of an equivalent amount of produce! And while he thus increases his own come, he, at the same time, contributes to increase the wealth of the public. The cheapest pecies of currency being substituted in the place of that which is most expensive, the suerfluous coins are either used in the arts, or are exported in exchange for raw materials or anufactured goods, by the use of which both wealth and enjoyments are increased. Ever nce the introduction of bills, almost all great commercial transactions have been carried on y means of paper only. Notes are also used to a very great extent in the ordinary busiess of society; and while they are readily exchangeable at the pleasure of the holder for ins, or for the precise quantities of gold or silver they profess to represent, their value is aintained on a par with the value of these metals; and all injurious fluctuations in the alue of money are as effectually avoided as if it consisted wholly of the precious metals.

In common mercantile language, the party who exchanges money for a commodity is said buy; the party who exchanges a commodity for money being said to sell. Price, unless here the contrary is distinctly mentioned, always means the value of a commodity estiated or rated in money.—(For a further account of metallic money, see the article COIN; d for an account of paper money, see the article BANKS.)

MONOPOLY. By this term is usually meant a grant from the Crown, or other competent authority, conveying to some one individual, or number of individuals, the sole right buying, selling, making, importing, exporting, &c. some one commodity, or set of commodities. Such grants were very common previously to the accession of the House of uart, and were carried to a very oppressive and injurious extent during the reign of Queen lizabeth. The grievance became at length so insupportable, that notwithstanding the opsition of government, which looked upon the power of granting monopolies as a very luable part of the prerogative, they were abolished by the famous act of 1624, the 21 . 1. c. 3. This act declares that all monopolies, grants, letters patent for the sole buying, lling, and making of goods and manufactures, shall be null and void. It excepts patents *fourteen* years for the sole working or making of any new manufactures within the m, to the true and first inventors of such manufactures, provided they be not contrary to , nor mischievous to the state. It also excepts grants by act of parliament to any corpotion, company, or society, for the enlargement of trade, and letters patent concerning the king of gunpowder, &c. This act effectually secured the freedom of industry in Great ain; and has done more, perhaps, to excite the spirit of invention and industry, and to elerate the progress of wealth, than any other in the statute book.

MONTEVIDEO, a sea-port, and the capital of the republic of Uruguay, on the north k of the Rio de la Plata, lat. 34° 54′ 11″ S., long. 56° 13′ 18″ W. Population variy estimated; but may probably be about 12,000. The town is built in the form of an phitheatre, on a regular plan, and is well fortified. It has suffered much from the various olutions to which it has been subject during the last 30 years.

Montevideo is situated 2° 3′ 33″ W. of Cape St. Mary, the northern limit of the embouchure of the Plata. Vessels from the north bound to Montevideo generally make this cape, entering the river ween it and the small island of Lobos, in from 14 to 17 fathoms. The course is thence nearly W. the isle of Flores, on which is a light-house 112 feet above the level of the sea, with a revolving t. From Flores to Montevideo is 16 miles in a direct line, and the course W. by S. by compass. ght-house, 475 feet above the level of the sea, has been erected on the summit of the Montevideo, nce the town has its name. The latter is built on a projecting tongue of land, the port being on side. This, which is the best on the La Plata, is a large circular basin open to the S. W.; ge-

nerally the water is shallow, not exceeding from 14 to 19 feet, but the bottom being soft mud, vessels are seldom damaged by grounding. It should, however, be observed that the depth of water in the harbour, as well as throughout the whole of the Rio de la Plata, depends very much on the direction and strength of the winds. The S. W. wind, called *pamperos*, blows right into the bay of Montevideo with much force, not unfrequently causing a rise of a fathom or more in the depth of water! But it rarely occasions much damage to vessels properly moored with anchors to the S. W., S. E., and one to the N.—(*Blunt's American Pilot*, pp. 542—555.; *Coulier sur les Phares*, &c.)

Montevideo has a considerable commerce. The great articles of export consist of animal products, or of hides, pork and beef, tallow, bones, grease, wool, &c. The imports principally consist of British cottons, woollens, and hardware, flour, wine and spirits, linens, sugar, tobacco, boots and shoes, salt, &c. The following tables give a view of the trade and navigation of Montevideo in 1834 and 1835.

Imports.—The entire value of the different articles imported into Montevideo, in 1835, were estimated at 3,095,409 dollars. The quantities and value of some of the principal articles were as follow:—

			Value.
			Dollars.
Flour	18,6[illegible]1 barrels		[illegible]
Rice	28,490 arrobas		[illegible]
Farina	55,[illegible] —		[illegible]
Sugar	91,674 —		[illegible]
Brandy	654½ pipes, 7 barrels, 2[illegible]8 boxes		[illegible]
Cana	1,516 — 177 — 290 baskets		[illegible]
		Dollars.	
Wine, red	5,010½ pipes, 1,629 boxes	180,440	
white	785 — 296 — 75 baskets, 72 dozen barrels	41,948	
			[illegible]
Matte*	42,767 arrobas		[illegible]
Salt	Cadiz and Cape Verd 28,167, other places	*Paraguay* 7,988	[illegible]
Tobacco	Brazil 14,001 arrobas, Paraguay 1,456, North American	2,400	[illegible]
Baize	178,984 yards and 151 pieces pellon		[illegible]
Boots and Shoes	value		[illegible]
Clogs	7,559 dozen		[illegible]
English goods from the wreck of the "Cara"			[illegible]
Silk stuffs	7,874 varas, 8,230 yards, 25 pieces		[illegible]
Grey domestics	20,484 pieces, 5,980 varas		[illegible]
Ginghams	156,032 yards		[illegible]
Stockings	12,685 dozen cotton, 1,897 dozen silk, 680 dozen woollen		[illegible]
Shirtings	12,452 pieces		[illegible]
Handkerchiefs, shawls			[illegible]
Cloth	79,080 yards		[illegible]
Prints	32,026 pieces		[illegible]
Tiles	391,500		[illegible]
Iron	4,139 quintals		[illegible]
Hardware			[illegible]
Timber	68,029 Brazil, 29,309 North America, 11,824 other places		[illegible]
Furniture	12,788 France, 27,003 — 16,518 —		[illegible]

* Paragua tea.

Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles exported from Montevideo in 1835.

	Ox and Cow Hides.	Horse Hides.	Horns.	Hair.	Wool.	Tallow.	Beef.	Grease.	Sheep Skins.	Nutria Skins.
				Arrobas.	*Arrobas.*	*Arrobas.*	*Qtls.*	*Arrobas.*	*Dozs.*	*Dozs.*
January	38,712	5,120	56,070	1,644	4,280	6,615	21,990	-	1,708	[illegible]
February	4,392	2,400	16,000	708	-	3,040	13,613	110		
March	26,751	2,980	37,320	96	7,770	4,277	29,745	1,986	201	[illegible]
April	25,321	1,540	39,100	1,800	2,376	7,916	12,615	1,245	30	
May	27,597	5,266	70,756	918	1,990	200	18,804	30	-	[illegible]
June	48,370	800	18,568	1,080	1,100	600	20,199	1,830	2,409	
July	64,686	7,502	64,401	2,156	3,070	4,923	19,872	-	1,560	[illegible]
August	41,910	11,544	26,028	2,068	2,730	2,083	3,735	-	2,463	[illegible]
September	51,180	4,074	79,088	960	2,710	1,478	6,800	1,860	2,500	
October	52,141	7,125	30,280	1,366	26	260	18,080	-	460	[illegible]
November	19,641	1,001	45,075	1,322	150	458	13,450	-	750	[illegible]
December	26,157	10,080	47,582	2,572	7,800	780	24,801	400	2,650	[illegible]
	430,900	59,422	549,588	17,070	33,896	32,710	198,774	6,741	14,957	[illegible]

A Statement of the Number of Vessels, with their Tonnage and Crews, and the Total Invoice Value of their Cargoes, distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, which arrived at and departed from the port of Montevideo in 1834.

Countries.	Arrived.				Departed.			
	Vessels.			Invoice Value of Cargoes.	Vessels.			Invoice Value of Cargoes.
	No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.	
Great Britain	65	12,339	664	*L.* 538,962	64	11,916	645	*L.* [illegible]
France	31	7,135	483		28	6,380	394	
United States	43	12,859	611		57	11,077	536	
Brazil	38	4,942	423		39	4,896	462	
All other nations	No return of Shipping made.							

DUTIES ON IMPORTS.
In National or Foreign Vessels, at Montevideo.

1. Machinery, agricultural implements, instruments used in the arts and sciences, books, prints, and maps - - - - - free.
2. Silk, raw and wrought, laces, blonde, gold and silver embroidery, watches, jewellery, saltpetre, plaster of Paris, coal, timber, cotton fringe, and wooden hoops - - - - - 5 per cent.
3. Powder, pitch, tar, rosin, and naval stores - 13 —
4. All raw materials, and manufactured articles, not included in the preceding enumeration - 6 —
5. Sugar, Paraguay and China teas, cocoa, cassia lignea, and cinnamon, spices, drugs, and provisions in general - - - - - 26 —
6. Furniture, pictures, looking-glasses, musical instruments, all sorts of carriages, carts, &c., and harness, saddles, horse's furniture (excepting horse cloths of the manufacture of the adjacent pro-

DUTIES ON EXPORTS.
In National or Foreign Vessels.

Ox and cow hides, 2 reals, 25 centisimos, for reconnidor [illegible] of 1 dollar, and 1 per cent. consulado.
Horse hides, 1 real for reconnidor, on valuations of 8 reals [illegible] coanidor each, and 1 per cent. consulado.
All other produce of the country pays 4 per cent. on the [illegible] value, and 1 per cent. consulado.
Jerked and salt beef, pork, &c.; also all foreign goods that have paid the import duty, free.
Gold and silver, coined or in bullion, 1 per cent.

	Vessels. Foreign.	National.
Port Charges—Tonnage from beyond sea.	3 reals.	1 real.
During loading and unloading both classes pay 1 dollar per day.		
Pratique, with pilot	8 dollars.	4 dollars.
Boat	2 —	1 —
Without pilot	4 —	2 —

DUTIES ON IMPORTS—*continued.*

In National or Foreign Vessels, at Montevideo.

cheese, which pay 15 per cent.), ready made clothes, boots and shoes, liqueurs, brandy, wine, vinegar, ale and porter, cider, tobacco, and soap . 25 per cent.
Salt, 2 reals the fanega, say 11d. per 220 lbs.
Rice of all classes, hair, horns, tallow, silver, and gold, in bullion or coin . . . . . free.

A small charge is made for warehousing and porterage on passing through the Custom-house. Goods may be landed for an indefinite period, during which time they are subject to a moderate warehouse rent.

Foreign flour pays as follows :—
1 dollar per barrel, when wheat is worth 2 to 3 dollars per fanega, about 224 lbs.
4 dollars per barrel, when wheat is worth 3 to 4 dollars per fanega.
4 dollars, when wheat is worth 5 to 7 dollars.
4 dollars, when wheat is worth 7 to 9 dollars.
1 dollar, when wheat exceeds 9 dollars.

Wheat :—
1 dollar per fanega, when wheat is worth 2 to 3 dollars per fanega.
1 dollar, when wheat is worth 3 to 6 dollars.
1 dollar, when wheat is worth 6 to 10 dollars.
Nothing when wheat is worth above 10 dollars per fanega.
Goods transhipped, or shipped out of bond, pay 2 per cent.
Foreign vessels, shipped in vessels of less than 150 tons burden, for ports of the Uruguay and Paraguay, pay only 1 per cent.
All goods imported, paying duties, are subject to pay an additional 1 per cent. to the consulado; 1-2 per cent. to the hospital; and for the extinction of copper money*, 1 per cent. additional on all goods that pay . . . . . 5 per cent.
On all goods that pay 15, 15, and 20 per cent. . 3 —
On all goods that pay 25 per cent. . . . 5 —
On flour . . . . . 10 —
On wheat . . . . . 3 —

* This has, much to the honour of the authorities and people, been already accomplished; but the duty is maintained for general purposes.

DUTIES ON EXPORTS—*continued.*

In National or Foreign Vessels.

National and foreign vessels, that neither discharge nor load cargo, and that do not remain more than six days, pay nothing; those that remain in the harbour more than six days pay one third of the above tonnage dues.

National vessels, and vessels belonging to the provinces of Buenos Ayres, employed within the river Plate, called coasting, pay for a license for each voyage as follows :—

If 5	to 7 tons,	4 reals.		
8	— 15 —	10	— or 1 dollar, 2 reals.	
16	— 30 —	18	— or 2 —	3 —
31	— 45 —	26	— or 3 —	2 —
46	— 60 —	30	— or 3 —	6 —
61	— 90 —	38	— or 4 —	6 —
91	— 100 —	46	— or 5 —	6 —
101 and above		54	— or 6 —	6 —

Hospital Dues.—National and foreign vessels, sailing for a foreign port beyond sea or in the river Plate, pay 2 dollars for the vessel, 4 reals for the captain, 2 reals for each seaman, 1 dollar for each passenger.

Pilotage from Montevideo to Buenos Ayres to be paid in Montevideo.

If the draught of water do not exceed

9 feet Burgos measure,	60 dollars.
9 to 10 feet,	60 —
10 — 11 —	70 —
11 — 12 —	80 —
12 — 13 —	100 —
13 — 14 —	120 —
14 — 15 —	140 —
15 — 16 —	160 —
16 — 17 —	180 —
17 — 18 —	200 —

Measure, Weights, and Moneys.—Paper money there is none.

Current money the Brasilian patacon and Spanish dollar; they pass for 960 centesimos.

100 cents make a real.
200 cents, or 2 reals, make a dollar.
960 cents, or 9 reals 60 cents, make 1 1-4 current dollar, or 1 hard dollar or patacon.
Weights and measures same as those of Spain; for which see *Cadiz.*

We are indebted for the above valuable information to John Hall, Esq., Vice-Consul at Liverpool for the republic of Uruguay.—*Sup.*)

MOROCCO, or MAROQUIN (Ger. *Saffiam*; Fr. *Maroquin*; It. *Marrocchino*; Sp. *Marroqui*; Rus. *Safian*), a fine kind of leather prepared of the skins of goats, imported from the Levant, Barbary, Spain, Flanders, &c. It is red, black, green, yellow, &c. It is extensively used in the binding of books.

(MOULMEIN, or MAULMAIN, a sea-port town of India beyond the Ganges, cap. British prov. Martaban, at the mouth of the great river Than-lueng, having N. the Birmese town of Martaban, on the opposite side of the river, and W. the island of Balu, which serves as a natural breakwater to defend the port from the heavy seas that would otherwise be thrown in from the W., 100 m. S. S. E. Rangoon, 27 m. N. N. E. Amherst; lat. 16° 30′ N., long. 97° 38′ E. It was founded so late as 1825, when the site was selected by Sir A. Campbell as eligible as well for a commercial as a military station. It is about 200 feet above the level of the river, and extensive and fertile plains stretch eastwards from it towards the mountains. Its port is good, and, from its extensive command of internal navigation, it promises to become a considerable emporium. The principal articles of export are teak timber and rice; but there is also a considerable export of tobacco, stick-lac, betel-nut, ivory, cutch, cocoa-nut, &c. The imports consist principally of European cotton goods, and marine stores. The principal trade of the place has hitherto been carried on with Calcutta, Madras, Rangoon, and Pinang; but, in 1837, a direct trade was commenced with London. Ship-building is carried on to a considerable extent. We have no recent accounts of the population; but, probably, it is not under 8,000 or 10,000. An English newspaper (the *Maulmain Chronicle*), from which we borrow the following details, is published once a week :—

"In order to exhibit, at one view, the decided increase of our trade in 1837 over the preceding year, we place the totals to and from each port in juxtaposition.

	Imports.				Exports.		
	1836.	1837.	Increase.		1836.	1837.	Increase.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Calcutta	5,56,810	9,38,891	3,82,072	Calcutta	91,244	2,08,011	1,16,767
Madras	77,802	1,39,476	61,674	Madras	26,200	1,23,585	97,736
Straits	51,622	91,137	39,515	Straits	48,960	56,968	7,608
Rangoon	1,00,874	1,97,532	96,658	Mauritius	—	84,305	84,305
Tenasserim Coast	43,730	52,174	8,444	Rangoon	3,04,467	1,48,081	
Other Ports	34,510	41,455	6,945	Tenasserim Coast	32,614	18,471	
				Other Ports	18,090	28,609	10,519
Total	8,65,357	14,60,665	5,95,308	Total	4,24,995	6,68,410	2,43,415

"From this it will appear, that the imports have increased nearly six lacs of rupees, and the exports two lacs and a half. Among the imports, the increase is found chiefly under the head of marine stores, spirituous liquors, and articles of European and Birmese manufacture. Among the exports, it is found in the staple productions of the country, rice and timber. Under the head of imports, we may notice that five lacs of rupees were received during the year into the government treasury; to which may be added, what does not appear in our statement, about half a lac of rupees, perhaps, from the Mauritius, for the purchase of cargoes of rice and timber. Under the head of exports, also, it would not, we think, be improper to include the estimated value of the vessels built and launched during the year at the several dock yards. The following is a very rough estimate :—

	No.	Tonnage.	Estimated Value.
Vessels launched	9	2500	250,000
Ditto fitted for sea			125,000
Total			Rs. 375,000

"We are not aware that the mode in which our statements are drawn up requires any particular explanation. The word "Sundries" may be, perhaps, thought too comprehensive, but we have divided it among articles of European, Indian, Chinese, and Birmese produce or manufacture.

"The following is a statement of the imports into Maulmain from the neighbouring Shan States during 1837:—

	No.	Value.
Elephants	68	13,600
Ponies	146	17,520
Buffaloes	99	990
Cows and bullocks	3480	45,000
Sundries		4,500
		Rs. 81,610

"Of the exports to those states, we can procure no detailed statement. Little else, however, is taken to them from hence but piece goods, either European or native, the value of which may, perhaps, be estimated at about 60,000 rupees.

"Taking, then, into consideration the various items above alluded to, and which are not brought into our statements, we shall have the following as the amount of imports and exports for the year 1837:— Imports - - Rs. 20,92,275 | Exports - - Rs. 11,03,410" Sip.)

MUNJEET, a species of *Rubia tinctorum*, or madder, produced in Nepaul and in various districts of India. That which is brought to England is imported from Calcutta, and is cultivated in the high lands about Natpore in Purneah. The roots are long and slender, and when broken appear of a red colour. It is used in dyeing; the red which it produces being, though somewhat peculiar, nearly the same as that produced by European madder. Dr. Bancroft says, that the colour which it imparts to cotton and linen is not so durable as that of madder; but that upon wool or woollen cloth its colour is brighter and livelier; and, when proper mordants are used, nearly, perhaps quite, as permanent.—(*Permanent Colours*, vol. ii. p. 279.) The best munjeet is in pieces about the bigness of a small quill, clean and firm, breaking short, and not pipy or chaffy. Its smell somewhat resembles liquorice root.

Being a very bulky article, as compared with its value, the freight adds greatly to its cost. This seems to be the principal reason of its being so very little used in Great Britain, that the entire imports, during the 3 years ending with 1832, amounted to only 3,897 cwt. were imported; this increased importation being accounted for by the then comparatively low rate of freight.—(*Parl. Papers*, No. 22. Sess. 1830, and No. 495. Sess. 1833.) The brokers estimate that 4*l.* per ton of freight is equal to 11*s.* 1*d.* per cwt. on the value of the article; 5*l.* per ton being equal to 13*s.* 10*d.*; 6*l.* to 16*s.* 7*d.*; and 7*l.* to 19*s.* 4*d.*; and as the price of munjeet in bond varies from 20*s.* to 3*l.* a cwt., it is plain it cannot be imported in any considerable quantity, except when freights are very much depressed. It is mostly imported in small packets or bundles of 600 or 800 to the ton; but sometimes it is packed in bales like cotton.

MUSCAT, a city and sea-port situated on the east coast of Arabia, about 96 miles N. W. of Cape Rasselgate (Ras-el-had), in lat. 23° 38′ N., lon. 58° 37½′ E. Population uncertain; but estimated by Mr. Fraser at from 10,000 to 12,000; of these 1,000 may be Hindoos from Sinde, Cutch, and Guzerat, the rest being Arabs and negro slaves. The latter are numerous, and are generally stout, well made, and active.

The harbour, which is the best on this part of the Arabic coast, opens to the north, and is shaped like a horse-shoe. It is bounded on the W. and S. by the lofty projecting shores of the mainland, and on the E. by Muscat Island, a ridge of rocks from 200 to 300 feet high. The town stands on a sandy beach at the south end or bottom of the cove or harbour, about 1½ mile from its mouth. The depth of water near the town varies from 3 to 4 and 5 fathoms. Ships at anchor are exposed to the north and north-west winds; but as the anchorage is every where good, accidents are of very rare occurrence. The harbour is protected by some pretty strong forts. Vessels are not allowed to enter after dusk, nor to leave before sunrise. If the usual signal be made for a pilot, one will come off, but not otherwise. It is best to make them attend till the vessel be secured, as they have excellent boats for carrying out warp anchors.

Muscat is a place of considerable importance, being at once the key to, and commanding the trade of, the Persian Gulf. The dominions of the imaum, or prince, are extensive, and his government is more liberal and intelligent than any other in Arabia or Persia. The town, situated at the bottom of a high hill, is ill-built and filthy; and, during the months of July and August, is one of the hottest inhabited places in the world. The country in the immediate vicinity of the town is extremely barren; but it improves as it recedes from the shore. Dates and wheat, particularly the first, are the principal articles of produce. The dates of this part of Arabia are held in high estimation, and are largely exported, those of Bushire and Bussorah being imported in their stead. A date tree is valued at from 7 to 10 dollars, and its annual produce at from 1 to 1½ dollar. An estate is said to be worth 2,000, 3,000, or 4,000 date trees, according to the number it possesses.

But the place derives its whole importance from the commerce and navigation of which it is the centre. The imaum has some large ships of war, and his subjects possess some of the finest trading vessels to be met with in the Indian seas. The part of Arabia adjoining to Muscat is too poor to have any very considerable direct trade; but owing to its favourable situation, the backward state of the country round the Persian Gulf, and the superiority of its ships and seamen, Muscat has become an important *entrepôt*, and has an extensive transit and carrying trade. Most European ships bound for Bussorah and Bushire touch at it; and more than half the trade of the Persian Gulf is carried on in ships belonging to its merchants.—(See BUSHIRE.) But, exclusive of the ports on the gulf, and the south and west coasts of Arabia, ships under the flag of the imaum trade to all the ports of British India, to Singapore, Java, the Mauritius, the east coast of Africa, &c. The pearl trade of the Persian Gulf is now, also, wholly centered at Muscat. All merchandise passing up the gulf on Arab bottoms pays a duty of ½ per cent to the imaum. He also rents the islands of Ormus and Kishmee, the port of Gombroon, and some sulphur mines from the Persian government.

In the magazines of Muscat may be found every species of produce imported into, or exported from the Persian Gulf. Various articles are also imported for the use of the surrounding country, and for the internal consumption of Arabia. Among these, the principal are rice, sugar, coffee from Mocha, cotton and cotton cloth, cocoa nuts, wood for building, slaves from Zanguebar, dates from Bushire and Bussorah, &c. Payment for these is chiefly made in specie and pearls; but they also export drugs of various descriptions, ivory, gums, hides, ostrich feathers, horses, a sort of earthen jars, called martuban, to Tranquebar, dried fish, an esteemed sweetmeat called *halwah*, and a few other articles.

The markets of Muscat are abundantly supplied with all sorts of provision. Beef, mutton, and vegetables of good quality may be had at all times, and reasonably cheap. The bay literally swarms with the greatest variety of most excellent fish. Water is excellent, and is conveyed to the beach in such a manner that the casks of a vessel may be filled in her boats while afloat. Fire-wood is also abundant, and is cheaper than at Bombay.

Mohammedans pay a duty of 2½ per cent. on imports and exports; and all other nations pay 5 per cent.

Money, Weights, and *Measures.*—Accounts here are kept in goz and mamoodies: 20 goz = 1 mammoody; and 20 mamoodies = 1 dollar. All Persian, Turkish, and Indian coins, as well as French and German crowns, and Spanish dollars, are met with: their value fluctuating with the demand; and they are generally sold by weight.

The weights are, the cucha and maund; 24 cuchas = 1 maund = 8 lbs. 12 oz. avoirdupois.

Neibuhr thinks, that Muscat occupies the site of the Mosca of Arrian and other Greek writers—(*Voyage en Arabie*, vol. ii. p. 71 ed. Amst. 1780.); a conjecture which seems to be confirmed, not merely by the resemblance of the name, but also by the terms applied by Arrian to Mosca being sufficiently descriptive of Muscat; and as the port is bounded on all sides by rocks, it must now present almost the same appearance as in antiquity. Dr. Vincent, however, though he speaks doubtfully on the subject, is inclined to place Mosca to the west of Cape Rasselgate.—(*Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients*, vol. ii. pp. 344—347. For further particulars, besides the authorities above referred to, see *Hamilton's New Account of the East Indies*, vol. i. p. 63.; *Frazer's Journey to Khorasan*, pp. 5—19.: *Milburn's Orient. Com., &c.* The longitude given above is that of *Arrowsmith's Chart of the Persian Gulf.*)

MUSK (Fr. *Musc*; Ger. *Bisam*; Du. *Muskus*; It. *Muschio*; Sp. *Almizele*; Rus. *Muscus*; Arab. and Pers. *Mishk*) is obtained from a species of deer (*Moschus moschiferus*) inhabiting the Alpine mountains of the east of Asia. The musk is found in a small bag under the belly. Musk is in grains concreted together, dry, yet slightly unctuous, and free from grittiness when rubbed between the fingers or chewed. It has a peculiar, aromatic, and extremely powerful and durable odour; the taste is bitterish and heavy; and the colour deep brown, with a shade of red. It is imported into England from China, in caddies containing from 60 to 100 oz. each; but an inferior kind is brought from Bengal, and a still baser sort from Russia. The best is that which is in the natural follicle or pod. Being a very high-priced article, it is often adulterated. That which is mixed with the animal's blood may be discovered by the largeness of the lumps or clots. It is sometimes mixed with a dark, highly coloured, friable earth; but this appears to the touch to be of a more crumbling texture, and is harder as well as heavier than genuine musk. 20 cwt. of musk are allowed to a ton. It is not permitted to be brought home in the China ships belonging to the East India Company, but may be imported in others.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*) At an average of the 3 years ending with 1832, the imports of musk, from all places eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, with the exception of China, amounted to 4,965 oz. a year.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 425. Sess. 1833.)

MUSLIN (Ger. *Musselin, Nesseltuch*; Du. *Neteldoek*; Fr. *Mousseline*; It. *Mussolina*; Sp. *Moselina*; Rus. *Kissea*), is derived from the word *mousale* or *mousseln*, a name given to it in India, where large quantities are made. It is a fine thin sort of cotton cloth, with a downy nap on the surface. Formerly all muslins were imported from the East; but now they are manufactured in immense quantities at Manchester, Glasgow, &c. of a fineness and durability which rival those of India, at the same time that they are very considerably cheaper.—(See COTTON.)

MUSTARD (Ger. *Mustert, Senf*; Fr. *Moutarde*; It. *Mostarda*; Sp. *Mostaza*; Rus. *Gortschiza*; Lat. *Sinapis*; Arab. *Khirdal*; Hind. *Rái*), a plant (*Sinapis*) of which there are several species, some of them indigenous to Great Britain. It was formerly extensively cultivated in Durham, but it is now seldom seen in that country. At present it is principally raised in the neighbourhood of York, and throughout other parts of the North Riding; and being manufactured in the city of York, is afterwards sold under the name of Durham mustard. Two quarters an acre are reckoned a good crop. Mustard is of considerable importance in the materia medica, and is extensively used as a condiment. It was not, however, known, in its present form, at our tables, till 1720. The seed had previously been merely pounded in a mortar, and in that rude state separated from the integuments and prepared for use. But, at the period referred to, it occurred to a woman of the name of Clements, residing in Durham, to grind the seed in a mill, and to treat the meal in the same way that flour is treated. Her mustard was, in consequence, very superior; and, being approved by George I., speedily came into general use. Mrs. Clements kept her secret for a considerable time, and acquired a competent fortune. In Bengal, and other Eastern countries, mustard is extensively cultivated, as rape is in Europe, for the purpose of yielding oil. —(*Bailey's Survey of Durham*, p. 147.; *Loudon's Ency. of Agric.*)

MYROBALANS, are dried fruits of the plum kind, occasionally brought from Bengal and other parts of India. There are said to be 5 different species. They vary from the size of olives to that of gall nuts; have an unpleasant, bitterish, austere taste; produce, with

iron, a strong, durable, black dye and ink; and with alum, a very full, though dark, brownish yellow. They are used in calico printing and medicine by the Hindoos. They have also been employed, though to a comparatively trifling extent, in the arts, and in pharmacy, in Europe; but they are now discarded from our Pharmacopœias.—(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Bancroft on Permanent Colours*, vol. i. p. 351.)

MYRRH (Ger. *Myrrhen*; Du. *Mirrhe*; Fr. *Myrrhe*; Ital. and Sp. *Mirra*; Lat. *Myrrha*; Arab. *Murr*), a resinous substance, the produce of an unknown tree growing in Arabia and Abyssinia. It is imported in chests, each containing from 1 to 2 cwt. Abyssinian myrrh comes to us through the East Indies, while that produced in Arabia is brought by the way of Turkey. It has a peculiar, rather fragrant, odour, and a bitter aromatic taste. It is in small irregularly shaped pieces, which can hardly be called tears. Good myrrh is translucent, of a reddish yellow colour, brittle, breaking with a resinous fracture, and easily pulverised. Its specific gravity is 1·36. When it is opaque, mixed with impurities, and either white, or of a dark colour approaching nearly to black, with a disagreeable odour, it should be rejected.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

N.

NAILS (Ger. *Nägel, Spiker*; Du. *Spykers*; Fr. *Clous*; It. *Chiodi, Chiovi, Aguti*; Sp. *Clavos*; Rus. *Gwosdi*), are small spikes of iron, brass, &c., which, being driven into wood, serve to bind several pieces together, or to fasten something upon them. There is scarcely a town or village in Great Britain in which nails are not forged; but the principal seats of this useful branch of the iron manufacture are at Birmingham, Bilston, Wolverhampton, Dudley, Sheffield, and a small district in Derbyshire. The consumption of nails is immense; and the aggregate value of those annually produced is very large.

NANGASACKI, a sea-port town on the south-west coast of the island of Ximo, one of the Japanese islands, being, according to Krusenstern, in lat. 32° 43′ 40″ N., lon. 130° 11′ 47″ E. The harbour extends N.E. and S.W. about 2½ leagues, being, in most places, less than a mile in width. Ships lie in 5 or 6 fathoms water, within a gunshot of the town, near the middle of the bay, where they are protected from all winds.

The Japanese islands are situated within the temperate zone. They are believed to contain 50,000,000 of people, superior in industry and civilisation to every other Eastern nation, with the exception of the Chinese. But, notwithstanding Japan has some thousand miles of sea-coast, all foreigners are rigidly excluded from it, with the exception of the Dutch and Chinese; and they are only allowed to visit Nangasacki, the former with 2 ships, and the latter with 10 junks.

The Japanese themselves are prohibited by the laws of the empire from quitting their own shores; and, notwithstanding they formerly emigrated freely, and traded extensively with the neighbouring nations, they have resolutely adhered to this anti-social regulation since 1637, or for nearly 200 years. Both Dutch and Chinese are subjected to a rigorous *surveillance* during their residence in Japan. "The ships," (Dutch) says Mr. Crawford, "no sooner arrive, than their rudders are unshipped, their guns dismounted, their arms and ammunition removed, a military guard put on board, and row boats appointed to watch them. Their cargoes are landed by, and placed in charge of, the officers of the Japanese government, and the Dutch have neither control over, nor access to them, except through *solicitation*. The island of Desima, to which they are confined, is an artificial structure of stone raised upon the rocks of the harbour, measuring in its greatest length 236 paces, by a breadth of 68. It communicates with the town of Nangasacki by a bridge and gate, and is palisadoed all round, as well as surrounded by a guard. From this imprisonment the Dutch are allowed to peep twice or thrice a year, rather to be exhibited to the great as a curiosity, than out of indulgence. A corps of constables and interpreters are appointed to watch over their minutest actions; and the most degrading servilities are exacted from the highest among them, by the meanest officers of the Japanese government."

The Chinese trade with Japan is understood to be conducted from the port of Ningpo, in the province of Chekiang, which is so conveniently situated, that 2 voyages may be performed in the year, even by the clumsy junks of China. The commodities with which the Chinese furnish the Japanese, consist of raw sugar, cow and buffalo hides, wrought silks, consisting chiefly of satins and damasks, eagle and sandal wood, ginseng, tutenague or zinc, tin, lead, fine teas, and, for more than 100 years back, some European broad cloths and camlets. The exports consist of copper, limited to 15,000 piculs, or about 900 tons; camphor, sabre blades, pearls, some descriptions of paper and porcelain, and some Japan ware, which is either curious or handsome, but not so substantial as that of China.

Japan, could a trade be freely carried on with it, would unquestionably, from its extent, population, and civilisation, afford a great opening for the commerce of Europe. All attempts hitherto made have been baffled by the watchful jealousy of the Japanese government. The only fair prospect of success is to leave the matter entirely to the enterprise and ingenuity of the British merchants, to whom the trade of the neighbouring Chinese empire is now thrown open. After considering Japan, among Eastern nations, as second only in population, extent, and civilisation to China, and that the whole empire is situated beyond the tropics, and in the same region as Turkey, Italy, Spain, and a part of the south of France, we may easily discover the sort of commodities which Europe or European colonies could furnish in a trade with it. They would consist of broad cloths and other woollens, cotton fabrics, iron, spelter, tin, lead, glass ware, sugar, drugs, and spiceries. These would be paid for in camphor, raw silk, unwrought copper, gold, and silver. Of the 3 metals now mentioned, there can be no question that Japan contains very rich mines. Down to 1710, when the quantity of copper permitted to be exported was limited, the exports by the Dutch and Chinese amounted to 4,500 tons. With respect to silver, before its exportation was prohibited, the Portuguese brought it away in large quantities, having, in 1696, exported no less than 2,350 chests, equivalent to 2,350,000 taels, or (at 6s. the tael) 705,000*l.* sterling. As to gold, it has been always supposed, from its relative abundance in Japan, to bear a smaller proportionate value to silver than in any other country.

The following are the quantities and value of goods exported and imported by the Dutch in their

trade with Japan in 1825; the ships employed being one of 600, and one of 700 tons burden. The trade is exclusively carried on with the port of Batavia.

Exports to Nangasacki.			Imports from Nangasacki.		
Articles.		Value.	Articles.		Value.
		Florins.			*Florins.*
Sandal wood, 109 piculs			Camphor, 720 piculs		69,120
Sapan wood, 1,187 do.			Copper*, 10,745 do.		617,568
Buffalo hides, 600 in number			Crape, 426 pieces		17,748
Rhinoceros' teeth, 1,636 lbs.		8,847	Cotton cloth		13,978
Malay camphor, 61 lbs.		3,444	Medicine		2,270
Java mats, 325 in number			Provisions		8,347
Cocoa nut oil, 94 piculs			Sakkie and soy		14,332
Cloves, 118 do.		18,926	Wheat, 307 bags		2,186
Sugar, 4,891 do.		104,968	Silks		31,600
Tin, 338 do.		18,936	Sundries		96,089
Bengal piece goods		80,896			
Hardware and porcelain		2,250			
Jewellery		1,100			
Glass ware		3,748			
Netherlands broad cloths		78,920			
Lead, 147 piculs		3,793			
Netherlands cotton goods		61,332			
Medicine and sundries					
Total value of export cargoes	*F.*	373,859	Total value of import cargoes	*F.*	993,493
Or, at 12 *F.* per *L.*	*L.*	31,154 8 4	Or, at 12 *F.* per *L.*	*L.*	73,575 10 0

We may take this opportunity of stating that the last authentic account we have of any British vessel attempting to carry on an intercourse with Japan, was that of a ship commanded by Captain Gordon, which touched at the entrance of the bay of Jeddo, in 1818, in a voyage from Calcutta to Ochotsk. Captain Gordon remained at anchor 8 days, waiting the receipt of instructions from the capital, Jeddo, at the head of the bay, distant about 100 miles. He requested leave to return next year for the purpose of carrying on trade, which in civil but peremptory terms was refused. During the ship's stay, she was closely watched by an immense police force, but liberal offers were made of supplies. The officers would permit no species of trade to be carried on, for which, however, the people evinced the greatest possible desire, admiring the broad cloths, calicoes, and other European articles which were shown them. The ship was visited by some thousand natives, chiefly from curiosity. Captain Gordon thinks that a contraband trade, similar to that conducted by the European nations off the mouth of the Canton river, may be successfully carried on with Japan.—(*Kempfer's History of Japan*, vol. i. p. 310—356; *Krusenstern's Voyage round the World*, vol. i. p. 261. English translation; *Crawfurd's Indian Archipelago*, vol. iii. p. 297.; *Evidence of John Deane, Esq., First Report of the Select Committee on the Affairs of the East India Company*, 1830, p. 249.; *Personal communications from Capt. P. Gordon.*)

Money.—Accounts are kept in taels, mace, and candarines; 10 candarines make 1 mace, and 10 mace 1 tael. The Dutch reckon the Nangasacki tael at 3 1-2 florins, equal to about 6*s.* 2*d.* The gold coins current are the new and old itjib and cobangs, or coepangs; the silver coins are, the zandiegin, itsganne, and kodanne. They are in general very simple, struck plain, and unadorned, the greater part of them without any rim round the margin, and most of them without any determined value. For this reason they are always weighed by the merchants, who put their chop or stamp upon them, to signify that the coin is standard weight and unadulterated.

The new cobangs are oblong, rounded at the ends, and flat, about 3 inches broad, scarcely thicker than an English farthing, of a pale yellow colour; the die on one side consists of several cross lines stamped; and at both ends there is a rectangular figure, with raised letters on it, and besides, a moonlike figure, with a flower on it impaid. On the other side is a circular stamp with raised letters on it; and within the margin, towards one end, two smaller sunk stamps with raised letters, which are different on each cobang; they are raised at 60 mace. There are old cobangs occasionally met with, which are of fine gold, somewhat broader than the new.

The old cobangs weigh 371 Dutch asen, or 276 English grains, and the gold is said to be 22 carats fine, which would give 44*s.* 7*d.* for the value of the old cobang. But the Japanese coins are reckoned at Malacca only 87 touch, which is 20 22-25 carats; this reduces the old cobang to 41*s.* 10*d.* The new cobangs weigh 180 grains; the gold is about 16 carats fine, and the value is 21*s.* 3*d.* The chan is thrice the value of the cobang.

The itjib is called by the Dutch golden bean, and is made of pale gold, of a parallelogramical figure and flat, rather thicker than a farthing, with many raised letters on one side, and two figures or flowers in relief on the other; the value of this is 1-4 of a cobang. There are old itjibs also to be met with; these are thicker than the new ones, and in value 22 mace 5 candarines.

Nandiegin is a parallelogramical flat silver coin, of twice the thickness of a halfpenny, 1 inch long, and 1-2 inch broad, and formed of fine silver. The edge is stamped with stars, and within the edges are raised dots. One side is marked all over with raised letters; and the other, on its lower and larger moiety, is filled with raised letters, and at the same time exhibits a double moonlike figure. Its value is 1 mace 5 candarines.

Itgane and kodanne are denominations by which various lumps of silver, without form or fashion are known, which are neither of the same size, shape, nor value. The former of these, however, are oblong, and the latter roundish, for the most part thick, but sometimes, though seldom, flat. These pass in trade, but are always weighed in payment from one individual to another, and have a dull leaden appearance.

Seni is a denomination applied to pieces of copper, brass, and iron coin, which bear a near resemblance to our old farthings. They differ in size, value, and external appearance, but are always cast, and have a square hole in the middle, by means of which they may be strung together; and likewise have always broad edges. Of these are current sjumen seni, of the value of 4 common seni, made of brass, and almost as broad as a halfpenny, but thin. The common seni are the size of a farthing, and made of red copper; 60 of them = 1 mace. Docca seni is a cast iron coin, in appearance like the last, of the same size and value, but is so brittle, that it is easily broken by the hand, or breaks in pieces when let fall on the ground.

The seni are strung 100 at a time, or, as is most commonly the case, 96 on a rush. The coins in one of these parcels are seldom all of one sort, but generally consist of 3, 5, or more different kinds; in this case, the larger ones are strung on first, and then follow the smaller; the number diminishing in proportion to the number of large pieces in the parcel, which are of greater value than the smaller.

The schuit is a silver piece, of 4 oz. 18 dwts. 16 grs. Troy, and is 11 oz. fine, which gives its value 11. 5*s.* 3*d.* The name is Dutch, referring, probably, to its shape, like a boat.

Weights.—These are the candarine, mace, tael, catty, and picul, thus divided:—

10 candarines } = 1 mace.
10 mace } = 1 tael.
16 taels } = 1 catty.
100 catties } = 1 picul.

The picul = 133 Dutch pounds, or 133 1-3 lbs. avoirdupois. It is, however, said to weigh only 130 lbs.

Measures.—The revenues of Japan are estimated by two measures of rice, the man and koif; the former contains 10,000 koifs, each 5,000 bales or bags of rice.

The long measure is the inc, which is about 4 Chinese cubits, or 6 1-2 feet English nearly; and 2 1-2 Japanese leagues are computed to be about 1 Dutch league.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

NANKEEN, or NANKIN (Ger. *Nanking*; Du. *Nankings linnen*; Fr. *Toile de Nankin*; It. *Nanquino*; Sp. *Nanquina*), a species of cotton cloth in extensive use in this country. It takes its name from Nanking, in China, a European corruption of Kyang-ning, the capital of the extensive province of Kyang-nan, where it is principally produced, and which also furnishes the greater part of the green teas. In the East, the manufacture is wholly confined to China.† The cloth is usually of a yellowish, though occasionally it is of a blue colour, and of different degrees of fineness; the broad pieces, called "the Company's nankeens," are generally of a better quality than the narrow ones, and are most esteemed. We produce imitation nankeens at Manchester and other places, but it must be

* The imports of copper, in 1829, amounted to 11,631 piculs, worth 988,635 florins.

† It was stated in the former edition of this work, on authority that should not have been trusted to, that the manufacture of nankeen was carried to great perfection in the East Indies: but, in point of fact, the manufacture is wholly unknown every where in the East except China.

admitted that they are inferior to the Chinese; neither lasting so long, nor holding their colour so well. The colour, whether yellow or blue, is given to the cloth by dyeing; for, though yellow cotton wool be raised in the East, the cloth made from it is too glaring. The nankeens brought to England come under the general denomination of piece goods. They are mostly made into trowsers and waistcoats for gentlemen's wear during summer, ladies' pelisses, &c. In some of the more southern parts of Europe, the warmer parts of Asia and America, and the British settlements in Africa, nankeen is worn by both sexes all the year round, and constitutes the principal article of attire. It is worthy of remark, that while the Indian cotton fabrics have ceased to be imported, the imports of nankeen have gone on increasing. The quantities imported into Great Britain in the undermentioned years have been—

Years.	Pieces.	Years.	Pieces.	Years.	Pieces.
1793	77,898	1814	782,253	1830	591,339
1794	374,398	1815	896,797	1831	857,171
1795	146,365	1816	396,453	1832	195,748

—(*Report on Affairs of the East India Company, 2d Finance, Commercial Appendix*, part iii. p. 766., and *Parl. Paper*, No. 425. Sess. 1833.)

Exclusive of the nankeens exported from Canton by the English, amounting in 1830-31 to 922,700 pieces, and in 1831-32 to 315,570 do., the Americans exported, in 1831-32, 129,985 pieces; considerable quantities being also taken by the Spaniards, Dutch, &c. It is probable that, under the new arrangements with respect to the Chinese trade, the exports of nankeen from Canton will be materially increased.—(See vol. i. pp. 302 and 305.)

NANTES, a large commercial city and sea-port of France, on the Loire, about 34 miles from its mouth, in lat. 47° 13′ 6″ N., lon. 1° 32′ 44″ W. Population 79,000. Vessels of 200 tons burden come up to the city; but those of a larger size load and unload in the roads of Paimbœuf, about 24 miles lower down the river.

Entrance to the Loire.—There are 3 entrances to the Loire. The first and most generally frequented is between the bank called *Le Four* and Point *Croisic*: there is a second between Le Four and the bank called *La Banche*; and the third, which in southerly winds is much resorted to, between the latter and the rocks called *La Couronne*. The navigation, which is naturally rather difficult, has been much facilitated by the erection of light-houses and beacons. Of the former, one has been recently constructed on the north part of Le Four, about a league from Croisic, in lat. 47° 17′ 53″ N., lon. 2° 36′ 3″ W. It is 56 feet high. The light is a revolving one; the flash, which continues for 7 seconds, being succeeded by a dark interval of 53 seconds. Two light-houses, called the Aiguillon lights, stand on the north side of the river, near its mouth; the lower light adjoining *Point de Levi*, being in lat. 47° 14′ 33″ N., lon. 2° 15′ 46″ W. The light is fixed, and is 111 feet above the level of the sea. The upper Aiguillon light, situated about a mile N. 31° E. from the lower, is 127 feet high; it also is a fixed light, varied, however, by a flash every 3 minutes. A beacon tower, called the Turk, is erected on the southermost extremity of La Banche; the course for vessels entering between it and *Le Couronne*, is to bring the Aiguillon lights in one. The depth of water on the bar at the mouth of the river varies from 2 to 2½ fathoms. At springs the rise is 14, and at neaps 7 or 8 feet. High water at full and change 3¾ hours.

Trade, &c.—Her situation renders Nantes the emporium of all the rich and extensive country traversed by the Loire, so that she has a pretty considerable import and export trade, particularly with the West Indies. The exports consist of all sorts of French produce, but principally of brandy, wine and vinegar, silk, woollen and linen goods, refined sugar, wheat, rye, biscuits, &c. The principal imports are sugar, coffee, and other colonial products, cotton, indigo, timber, hemp, &c. Nantes is a considerable *entrepôt* for the commerce of salt, the duty on that article in 1831 having amounted to 4,657,408 fr. During the time that the slave trade was carried on, Nantes was more extensively engaged in it than any other French port.

The customs duties of Nantes produced, inclusive of those on salt, in 1831, 15,100,374 fr.; and in 1832, 13,907,400 fr. The falling-off in the latter year is attributed to the drought having, for a considerable period, rendered the upper parts of the Loire unnavigable; and to the uncertainty caused by the agitation of the question as to the sugar duties.

Arrivals.—In 1831 there entered the port of Nantes:—

	Ships.	Tons.
French ships from foreign countries	68	8,899
—— from colonies	68	22,033
—— from fishery	865	7,911
—— coasting trade	2,257	91,903
Foreign ships	60	13,810
Totals	3,338	146,556

In 1832, there entered Nantes 17 British vessels, of the burden of 1,782 tons.

Monies, Weights, and Measures same as the rest of France.—(See BORDEAUX.)

Taxes.—2½ per cent. on coffee in bags; real on ditto in hhds., casks, &c.; 6 per cent. on cottons; real on indigo; 17 per cent. on Brazil muscovado sugar, 19 per cent. on Martinique and Guadeloupe ditto, 13 per cent. on ditto clayed.

NAPLES, a very large city and sea-port in the south of Italy, the capital of the kingdom of the same name, the light-house being in lat. 40° 50′ 12″ N., lon. 14° 14′ 15″ E. Population, on the 1st of January, 1830, 358,550.—(*Annal. di Statistica*, 1830.) Naples is well

situated for commerce; but the perverse policy of the government has been most unfavourable to its growth, and has confined it within comparatively narrow limits.

Harbour.—The bay of Naples is spacious, and is celebrated for its picturesque views. The harbour is formed by a mole, built nearly in the form of the letter L., having a light-house on its elbow. Within the mole there is from 3 to 4 fathoms water, the ground being soft. The water in the bay is deep, and there is no bar: it is, however, a good deal exposed to the south-westerly winds; and to guard against their effects, vessels lying in the bay moor with open hawse in that direction. There is no obligation to take a pilot on board, but it is usual to take one the first time that a ship anchors within the mole.

Money.—Accounts are kept at Naples in ducati di regno of 100 grani. According to the new monetary system introduced in 1818, the unit of coins is the silver ducat = 3*s.* 5·2*d.* sterling. The ducat = 10 carlini; and there are coins of 1, 2, 6, and 12 carlini in proportion. Coins of a less value than 1 carlino are in copper. The smallest gold piece is the oncetta = 10*s.* 3½*d.* sterling.

Weights and Measures.—The commercial weights are the cantaro and rottolo. The cantaro *grosso* = 100 rottoli = 196½ lbs. avoirdupois = 89·105 kilog. = 184 lbs. of Hamburgh = 180·4 lbs. of Amsterdam. The cantaro piccolo = 106 lbs. avoirdupois = 48 kilog.

In dry measure, the carro of corn contains 36 tomoli. The tomolo = 1·45 Winch. bush.

In wine measure, the carro is divided into 2 botti, or 24 barili, or 1,440 caraffe. The carro = 264 English wine gallons. The regular pipe of wine or brandy = 132 English gallons.

In oil measure, the salma is divided into 16 staje, 256 quarti, or 1,536 misurette. The salma at Naples = 424 English wine gallons; at Gallipoli it is from 3 to 4 per cent. less; at Bari it is a little larger.

In long measure, the canna is divided into 8 palmi, or 96 onzie, and is = 6 feet 11 inches English. Hence the palmo = 10·38 English inches.

Eleven salme are allowed to a ship's last.—(*Nelkenbrecher; Dr. Kelly.*)

Exports and Imports.—The exports principally consist of the products of the adjacent country. Of these olive oil is by far the most important. It is commonly called Gallipoli oil, from Gallipoli, a town in the Terra d'Otranto, whence it is largely exported. The entire exports of oil from the kingdom of Naples have been estimated at about 200,000 salme, or 36,333 tuns a year; which, taking its mean value, when exported, at 2*l.* per tun, is equivalent to the annual sum of 762,993*l.*—(See Olive Oil.) The other articles of export are silk, wine, brandy, dried fruits, brimstone, red and white argol, liquorice, oak and chesnut staves, rags, saffron, &c. There is a great variety in the Neapolitan wines. The most esteemed is the *lacrima Christi*, a red luscious wine, better known in England by name than in reality, the first growth being confined to a small quantity only, which is chiefly reserved for the royal cellars. There are, however, large quantities of second-rate wines produced in the vicinity of Naples, such as those of Pozzuoli, Ischia, Nola, &c., which are sold under the name of *lacrima Christi*, and are largely exported. Several parts of Calabria produce sweet wines of superior quality.—(*Henderson's Ancient and Modern Wines*, p. 239.) The price of wine at Naples depends entirely on the abundance of the vintage; only a small quantity comes to England. The imports consist principally of English cottons and cotton twist, hardware, iron and tin, woollens, sugar, coffee, indigo, spicery, &c. Naples is one of the best markets for pilchards, and it requires a large supply of dried and barrelled cod.

The imports from, and exports to, Naples are not given separately in our trade accounts, but are mixed up with those of the rest of Italy; and the accounts of the Neapolitan Custom-house are not made public. We are, consequently, without the means of forming any accurate statement of the amount of our trade with Naples, but there is reason to think that the following estimate is not very wide of the mark.

Statement of the Quantity and Value of the principal Articles annually imported into Naples, in British Bottoms, from Great Britain and her Colonies; and of the Quantity and Value of the principal Articles exported in such Bottoms, from the former to the latter.

Imports into Naples from Britain and her Colonies.			Exports from Naples to Britain and her Colonies.		
Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
		£			£
Cod-fish - - quintals	60,000	30,000	Argol - - - cwt.	4,000	5,000
Pilchards - - hhds.	9,000	18,000	Liquorice paste - —	5,000	10,000
Coffee - - - cwt.	562	2,000	Silk organzined - —	1,000	60,000
Sugar - - - —	16,523	30,000	Brandy - - pipes	1,000	9,000
Manufactured cottons, yds.	5,478,480	200,000	Oil - - - - tons	4,500	90,000
Twist - - - lbs.	2,342,494	175,000			
Hardware - - -	- -	15,000			
Iron and tin - - tons	3,000	15,000			
Woollens - - - yds.	111,111	50,000			
Worsteds - - - —	457,453	40,000			
Total value - - -		£575,000	Total value - - -		£174,000

We have no means of forming any estimate of the amount of the trade between Naples and other countries; but it is trifling compared to what it might and ought to be.

Custom-house Regulations.—Masters of merchantmen are bound, within 24 hours of their arrival, to furnish the Custom-house with a general manifest of their cargoes, provisions, and stores; and the master, when consignee, or the consignees, are bound, within 48 hours after the arrival of the ship, to send in a declaration or manifest in detail, of all goods on board. Should the consignees omit to render the manifest in detail within 48 hours, they are subjected to a fine of 30 per cent. upon the non-specified articles.

This declaration or manifest cannot be corrected after the 48 hours are elapsed: and the master or consignee is liable to a fine of 30 ducats for every package erroneously declared. This, however, is usually remitted, unless there be suspicion of fraud, upon application to the director-general of the customs. Masters should be particularly careful in manifesting their salt and tobacco, as the slightest error with respect to them subjects the vessel to seizure. All goods, provisions, &c., not manifested, are liable to seizure.

Quarantine Regulations, are rigorously and arbitrarily enforced. The free admission, conditional reception, or absolute refusal of a vessel arriving at the port is determined by the wholesome or unwholesome character of the place from which she comes. The places may be, 1. Infected. 2. Suspicious. 3. Endangered. Or, 4. Secure. In the first case, the vessel is *refused altogether*: in the 2d, she is admitted on a long quarantine; in the 3d, she is received on a short quarantine; in the 4th, she is allowed free *pratique*. If the vessel be a ship of war, her quarantine is performed in the Bay of Naples, the days of her passage being allowed in the calculation; if a mer-

chantman, quarantine is performed at Nisita, an island about 6 miles from Naples. It commences from the day of her arrival, if in ballast, or loaded with unsusceptible merchandise; if otherwise, from the day of the discharge of her cargo. For vessels from endangered ports, the quarantine is not less than 14, nor more than 28 days. For vessels from suspicious places, not less than 24, nor more than 40 days. For vessels from excepted places, not less than 7, nor more than 21 days. No foul lazaretto exists at Naples; but at Nisita there is a lazaretto of expurgation for vessels from suspicious or endangered districts or territories. Vessels from infected places usually go to Leghorn or Genoa, where they may unload in a *lazaretto sporco*. The fees charged on ships performing quarantine are heavy. No distinction is made between national and foreign bottoms. The conduct of the board of health, in frequently declaring places infected or suspicious on mere unfounded reports, is loudly objected to by the merchants; the more especially since, when such declaration is made, it is not revoked till the report be officially contradicted by the government of the country in question.

Shipping, Port Charges, &c.—In 1831, there entered the port of Naples 202 foreign vessels. Of these, 101 were British, 44 French, 35 Sardinian, 6 Spanish, 5 Tuscan, &c. Tonnage not stated.

The charges of a public nature on a *national ship* of 300 tons burden entering and clearing out from the port of Naples, are as under:—

	D.	gr.
On entering.—For expediting	1	80
(Equal to 6*d.* sterling)		
On clearing out.—Expediting	1	60
Bill of health	1	20
Tonnage duty at 4 grains per ton	12	0
(Equal to about 2*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.* sterling.)	D. 14	80

Charges on a *foreign ship* of 300 tons burden:—

On entering.—Visa	0	55
Expediting	6	60
Stamp	0	14
(Equal to about 1*l.* 4*s.* 4*d.* sterling.)	D. 7	89
On clearing out.—Passport	1	0
Expediting	6	60
Stamp	0	14
Bill of health	2	40
Police	0	20
Port officers	0	60
Registering papers	0	20
Tonnage duty at 40 grains per ton	120	10
(Equal to about 21*l.* 17*s.* 1*d.* sterling.)	D. 131	14

Brokers, Commission, &c.—No person can legally act as a broker unless authorised by government. All patented brokers are obliged, by way of security, to hold funded property producing 500 ducats of "rente," or a dividend of 83*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* sterling. Many persons, however, act as brokers without being *patented*, but no contract made by them is admitted in a court of law. Any person may set up as a merchant, by giving due notice to the *Camera di Commercio*.

The rates of commission generally established at Naples are as under:—

Rates of Commission and Charges established by the Merchants at Naples.

Commission on sales of fish	2	per cent.
Do. on manufactures of all kinds	2	—
Do. on all other goods	2	—
Do. on goods purchased	2	—
Do. on receiving and forwarding	1-2	—
Do. on attempting sales	1	—
Do. on re sale of goods for the same account on which a purchasing commission has been charged	1 1-2	—
Do. on chartering vessels, or procuring charters	2	—
Do. on collecting freights on chartered ships	2	—
Do. on ships both inwards and outwards	4	—
Do. on advances on letters of credit	1	—
Do. on effecting insurances	1-2	—
Do. on negotiating bills	1-2	—
Do. on receiving and paying or remitting	1-2	—
Del orders on sales	2	—
Do. on purchase of oil, not exceeding 3 months	1	—
Do. do. do. not exceeding 6 do.	2	—
Do. per underwriters	1-2	—

Tares usually allowed by the Custom-house at Naples on the leading articles of importation:—

Sugar, in hogsheads	12 per cent.
Do. in boxes or barrels	14 —
Do. in Brazil chests	16 to 20 —
Do. in bags	6 rotoli
Loaves, in casks	real tare
Do. extra for paper and strings	8 per cent.
Indigo	real tare
Tin, in barrels, each	12 rotoli
Alum, in casks	10 per cent.
Wax, real tare and extra	2 to 3 per cent.
Cod, and stock-fish	1 per cent.
Coffee, in casks	real tare
Do. in bags, each	3 rotoli
Pepper — —	—
Pimento, in bags, each	3 rotoli
Cocoa — —	3 do. 2 ol. per cask
Cocoa, in casks	for dust, real tare
Cinnamon, in single bale	18 lbs. of Naples
Do. in double bale	25 lbs.
Camis tigree, cochineal, and bark	real tare.

Insurance.—There are 4 or 5 companies for the insurance of ships and 1 for lives. Their terms are generally higher than those of similar establishments in London. Losses are never incurred at Naples, their construction rendering fires very rare. The companies are established by royal authority, the shareholders being only liable for the amount of their shares.

Banking.—The principal merchants of Naples are all, more or less, bankers, inasmuch as they advance money on letters of credit and deal in foreign exchanges, and other financial operations. Yet the only banking establishment at present in existence, is the Bank of the two Sicilies, founded by government, and guaranteed by the possession of landed property. It is not a bank for the issue of notes on credit, like the Bank of England, but for their issue on deposit, somewhat on the principle of the Bank of Hamburgh. Government makes all its payments by means of notes or orders on the bank; and they are issued to individuals for whatever sums they require, on their paying an equivalent sum of money to the bank. These notes or orders form a considerable part of the circulating medium of Naples; they are paid in cash on demand.

Government has also established a discount office, where bills indorsed by 2 persons of good credit, and not at more than 3 months' date, are discounted at 4 per cent.

Prices of Provisions.—Naples is a favourable place for obtaining supplies of *fresh*, but not of *salt* provisions. The prices of the principal articles of consumption in 1831 were as follows:—

Articles.	Price per lb. Avoirdupois. In Neapolitan Grains.	In English pence.
Bread	8	2
Flour	6	2
Beef	10	4
Mutton	7	2½
Pork	8	3
Cheese	12	5
Butter	40	16
Vegetables	5	2
Coffee	35	14
Sugar	18	7

Warehousing System.—The whole policy, if we may so term it, of the Neapolitan government, with respect to commerce, is such as would disgrace a nation of Hottentots. We believe that it is entitled to the not very enviable distinction of being the only government that has suppressed, after having established, the warehousing system, or *scala franca*. This was done in 1824. At present, all goods imported into Naples, may be deposited, on paying rent, in warehouses under the joint locks of the king and the importer, for 2 years. At the end of the 1st year, half the import duty must be paid, and at the end of the 2d year, the other half. Whether sold or not, the goods must then be removed from the warehouses; and in paying the duties no deduction is made on account of damage in the warehouse, unless certain forms be complied with, the observance of which is invariably reckoned more burdensome than the payment of the duties. *No drawback of the import duty is allowed on the exportation of any sort of foreign produce*: on the contrary, should it happen to be of the same species as native produce subject to a duty on export, it is charged, in addition to the duty it had paid on importation, with an export duty equal to that laid on the corresponding native product!

The influence of this system is most disastrous. So large a city as Naples, and so advantageously situated for the commerce with the Black Sea, the Levant, Greece, Spain, Northern Italy, Northern Africa, &c., would, had it been allowed to avail itself of its natural advantages, have become a most important *entrepôt*. But, in consequence of the regulations now specified, no goods are carried to it except those destined for home consumption, and these are always supplied sparingly; for, however much the price of an article may be depressed at Naples, it is impossible, owing to the oppressive duties charged on its importation not being drawn back on exportation, for the merchant to send it to Leghorn, Genoa, Trieste, or any other place where it is more in demand. It would really seem as if the government had been exerting its ingenuity to find out the means of driving commerce, and with it enterprise and industry, from its shores; and it has not been denied that it has been, in so far, successful.

Credit, &c.—Goods are universally sold at long credits, usually from 4 to 8 months; and for manufactured goods sometimes longer. On sales of indigo, from 12 to 18 months' credit is given. Discount for ready money is at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum. Merchants are arranged by the Chamber of Commerce into 5 different classes; and a 6 month's credit is given at the Custom-house for duties to the extent of 60,000, 40,000, 30,000, 20,000, and 15,000 ducats, to individuals, according to the class in which they happen to be enrolled. But this is of little importance. Unless the transactions of a merchant be very limited indeed, the duties he has to pay amount to much more than the credit he is allowed.

Tariff.—The duties on exports and imports are such as might be expected from a government that has suppressed the warehousing system, and allowed no drawbacks.

The duties on most sorts of imported articles are extremely oppressive, being seldom under 100, and often above 150 per cent. *ad valorem!* On coffee, the duty is no less than 46*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.; on sugar it varies from 41*s.* 10*d.* to 62*s.* 9*d.* per do.; on tea it is 30*s.* per do.; on cotton wool it varies from 19*s.* 8*d.* to 37*s.* 4*d.* per do. The duty on cotton and woollen manufactures is imposed by the piece, and is, in common with all the other duties, most exorbitant. Even the indispensable article, iron, is charged with 8*s.* 4*d.* per cwt.! These duties have been imposed partly for the sake of revenue, and partly in the view of encouraging domestic manufactures; but they have not accomplished either object. The inordinate extent to which they have been carried has made them advantageous only to the smuggler, and ruinous to every one else. How, indeed, could it be otherwise? The coast of Naples, exclusive of Sicily, stretches from 800 to 1,000 miles; in many places it is uninhabited, while, in a great number of others, the people are not more than half civilised. The facilities for smuggling are, therefore, incalculably great; and, combined with the inadequate remuneration of the customs' officers, and the ease with which they are corrupted, our only wonder is, not that smuggling is in a

thriving state, but that there should be any legitimate traffic. The latter, indeed, is principally confined to Naples, where a stricter police is established; for it is not uncommon to find the same articles, in country towns at no great distance from the capital, selling for ½ or ¼ of their cost in it. In a country subjected to such a commercial code as Naples, the smuggler is a great public benefactor. He is, in fact, the natural enemy of oppressive duties and prohibitions. These bring him into the field, and make him put forth all his enterprise and energy: and it is fortunate for the best interests of society that he is uniformly victorious over penalties, confiscations, racks, and gibbets; and cannot be defeated otherwise than by the adoption of enlarged and liberal principles of commercial policy.

The following are the duties charged on the principal articles of export from Naples:—

Tariff of the principal Articles of Export in force at Naples in 1833.

Articles.	Neapolitan.		English.	
	Weights.	Money.	Weights.	Money.
		D. gr.		£ s. d.
Cocoons (prohibited)				
Cotton	per cantaro	1 1	per cwt.	0 1 10
Horse hair	—	5 0	—	0 9 8
Wool	—	0 50	—	0 0 11
Oil in native vessels	per salma	3 38	per tun.	3 0 0
in foreign vessels	—	4 92	—	4 10 0
Pitch, white	per cantaro	2 40	—	0 4 6
black	—	1 80	—	0 3 4
Liquorice root	—	1 20	—	0 2 3
Soda seed (prohibited)				
Sponges	per cantaro	3 50	—	0 6 8
Rags, white	—	8 0	—	0 15 2
coloured	—	2 0	—	0 5 8
Cork	—	0 50		0 0 11
Argol	—	2 0	—	0 5 8
Saffron	per lb.	0 65	per lb.	0 0 2½
Wheat, and all other sorts of grain, when exported in native vessels, *pay no duty.*				
exported in foreign vessels	per cantaro	0 20	per cwt.	0 0 6½

Of these duties, that on oil is by far the most objectionable. Even though Naples enjoyed a monopoly of this valuable product, the imposition of such a duty would be wholly indefensible on any sound principle. But when, instead of having a monopoly of the oil trade, the Neapolitans are exposed to the keen competition of the Tuscans, Genoese, Spaniards, &c., the imposition of a heavy export duty is in the last degree destructive. It depresses that branch of industry which is more suitable for the country, and gives a corresponding encouragement to its extension amongst foreigners. The increased duty of 30*s.* a tun on oil exported in foreign ships, is, of course, intended to force the employment of native ships: but it has not had, and could not rationally be expected to have, any such consequence; its only effect being to tempt foreigners to make a corresponding addition to the duties on oil, when imported in Neapolitan ships. Such regulations are never, in fact, productive of any thing except injury to those by whom they are enacted.

Of the direct taxes, the most productive is the *fondiaria*, or tax on rent, producing about 1,240,000*l.* a year. It was imposed during the French occupation, when it was fixed at 25 per cent. of the sum received by the landlord. It has not been altered since; and as agricultural produce has materially declined in price, while the rents of houses in towns, and particularly in the capital, have very much increased, its unequal pressure is much complained of.

The perverse policy we have thus endeavoured to develope, cannot surely be permitted to exist much longer. The reasonings of Filangieri, and other able native economists, might have forewarned the government of the real nature of that system of prohibition and restriction which it has laboured, ever since its restoration, to protect and defend. But facts have now taken the place of theory; and the results of the system are too obvious and too mischievous not to arrest the attention of every one, and to impress the necessity of some radical alterations. Considering the great natural fertility, varied productions, and advantageous situation of Naples and Sicily, it is plain that nothing more than freedom and security are required to render them among the richest, most industrious, and flourishing countries of Europe. But instead of this, the fetters laid upon commerce, by depriving the inhabitants of a market for their productions, and, consequently, of the most powerful stimulus to industry and invention, have paralyzed all their energies, and immersed them in poverty, sloth and barbarism. It is surely high time that a different line of policy were adopted. At Naples, a reform may be undertaken without (which is not always the case elsewhere) endangering any thing either useful or valuable. Its political economy is such that no change, be it what it may, can make matters materially worse than they are at this moment. But it would be the easiest thing in the world to lay the foundations of a great and rapid improvement. To effect this, government has only to abolish all duties and restrictions on exportation, to establish the warehousing system, and to reduce the duties on importation to ½ or ¼ part of their present amount. If it do this, it will add prodigiously to its own revenue; at the same time that it will do 10 times more to rouse the dormant energies, and to augment the wealth of its subjects, than it is possible to do by any other means.

(A Statement of the Number and Tonnage of British Vessels which entered and cleared from the Port of Naples; distinguishing the Nature of their Cargoes, and the Trade with each Country, in the Year 1835.—(*Consular Return.*)

Countries.	Entered.			Cleared.		
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Nature of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Nature of Cargoes.
England	83	10,281	17 with fish, 14 iron, 3 coals, 49 general	9	800	General.
Scotland	4	635	Coals.			
Newfoundland	16	2,419	Codfish.			
Malta	3	632	1 in ballast, 1 coals, 1 wool and leather	2	418	Grain.
Sicily	2	159	1 sulphur, 1 general	71	9,545	37 in ballast, 29 part of general cargoes, 5 coals, 1 fish.
Leghorn	2	319	1 coals, 1 herrings	1	128	In ballast.
Spain	2	660	Codfish	4	711	Ditto.
Gallipoli				2	240	4 ditto, 4 part of cargoes.
Gibraltar				2	274	1 ditto, 1 Indian corn.
France				1	167	General and ballast.
Totals	112	14,995		93	13,063	

A Statement of the Number, Tonnage, and Crews of British and Foreign Vessels, distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, which entered and cleared from the Port of Naples in the Year 1835.

Flags.	Naples.					
	Entered.			Cleared.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tons.	Crews.
British	112	14,966	867	90	13,058	770
French	53	6,990	477	53	6,990	477
Sardinian	23	3,020	234	23	3,020	234
Spain	6	347	30	6	347	30
Austrian	6	715	43	6	718	43
Tuscan	17	532	68	17	532	68
Russian	3	378	27	3	378	27
Roman	1	83	6	1	83	6
American	1	210	16	1	210	16
	227	27,775	1,792	213	25,961	1,665 Sup.

In compiling this article, we have been much indebted to the carefully drawn up, and generally judicious *Annuaire* of the British consul, (Mr. Goodwin) to the *Circular Queries*, to *Millenet, Coup d'Œil sur le Royaume de Naples*, and to some valuable *private communications*. We have also looked into the works of a good many English and foreign travellers, but seldom with much advantage. They are filled with accounts, a thousand times repeated, of antiquities, Vesuvius, the churches, theatres, lazzaroni, &c.; but few among them communicate any information from which any just idea can be formed of the state of industry and commerce, the financial system of the country, &c. The statistical works of the Neapolitans are equally defective. They are overlaid with insignificant details, while they neglect altogether, or pass slightly over, the more important departments. This may arise from the jealousy of government; but the English travellers can make no such apology for their defects.

NAVIGATION LAWS. These laws form an important branch of Maritime Law. In this country they are understood to comprise the various acts that have been passed, defining British ships, the way in which such ships are to be manned, the peculiar privileges enjoyed by them, and the conditions under which foreign ships shall be allowed to engage in the trade of the country, either as importers or exporters of commodities, or as carriers of commodities from one part of the country to another.

Sketch of the History and Principles of the Navigation Laws.—The origin of the Navigation Laws of England may be traced to the reign of Richard II., or perhaps to a still more remote period. But, as no intelligible account of the varying and contradictory enactments framed at so distant an epoch could be compressed within any reasonable space, it is sufficient to observe, that, in the reign of Henry VII., two of the leading principles of the late navigation law were distinctly recognised, in the prohibition of the importation of certain commodities, unless imported in ships belonging to English owners, and manned by English seamen. In the early part of the reign of Elizabeth (5 Eliz. c. 5.), foreign ships were excluded from our fisheries and coasting trade. The republican parliament gave a great extension to the navigation laws, by the act of 1650, which prohibited all ships, of all foreign nations whatever, from trading with the plantations in America, without having previously obtained a licence. These acts were, however, rather intended to regulate the trade between the different ports and dependencies of the empire, than to regulate our intercourse with foreigners. But in the following year (9th of October, 1651) the republican parliament passed the famous *Act of Navigation*. This act had a double object. It was intended not only to promote our own navigation, but also to strike a decisive blow at the naval power of the Dutch, who then engrossed almost the whole *carrying trade* of the world, and against whom various circumstances had conspired to incense the English. The act in question declared, that no goods or commodities whatever, of the growth, production or manufacture of Asia, Africa, or America, should be imported either into England or Ireland, or any of the plantations, except in ships belonging to English subjects, and of which the master and the greater number of the crew were also English. Having thus secured the import trade of Asia, Africa, and America, to the English ship owners, the act went on to secure to them, as far as that was possible, the import trade of Europe. For this purpose, it further enacted, that no goods of the growth, production, or manufacture of any country in Europe, should be imported into Great Britain, except in British ships, or *in such ships as were the real property of the people of the country or place in which the goods were produced, or from which they could only be, or most usually were, exported.* The latter part of the clause was entirely levelled against the Dutch, who had but little native produce to export, and whose ships were principally employed in carrying the produce of other countries to foreign markets. Such were the leading provisions of this famous act. They were adopted by the regal government which succeeded Cromwell, and form the basis of the act of the 12th Car. 2. c. 18., which continued, to a very recent period, to be the rule by which our naval intercourse with other countries was mainly regulated; and has been pompously designated the *Charta Maritima* of England!

In the statute 12 Car. 2. c. 18., the clause against importing foreign commodities, except in British ships, or in ships belonging to the country or place where the goods were produced, or from which they were exported, was so far modified, that the prohibition was made to apply only to the goods of Russia and Turkey, and to certain articles, since well known in commerce by the name of *enumerated* articles, leave being at the same time given to import all other articles in ships of any description. But this modification was of very little importance; inasmuch as the enumerated articles comprised all those that were of most importance in commerce, as timber, grain, tar, hemp and flax, potashes, wines, spirits, sugar,

&c. Parliament seems, however, to have very speedily come round to the opinion that too much had been done in the way of relaxation; and in the 14th of Charles II. a supplemental statute was passed, avowedly with the intention of obviating some evasions of the statute of the preceding year, which, it was affirmed, had been practised by the Hollanders and Germans. This, however, seems to have been a mere pretence, to excuse the desire to follow up the blow aimed, by the former statute, at the carrying trade of Holland. And such was our jealousy of the naval and commercial greatness of the Dutch, that, in order to cripple it, we did not hesitate totally to proscribe all trade with them; and, to prevent the possibility of fraud, or of clandestine or indirect intercourse with Holland, we went so far as to include the commerce with the Netherlands and Germany in the same proscription. The statute of the 14th Car. 2. prohibited all importation from these countries of a long list of enumerated commodities, under any circumstances, or in any vessels, whether British or foreign, under the penalty of seizure and confiscation of the ships and goods. So far as it depended on us, Holland, the Netherlands, and Germany were virtually placed without the pale of the commercial world! And though the extreme rigour of this statute was subsequently modified, its principal provisions remained in full force until the late alterations.

The policy, if not the motives which dictated these statutes, has met with very general eulogy. It has been said, and by no less an authority than Dr. Smith, that national animosity did, in this instance, that which the most deliberate wisdom would have recommended. "When the act of navigation was made," says he, "though England and Holland were not actually at war, the most violent animosity subsisted between the two nations. It had begun during the government of the long parliament, which first framed this act, and it broke out soon after in the Dutch wars during that of the Protector and of Charles II. It is not impossible, therefore, that some of the regulations of this famous act may have proceeded from national animosity. They are as wise, however, as if they had all been dictated by the most deliberate wisdom. National animosity at that particular time aimed at the very same object which the most deliberate wisdom would have recommended,—the diminution of the naval power of Holland, the only naval power which could endanger the security of England. The act of navigation *is not favourable to foreign commerce, or to the growth of that opulence which can arise from it.* The interest of a nation in its commercial relations to foreign nations is, like that of a merchant with regard to the different people with whom he deals, to buy as cheap and to sell as dear as possible. But the act of navigation, by diminishing the number of sellers, must necessarily diminish that of buyers; and we are thus likely not only to buy foreign goods dearer, but to sell our own cheaper, than if there was a more perfect freedom of trade. As defence, however, is of much more importance than opulence, the act of navigation is, perhaps, the wisest of all the commercial regulations of England."—(*Smith's Wealth of Nations*, vol. ii. p. 293.)

It may, however, be very fairly doubted, whether, in point of fact, the navigation law had the effects here ascribed to it, of weakening the naval power of the Dutch, and of increasing that of this kingdom. The Dutch were very powerful at sea for a long period after the passing of this act; and it seems natural to conclude, that the decline of their maritime preponderance was owing rather to the gradual increase of commerce and navigation in other countries, and to the disasters and burdens occasioned by the ruinous contests the Republic had to sustain with Cromwell, Charles II. and Louis XIV., than to the mere exclusion of their merchant vessels from the ports of England. It is not meant to say, that this exclusion was altogether without effect. The efforts of the Dutch to procure a repeal of the English navigation law show that, in their apprehension, it operated injuriously on their commerce.* It is certain, however, that its influence in this respect has been greatly over-rated in this country. *Excessive taxation*, and not our navigation law, was the principal cause of the fall of profits, and of the decline of manufactures, commerce, and navigation, in Holland. "Les guerres," says the well-informed author of the *Commerce de la Hollande*, "terminées par les traités de Nimeguè, de Ryswick, d'Utrecht, et enfin la dernière par le traité d'Aix-la-Chapelle, ont successivement obligé la République de faire usage d'un grand crédit, et de faire des emprunts énormes pour en soutenir les fraix. Les dettes ont surchargé l'état d'une somme immense d'intérêts, qui ne pouvoient être payés que par *une augmentation excessive d'impôts*, dont il a fallu faire porter la plus forte partie par les consommations dans un pays qui n'a qu'un territoire extrêmement borné, et par conséquent par l'industrie. Il a donc fallu faire enchérir infiniment la main-d'œuvre. Cette cherté de la main-d'œuvre a non seulement restreint presque toute sorte de fabrique et d'industrie à la consommation intérieure, mais elle a encore porté un coup bien sensible au commerce de frêt, partie accessoire et la plus précieuse du commerce d'économie: car cette cherté a rendu la construction plus chere, et augmenté le prix de tous les ouvrages qui tiennent à la navigation, même de tous les ouvrages des ports et des magasins. Il n'étoit pas possible que l'augmentation du prix de la main-d'œuvre ne donnât, malgre tous les efforts de l'économie Hollandoise, un avantage

* In the treaty of Breda, agreed upon in 1667, between the States General and Charles II., the latter undertook to procure the repeal of the navigation law. But the subject was never agitated in either house of parliament.

sensible aux autres nations qui voudroient se livrer au commerce d'économie et à celui de frêt."—(Tome ii. p. 211.)

This extract, which might, were it necessary, be corroborated by others to the same effect from all the best Dutch writers, show that it is not to our navigation law, nor to the restrictive regulations of other foreign powers, but to the abuse of the funding system, and the excess of taxation, that the decline of the commercial greatness and maritime power of Holland was really owing. Neither does it appear that the opinion maintained by Dr. Smith and others, that the navigation law had a powerful influence in augmenting the naval power of this country, rests on any better foundation. The taste of the nation for naval enterprise had been awakened, the navy had become exceedingly formidable, and Blake had achieved his victories, before the enactment of this famous law. So far, indeed, is it from being certain that the navigation act had, in this respect, the effect commonly ascribed to it, that there are good grounds for thinking it had a precisely opposite effect, and that it operated rather to diminish than to increase our mercantile navy. It is stated in Roger Coke's *Treatise on Trade*, published in 1671 (p. 36.), that this act, by lessening the resort of strangers to our ports, had a most injurious effect on our commerce; and he further states that we had lost, within 2 years of the passing of the act of 1650, the greater part of the Baltic and Greenland trades.—(p. 48.) Sir Josiah Child, whose treatise was published in 1691, corroborates Coke's statement: for while he decidedly approves of the navigation law, he admits that the English shipping employed in the Eastland and Baltic trades had decreased at least *two thirds* since its enactment, and that the foreign shipping employed in these trades had proportionally increased.—(*Treatise on Trade*, p. 89. Glasg. edit.) Exclusive of these contemporary authorities, it may be worth while to mention, that Sir Matthew Decker, an extensive and extremely well-informed merchant, condemns the whole principle of the navigation act; and contends that, instead of increasing our shipping and seamen, it had diminished them both; and that, by rendering the freight of ships higher than it would otherwise have been, it had entailed a heavy burden on the public, and been one of the main causes that had prevented our carrying on the fishery so successfully as the Dutch.—(*Essays on the Causes of the Decline of Foreign Trade*, p. 60. ed. 1756.)

There does not seem to be any very good grounds on which to question these statements; and they are at all events sufficient to show, that the assertions of those who contend that the navigation laws had a prodigious effect in increasing the number of our ships and sailors, must be received with very great modification. But, suppose that all that has been said by the apologists of these laws were true to the letter; suppose it were conceded, that, when first framed, the Act of Navigation was extremely politic and proper;—that would afford but a very slender presumption in favour of the policy of supporting it in the present day. Human institutions are not made for immortality: they must be accommodated to the varying circumstances and exigencies of society. But the situation of Great Britain and the other countries of Europe has totally changed since 1650. The envied wealth and commercial greatness of Holland have passed away: we have no longer any thing to fear from her hostility: and, "he must be, indeed, strangely influenced by antiquated prejudices and by-gone apprehensions, who can entertain any of that jealousy from which the severity of this law principally originated." London has become, what Amsterdam formerly was, the grand emporium of the commercial world—*universi orbis terrarum emporium*: and the real question which now presents itself for our consideration is, not what are the best means by which we may rise to naval greatness? but—what are the best means of preserving that undisputed pre-eminence in maritime affairs to which we have attained?

Now, it does not really seem that there can be much difficulty in deciding this question. Navigation and naval power are the children, not the parents—the effect, not the cause—of commerce. If the latter be increased, the increase of the former will follow as a matter of course. More ships and more sailors become necessary, according as the commerce between different and distant countries is extended. A country, circumstanced like Great Britain in the reign of Charles II., when her shipping was comparatively limited, might perhaps be warranted in endeavouring to increase its amount, by excluding foreign ships from her harbours. But it is almost superfluous to add, that it is not by any such regulations, but solely by the aid of a flourishing and widely extended commerce, that the immense mercantile navy we have now accumulated can be supported.

But it is extremely easy to show, that to have continued to enforce the provisions of the old navigation law, in the present state of the world, would have been among the most efficient means that could have been devised for the destruction of our commerce. The wealth and power to which Britain has attained, has inspired other nations with the same envious feelings that the wealth of Holland formerly generated in our minds. Instead of ascribing our commercial and manufacturing superiority to its true causes,—to the comparative freedom of our constitution, the absence of all oppressive feudal privileges, the security of property, and the fairness of our system of taxation,—our foreign rivals contend that it has been entirely owing to our exclusive system; and appeal to our example to stimulate their respective governments to adopt retaliatory measures, and to protect them against British competi

tion. These representations have had the most injurious operation. In 1787, the American legislature passed an act, copied to the very letter from our navigation law, with the avowed intention of its operating as a retaliatory measure against this country. The Northern powers threatened to act on the same principle; and would have carried their threats into effect, but for timely concessions on our part. The same engines by which we laboured to destroy the trade of Holland were thus about to be brought, by what we could not have called an unjust retribution, to operate against ourselves. Nor can there be a doubt that, had we continued to maintain our illiberal and exclusive system, and refused to set a better example to others, and to teach them the advantage of recurring to sounder principles, we should have run a very great risk of falling a victim to the vindictive spirit which such short-sighted and selfish policy would have generated.

For these reasons, it seems difficult to question the policy of the changes that have recently been effected in the navigation laws, partly by the bills introduced by Mr. (now Lord) Wallace in 1821, and Mr. Huskisson in 1825, and partly by the adoption of what has been called the *Reciprocity System*. Under the existing law (6 Geo. 4. c. 109., see *post*.) the intercourse with all European countries in amity with Great Britain is placed on the same footing. The memorials of our former animosity, and of our jealousy of the prosperity of certain of our neighbours, have thus been abolished; and the same law is henceforth to regulate our commerce with the Continent. This uniformity, besides giving greater scope to mercantile operations, and extending our traffic with some of our most opulent neighbours, removes a great source of embarrassment and litigation; at the same time that it detracts considerably from that selfish character which had been believed on the Continent, and not without considerable reason, to be the animating principle of our commercial system.

The distinction between enumerated and non-enumerated goods is still kept up under the new regulations; but, instead of confining the importation of the former into the United Kingdom, either to British ships, or ships belonging to the country or place where the goods were produced, or from which they originally were exported, the new regulations permit that they may be imported either in British ships, in ships of the country of which the goods are the produce, or in ships of the country or place from which they are imported into England. This is a very important alteration. Under the old law, when a number of articles, the products of different countries, but all of them suitable for importation into England, were found in a foreign port, they could not be imported except in a British ship, or separately in ships belonging to the different countries whose produce they were. This was obviously a very great hardship on the foreigner, without being of any real advantage to our own ship owners. When the foreign merchant had vessels of his own, it was not very probable he would permit them to remain unoccupied, and freight a British vessel; and there were very few ports of any importance in which foreign bottoms might not be found, in which the article could be legally imported. The real effect of the old law was not, therefore, to cause the employment of British ships, but to oblige foreigners to assort their cargoes less advantageously than they might otherwise have done, and thus to lessen their intercourse with our markets. The new law obviates this inconvenience; while, by restricting the importation of European goods to ships of the built of the country of which the goods are the growth, or to those of the built of the country or port from which the goods are shipped, and which are *wholly owned* by the inhabitants of such country or port, it is rendered very difficult for the people of a particular country to become the carriers of the produce of other countries to our markets.

Another new regulation is of such obvious and unquestionable utility, that it is surprising it was not long ago adopted. By the old law, all articles, the produce of Asia, Africa, or America, could only be imported directly in a British ship from the place of their production. This law had already been repealed in so far as respected the United States, whose ships were allowed to import their produce directly into this country; but it was maintained with respect to Asia, Africa, and South America. And hence, although a British ship happened to find, in South American, African, or Asiatic ports, articles, the produce of one or more of the other quarters of the globe, suitable for our markets, and with which it might have been extremely advantageous for her to complete her cargo, she was prohibited from taking them on board, under penalty of forfeiture and confiscation, not only of the goods, but also of the ship. The regulation has been repealed; and it is now lawful for British ships to take on board all articles, the importation of which is not prohibited, on meeting with them in any Asiatic, African or American port. Lord Wallace originally intended to extend this principle to European ports, or to make it lawful for British ships to import all non-prohibited articles from *wherever they might find them*. But it was supposed by some, that foreign ships might be more cheaply navigated than ours; and that foreigners, taking advantage of this circumstance, would import the Asiatic, African, and American products required for our consumption into the contiguous continental ports, and would consequently restrict the employment of British ships to their carriage thence. We believe that these apprehensions were, in a great measure, visionary. But the law is so contrived as to avoid even the possibility of danger on this head; such of the products of Asia, Africa, and America, as are required for home consumption, being, with a few trifling exceptions, inadmissible from Eu-

rope; and only admissible when they are imported in British ships, or in ships of the country or place of which the goods are the produce, and from which they are brought. The only exceptions to this rule are articles from Asiatic and African Turkey imported from the Levant, and bullion.

Besides the restrictive regulations already alluded to, it had been a part of our policy to encourage the employment of our shipping, by imposing higher duties on commodities imported into our harbours in foreign vessels, than were imposed on them when imported in British vessels; and it had also been customary to charge foreign vessels with higher port and light-house duties, &c. This system was always loudly complained of by foreigners; but we had little difficulty in maintaining it, so long as the state of our manufactures enabled us to disregard the retaliatory measures of other powers. But the extraordinary increase that took place, since the commencement of the late war, in our manufactures for foreign consumption, and the necessity under which we were, in consequence, placed, of conciliating our customers abroad, led to the adoption of the *reciprocity system*. This system was first introduced into the trade with the United States. After the North American colonies had succeeded in establishing their independence, they set about framing a code of navigation laws on the model of those of this country. Among other regulations of a restrictive character, it was enacted, that all foreign vessels trading to the United States should pay $\frac{1}{2}$ a dollar, which was afterwards raised to a dollar, per ton duty, beyond what was paid by American ships; and further, that goods imported in foreign vessels should pay a duty of 10 per cent. over and above what was payable on the same description of goods imported in American vessels.

This law was avowedly directed against the navigation of Great Britain; though, as it was bottomed on the very same principles as our navigation laws, we could not openly complain of its operation. Under these circumstances, it would have been sound policy to have at once proposed an accommodation; and instead of attempting to meet retaliation by retaliation, to have offered to modify our navigation law, in so far as American shipping was concerned, on condition of the Americans making reciprocal modifications in our favour. A different course was, however, followed. Various devices were fallen upon to counteract the navigation system of the Americans, without in any degree relaxing our own: but they all failed of their object; and at length became obvious to every one that we had engaged in an unequal struggle, and that the real effect of our policy was to give a bounty on the importation of the manufactured goods of other countries into the United States, and thus gradually to exclude both our manufactures and ships from the ports of the Republic. In consequence, the conviction of the necessity of making concessions gained ground progressively; and it was ultimately fixed, by the commercial treaty agreed upon between Great Britain and the United States in 1815, that in future *equal charges* should be imposed on the ships of either country in the ports of the other, and that *equal duties* should be laid upon all articles, the produce of the one country, imported into the other, whether such importation were effected in the ships of the one or the other.

The new States of South America were naturally anxious to establish a commercial marine; and, to forward their views in this respect, they contemplated enacting navigation laws. But this intention was frustrated by the interference of the British government, who, without stipulating for any peculiar advantage, wisely offered to admit their ships into our ports on a fair footing of reciprocity, or on their paying the same charges as our own ships, on condition that they admitted British ships into their ports on a similar footing. Commercial treaties framed on this sound and liberal principle have since been entered into with most of these States.

The principle of the reciprocity system having been thus conceded in the case of the intercourse with the United States, whose commercial marine is second only to that of Great Britain, it was not possible to refuse acting on the same principle in the case of such European countries as might choose to admit our ships into their ports on a footing of equality.* The first demand of this sort was made on the part of the Prussian government, by whom an order in council was issued on the 20th of June, 1822, which made large additions to the port dues charged on all ships belonging to those nations which did not admit Prussian ships on a footing of reciprocity. The real object of this order was to injure the navigation of this country; and it was speedily found that it had the desired effect, and that its operation on British shipping was most pernicious.

Under these circumstances, the British merchants and ship owners applied to our government for relief. "We were assailed," said Mr. Huskisson, "with representations from all quarters connected with the shipping and trade of the country, against the heavy charges imposed upon British ships in the ports of Prussia. In such circumstances, what course did his Majesty's government take? We felt it to be our duty, in the first instance, to com-

* By the fourth section of the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 1. it is enacted, that his Majesty may, by an order in council, admit the ships of foreign states into our ports, on payment of the like duties that are charged on British vessels, provided that British ships are admitted into the ports of such foreign states, on payment of the like duties that are charged on their vessels.

municate with the Prussian minister in this country; and our minister at Berlin was, I believe, also directed to confer with the Prussian government on the subject. I myself had a conference with the Prussian minister at this court, and I well recollect the substance of his reply to me:—'You have,' he said, 'set us the example, by your port and light charges, and your discriminating duties on Prussian ships; and we have not gone beyond the limits of that example. Hitherto, we have confined the increase of our port and tonnage charges to ships only; *but it is the intention of my government next year*,' (and of this he showed me the written proof,) '*to imitate you still more closely, by imposing discriminating duties on the goods imported in your ships.* Our object is a just protection of our own navigation; and so long as the measure of our protection does not exceed that which is afforded in your ports to British ships, we cannot see with what reason you can complain.'

"Against such a reply what remonstrance could we in fairness make to the Prussian government? We might have addressed ourselves, it may be said by some, to the friendly feelings of that government; we might have pleaded long usage in support of our discriminating duties: we might have urged the advantages which Prussia derived from her trade with England. Appeals like these were not forgotten in the discussion; but they were of little avail against the fact stated by the consul at Dantzic,—that 'the Prussian ship owners were all going to ruin.'

"By others it may be said, 'Your duty was to retaliate, by increasing your own port charges, and discriminating duties on Prussian shipping.' I have already stated generally my reasons against the policy of this latter course. We were not prepared to begin a system of commercial hostility, which, if followed up on both sides to its legitimate consequences, could only tend to reciprocal prohibition. In this state of things, more prudently, as I contend, we entered upon an amicable negotiation with the Prussian government, upon the principle of our treaty with the United States,—that of abolishing, on both sides, all discriminating duties on the ships and goods of the respective countries in the ports of the other.

"Having concluded an arrangement with Prussia upon this basis, we soon found it necessary to do the same with some other of the Northern states. Similar conventions were accordingly entered into with Denmark and Sweden. Reciprocity is the foundation of all those conventions: but it is only fair to add, that they contain other stipulations for giving facility to trade, and from which the commerce of this country, I am confident, will, in the result, derive considerable advantage."—(*Mr. Huskisson's Speech*, 12th of May, 1826, *on the State of the Shipping Interest.*)

This statement shows conclusively, that the establishment of the reciprocity system, with respect to which so violent a clamour was raised, was not a measure of choice, but of necessity. In the state in which our manufactures are now placed, we could not afford to hazard their exclusion from a country into which they are annually imported to a very large extent. So long as the Prussians, Swedes, Danes, &c. chose to submit to our system of discriminating duties on foreign ships, and on the goods imported in them, without retaliating, it was no business of ours to tell them that that system was illiberal and oppressive. But when they found this out without our telling them; and when they declared, that unless we modified our restrictions, they would retaliate on our commerce, and either entirely exclude our commodities from their markets, or load those that were imported in British ships with prohibitory duties; should we have been justified, had we refused to come to an accommodation with them? Were we to sacrifice the substance to the shadow?—to turn away some of our very best customers, because they chose to stipulate that the intercourse between them and us should be conducted either in their ships or in ours, as the merchants might think best? Our government had only a choice of difficulties; and they wisely preferred adopting a system which has preserved free access for the English manufacturer to the markets of Prussia, and to the English ship owners an equal chance with those of Prussia of being employed in the traffic between the two countries, to a system that would eventually, and at no distant period, have put an end to all intercourse between the two countries, and which had already subjected it to great difficulties.

It was said by the ship owners, and others opposed to the late alterations, that the Prussians can build, man, and victual ships at a cheaper rate than we can do; and that the ultimate effect of the reciprocity system would, consequently, be to give them a decided superiority in the trade. But, admitting this statement to be true, still, for the reasons already given, it is pretty evident that the policy we have pursued was, under the circumstances of the case, the best. Had we refused to establish the reciprocity system, we must have submitted to be entirely excluded from the markets of the United States, Prussia, &c. In grasping at what was beyond our reach, we should thus have lost what we were already in possession of. We should not only have injured our ship owners, by getting them forcibly excluded from the ports of many great commercial states, but we should have done an irreparable injury to our manufacturers,—a class which, without undervaluing the ship owners, is of incomparably more importance than they. Although, therefore, no doubt could be entertained with respect to the statements of the ship owners as to the comparative

cheapness of foreign shipping, that would be no good objection to the measures that have been adopted. But these statements, though probably in some respects true, were certainly much exaggerated. In comparing the cost of British and foreign shipping, it is usual to estimate it by the tonnage: but this is a very false criterion; for, while foreign ships are accurately measured, our ships are measured so that a vessel of 150 tons register generally carries 220 tons of a mixed cargo, and a vessel registered at 400 tons seldom carries less than 600. If this difference be taken into account, it will be found that the Prussians, and other Northern nations, from whom the greatest danger was apprehended, have no considerable advantage in the cheapness of their ships; and it is generally admitted that ships built in the ports on the Baltic will not last the time, nor bear the wear and tear, that ships built in this country or France will do. The wages of American seamen are higher than ours; and it is stated by those engaged in the shipping trade, that the wages paid by the Northern ship owners are about as high as in England, and that their crews are larger in proportion to the burden of the ship. The difference in the cost of victualling must be immaterial, for, in all distant voyages, our ships procure provisions and stores of all sorts at the same rate as the foreigner.* On the whole, therefore, it would appear that the alarm with respect to the apprehended decay of our shipping was in a great degree, if not entirely, imaginary. And while the late modifications in the navigation laws were imperiously required by a just regard to our manufacturing and commercial interests, there are no good grounds for thinking that they will be injurious to our shipping.

ABSTRACT OF AN ACT ENTITLED FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF BRITISH SHIPPING AND NAVIGATION. 3 & 4 WILL. 4. c. 54.

This act shall come into and be and continue in full force and operation, from and after the 1st day of September, 1833.—§ 1.

Ships in which only enumerated Goods of Europe may be imported.—The several sorts of goods hereinafter enumerated, being the produce of Europe, viz. masts, timber, boards, tar, tallow, hemp, flax, currants, raisins, figs, prunes, olive oil, corn or grain, wine, brandy, tobacco, wool, shumac, madders, madder roots, barilla, brimstone, bark of oak, cork, oranges, lemons, linseed, rape seed, and clover seed, shall not be imported into the United Kingdom to be used therein, except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which the goods are the produce, or in ships of the country from which the goods are imported.—§ 2.

Places from which only Goods of Asia, Africa, or America may be imported.—Goods, the produce of Asia, Africa, or America, shall not be imported from Europe into the United Kingdom, to be used therein, except the goods herein-after mentioned; (that is to say,)

Goods, the produce of the dominions of the Emperor of Morocco, which may be imported from places in Europe within the Straits of Gibraltar:

Goods, the produce of Asia or Africa, which (having been brought into places in Europe within the Straits of Gibraltar, from or through places in Asia or Africa within those Straits, and not by way of the Atlantic Ocean) may be imported from places in Europe within the Straits of Gibraltar:

Goods, the produce of places within the limits of the East India Company's charter, which (having been imported from those places into Gibraltar or Malta in British ships) may be imported from Gibraltar or Malta;

Goods taken by way of reprisal by British ships:

Bullion, diamonds, pearls, rubies, emeralds, and other jewels or precious stones.—Sect. 3.

Ships in which only Goods of Asia, Africa, or America may be imported.—Goods, the produce of Asia, Africa, or America, shall not be imported into the United Kingdom, to be used therein, in foreign ships, unless they be the ships of the country in Asia, Africa, or America, of which the goods are the produce, and from which they are imported, except the goods herein-after mentioned; (that is to say,)

Goods, the produce of the dominions of the Grand Seignior, in Asia or Africa, which may be imported from his dominions in Europe, in ships of his dominions:

Raw silk and mohair yarn, the produce of Asia, which may be imported from the dominions of the Grand Seignior in the Levant seas, in ships of his dominions:

Bullion.—Sect. 4.

Manufacture deemed Produce.—All manufactured goods shall be deemed to be the produce of the country of which they are the manufacture.—§ 5.

From Guernsey, &c.—No goods shall be imported into the United Kingdom from the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, except in British ships.—§ 6.

Exports to Asia, &c. and to Guernsey, &c.—No goods shall be exported from the United Kingdom to any British possession in Asia, Africa, or America, nor to the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, except in British ships.—§ 7.

Coastwise.—No goods shall be carried coastwise from one part of the United Kingdom to another, except in British ships.—§ 8.

Between Guernsey, Jersey, &c.—No goods shall be carried from any of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, to any other of such islands, nor from one part of any of such islands to another part of the same island, except in British ships.—§ 9.

Between British Possessions in Asia, &c.—No goods shall be carried from any British possession in Asia, Africa, or America, to any other of such possessions, nor from one part of any of such possessions to another part of the same, except in British ships.—§ 10.

Imports into British Possessions in Asia, &c.—No goods shall be imported into any British possession in Asia, Africa, or America, in any foreign ship, unless they be ships of the country of which the goods are the produce, and from which the goods are imported.—§ 11.

No Ship British, unless registered and navigated as such.—No ship shall be admitted to be a British

* See on this subject an able pamphlet, entitled "Observations on the Warehousing System and Navigation Laws," by Sir John Hall, Secretary to the St. Katharine's Dock Company. The following extract from the evidence of Mr. Edward Solly, before the Lords' Committee of 1820, seems to be conclusive as to the accuracy of the statements in the text:—"I," said he, "was formerly a considerable owner of Prussian ships, and therefore I had a good deal of experience in Prussian shipping, and I can safely say that Prussian ships cannot compete with English ships in time of peace: the English ships are navigated cheaper than Prussian ships; the Prussian vessels are more heavily masted and rigged, and require a greater complement of men, whilst the English ship is manned mostly by apprentices; the English ships require less ballast; the economy of shipping is better understood and practised in them; there is greater activity of the captain and crew; they are insured in Lloyd's at the average rate of 5 per cent., while the Prussian ships cannot get the same insurance done for them; and as to the outfit, the provisions, and other necessaries for the ship, both parties have their choice where they will lay in their stock, whether in a Prussian or an English port: if provisions are cheap in the Prussian port, the English captain lays in his stock of provisions there. Generally, I am of opinion that British ships can sail cheaper than those of any other nation."—(*Evidence*, p. 14.)

ship, unless duly registered and navigated as such: and every British register ship (so long as the registry of such ship shall be in force, or the certificate of such registry retained for the use of such ship) shall be navigated during the whole of every voyage (whether with a cargo or in ballast), in every part of the world, by a master who is a British subject, and by a crew, whereof 3-4ths at least are British seamen: and if such ship be employed in a coasting voyage from one part of the United Kingdom to another, or in a voyage between the United Kingdom and the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, or from one of the said islands to another of them, or from one part of either of them to another of the same, or be employed in fishing on the coasts of the United Kingdom or of any of the said islands, then the whole of the crew shall be British seamen.—§ 12.

Exception in favour of Vessels under 15 *Tons Burden, &c.*—All British-built boats or vessels under 15 tons burden, wholly owned and navigated by British subjects, although not registered as British ships, shall be admitted to be British vessels, in all navigation in the rivers and upon the coasts of the United Kingdom, or of the British possessions abroad, and not proceeding over sea, except within the limits of the respective colonial governments within which the managing owners of such vessels respectively reside; and all British-built boats or vessels wholly owned and navigated by British subjects, not exceeding the burden of 30 tons, and not having a whole or a fixed deck, and being employed solely in fishing on the banks and shores of Newfoundland and of the parts adjacent, or on the banks and shores of the provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, or New Brunswick, adjacent to the Gulf of Saint Lawrence, or on the north of Cape Canso or of the islands within the same, or in trading coastwise within the said limits, shall be admitted to be British boats or vessels, although not registered, so long as such boats or vessels shall be solely so employed.—§ 13.

Honduras Ships to be as British, in Trade with United Kingdom and Colonies in America.—All ships built in the British settlements at Honduras, and owned and navigated as British ships, shall be entitled to the privileges of British registered ships in all direct trade between the United Kingdom or the British possessions in America and the said settlements; provided the master shall produce a certificate under the hand of the superintendent of those settlements, that satisfactory proof has been made before him that such ship (describing the same) was built in the said settlements, and is wholly owned by British subjects; provided also, that the time of the clearance of such ship from the said settlements for every voyage shall be endorsed upon such certificate by such superintendent.—§ 14.

Ship of any Foreign Country to be of the Built of, or Prize to such Country; or British-built, and owned and navigated by Subjects of the Country.—No ship shall be admitted to be a ship of any particular country, unless she be of the built of such country; or have been made prize of war to such country; or have been forfeited to such country under any law of the same, made for the prevention of the slave trade, and condemned as such prize or forfeiture by a competent court of such country; or be British-built (not having been a prize of war from British subjects to any other foreign country); nor unless she be navigated by a master who is a subject of such foreign country, and by a crew of whom 3-4ths at least are subjects of such country; nor unless she be wholly owned by subjects of such country usually residing therein, or under the dominion thereof: provided always, that the country of every ship shall be deemed to include all places which are under the same dominion as the place to which such ship belongs.—§ 15.

Master and Seamen not British, unless natural-born, or naturalised, &c.—No person shall be qualified to be a master of a British ship, or to be a British seaman within the meaning of this act, except the natural-born subjects of his Majesty, or persons naturalised by any act of parliament, or made denizens by letters of denization; or except persons who have become British subjects by virtue of conquest or cession of some newly acquired country, and who shall have taken the oath of allegiance to his Majesty, or the oath of fidelity required by the treaty or capitulation by which such newly acquired country came into his Majesty's possession; or persons who shall have served on board any of his Majesty's ships of war in time of war for the space of 3 years; provided always, that the natives of places within the limits of the East India Company's charter, although under British dominion, shall not, upon the ground of being such natives, be deemed to be British seamen: provided always, that every ship (except ships required to be wholly navigated by British seamen) which shall be navigated by 1 British seaman, if a British ship, or 1 seaman of the country of such ship, if a foreign ship, for every 20 tons of the burden of such ship, shall be deemed to be duly navigated, although the number of other seamen shall exceed 1-4th of the whole crew: provided always, that nothing herein contained shall extend to repeal or alter the provisions of an act passed in the 4th year of the reign of his late Majesty King George IV. for consolidating and amending the laws then in force with respect to trade from and to places within the limits of the East India Company's charter.—§ 16.

Foreigners having served 2 *years on board H. M. Ships during War.*—It shall be lawful for his Majesty, by his royal proclamation during war, to declare that foreigners, having served 2 years on board any of his Majesty's ships of war, in time of such war, shall be British seamen within the meaning of this act.—§ 17.

British Ship not to depart British Port unless duly navigated, &c.—No British registered ship shall be suffered to depart any port in the United Kingdom, or any British possession in any part of the world (whether with a cargo or in ballast), unless duly navigated: provided always, that any British ships trading between places in America may be navigated by British negroes; and that ships trading eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, within the limits of the East India Company's charter, may be navigated by Lascars, or other natives of countries within those limits.—§ 18.

If Excess of Foreign Seamen, Penalty 10*l. for each, &c.*—If any British registered ship shall at any time have, as part of the crew, in any part of the world, any foreign seaman not allowed by law, the master or owners of such ship shall for every such foreign seaman forfeit the sum of 10*l.*: provided always, that if a due proportion of British seamen cannot be procured in any foreign port, or in any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter, for the navigation of any British ship; or if such proportion be destroyed during the voyage by any unavoidable circumstance, and the master of such ship shall produce a certificate of such facts under the hand of any British consul, or of 2 known British merchants, if there be no consul at the place where such facts can be ascertained, or from the British governor of any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter; or, in the want of such certificate, shall make proof of the truth of such facts to the satisfaction of the collector and comptroller of the customs of any British port, or of any person authorised in any other part of the world to inquire into the navigation of such ship; the same shall be deemed to be duly navigated.—§ 19.

Proportion of Seamen may be altered by Proclamation.—If his Majesty shall, at any time, by his royal proclamation, declare that the proportion of British seamen necessary to the due navigation of British ships shall be less than the proportion required by this act, every British ship navigated with the proportion of British seamen required by such proclamation shall be deemed to be duly navigated, so long as such proclamation shall remain in force.—§ 20.

Goods prohibited only by Navigation Law may be imported for Exportation.—Goods of any sort or the produce of any place, not otherwise prohibited than by the law of navigation herein-before contained, may be imported into the United Kingdom from any place in a British ship, and from any place not being a British possession in a foreign ship of any country, and however navigated, to be warehoused

for exportation only, under the provision of any law in force for the time being, made for the warehousing of goods without payment of duty upon the first entry thereof.—§ 21.

Forfeitures how incurred.—Any goods imported, exported, or carried coastwise, contrary to the law of navigation, shall be forfeited, and the masters of ships carrying the same shall forfeit each the sum of 100*l*.—§ 22.

Recovery of Forfeitures.—All penalties and forfeitures incurred under this act shall be sued for, prosecuted, recovered, and disposed of, or shall be mitigated or restored, in like manner as any penalty or forfeiture can be sued for, prosecuted, recovered, and disposed of, or may be mitigated or restored, under an act passed in the present session of parliament for the prevention of smuggling.—§ 23.

NEW ORLEANS, the capital of Louisiana, one of the United States, situated on the eastern bank of the Mississippi, about 105 miles from its mouth, in lat. 29° 57′ 45″ N. lon. 90° 9′ W. Population in 1830, 46,309. The new-built streets are broad, intersecting each other at right angles; and the houses are mostly of brick. It is the grand emporium of all the vast tracts traversed by the Mississippi, the Missouri, and their tributary streams, enjoying a greater command of internal navigation than any other city either of the Old or New World. Civilisation has hitherto struck its roots, and begun to flourish, only in some comparatively small portions of the immense territories of which New Orleans is the seaport; and yet its progress has been rapid beyond all precedent. It appears, from the accounts printed by order of Congress, that during the year ended the 30th of September, 1835, the value of the native American produce exported from this city amounted to 31,265,015 dollars, while the value of that exported from New York was only 21,707,867. With respect to imports, the case is materially different; the value of those of New Orleans, in the year just mentioned, being 17,519,814 dollars, whereas those of New York amounted to 88,191,305. It is believed by many, seeing how rapidly settlements are forming in the "West," that New Orleans must, at no very distant period, exceed every other city of America, as well in the magnitude of its imports as of its exports; and, considering the boundless extent and extraordinary fertility of the uncultivated and unoccupied basins of the Mississippi and Missouri, the anticipations of those who contend that New Orleans is destined to become the greatest emporium, not of America only, but of the world, will not appear very unreasonable. Steam navigation has been of incalculable service to this port, and, indeed, to the whole of Central America. The voyage up the Mississippi, that used formerly to be so difficult and tedious, is now performed in commodious steam packets with ease, celerity, and comfort. "There have been counted," says Mr. Flint, "in the harbour, 1,500 flat boats at a time. Steam boats are arriving and departing every hour; and it is not uncommon to see 50 lying together in the harbour. A forest of masts is constantly seen along the *levée*, except in the sultry months. There are often 5,000 or 6,000 boatmen from the upper country here at a time; and we have known *thirty* vessels advertised together for Liverpool and Havre. The intercourse with the Havannah and Vera Cruz is great, and constantly increasing."—(*Geography and History of the Western States*, vol. i. p. 557.) From 1811, when the first steam boat was launched in the Mississippi, down to the beginning of 1830, no fewer than 336 steam boats had been built for the navigation of this river, the Missouri, Ohio, &c., of which 213 were employed at the latter period. In December, 1834, the aggregate burden of the steam vessels belonging to this port amounted to 46,292 tons! Vessels of the largest burdens may navigate the river several hundreds of miles above New Orleans. A large proportion of her foreign trade is carried on in foreign bottoms; and as a shipping port, she ranks much below several of the other ports of the Union. The total of the registered, enrolled, and licensed tonnage belonging to New Orleans on the 31st of December, 1834, amounted to 74,741 tons; of which 46,437 tons were employed in the coasting trade; but of this a large proportion consists of steam ships. The depth of water in the river opposite to New Orleans is, at a medium, about 70 feet; and it maintains soundings of 30 feet till within a mile of its confluence with the sea. Besides 3 or 4 of inferior consequence, the Mississippi has 4 principal passes or outlets. In the south-east, or main pass, at Balize, the water on the bar at ordinary tides does not exceed 12 feet; and as the rise of tides in the Gulf of Mexico is not more than 2 or 2½ feet, vessels drawing much water cannot make their way from the ocean to New Orleans.—(*Darby's View of the United States*, p. 467.)

The unhealthiness of the climate is the great drawback on New Orleans. This probably arises from the low and marshy situation of the city and surrounding country, which is under the level of the Mississippi, being protected from inundation only by an artificial *levée* or mound, varying from 5 to 30 feet in height, and extending along the bank of the river a distance of 100 miles. The unhealthy season includes July, August, and September; during which period the yellow fever often makes dreadful havoc, particularly among the poorer classes of immigrants from the North and from Europe. Latterly, great efforts have been made to improve the health of the city, by supplying it abundantly with water, paving the streets, removing wooden sewers, and replacing them with others of stone, &c. Many places, where water used to stagnate, have been filled up; and large tracts of swampy ground contiguous to the town have been drained. And as such works will no doubt be prosecuted on a still larger scale, according to the increase of commerce and population, it is to be hoped that the ravages of fever may be materially abated, though the situation of the city excludes any very strong expectation of its ever being rendered quite free from this dreadful scourge

The following Tab
emporium :—

1. Account of the Quan
the Nine Years endin
of Exportation.

Articles.	
Apples	bbls.
Apple brandy	—
Bacon, assorted	hhds. and casks.
	boxes
Bacon loose	hhds.
	boxes
Bacon in bulk	lbs.
Bagging, Kentucky	pieces
Bale rope	coils
Beans	bbls.
Butter	hhds.
	kegs and firkins
	bbls.
Beef-wax	bbls.
	boxes
	lbs.
Beef	bbls
	hhds.
dried	lbs.
Buffalo robes	packs
Cotton, Louisiana & Miss.	bales
Mobile	—
Lake	—
North Alabama and Tennessee	—
Missouri & Illinois	—
Arkansas	—
Florida	—
Texas	—
Corn meal	bbls.
in ears	—
shelled	sacks
Cheese	casks
Candles	boxes
Cider	bbls.
Coal, western	—
Dried peaches	—
Dried apples	—
Feathers	bags
Fixtures	bbls.
Flour	—
Furs	hhds.
	boxes
	bundles
Gin	bbls.
Ginseng	bags and cases
	lbs.
Hemp	bundles
Hempen yarn	reels
Forking yarn	—
Hides	—
Horns	—
Hay	bundles
Iron, pig	tons
wrought	—
Lard	hhds.
	bbls.
	kegs
	lbs.
Leather	bundles
	sides
Lime, western	bbls.
Lead, pig	pigs
bar	kegs and boxes
	lbs.
Oats	bbls.
Onions	—
Oil, linseed	—
bear	—
castor	—
Peach brandy	—
Pecans	—
Pickles	—
	kegs
Potatoes	bbls.
Pork	—
	hhds.
in bulk	lbs.
Porter and ale	bbls.
Rum	puncheons
	bbls.
Skins, deer	packs
bear	—
Shot	kegs
	bags
Soap	boxes
Shingles	—
Staves	—
Segars	bbls.
Mess, Spanish	bales
Tallow	bbls.
Tobacco, leaf	hhds.
chewing	kegs and boxes
	carrots
	bales
Twine	bundles
	boxes
Venison hams	—
Vinegar	bbls.
Whiskey	—
Window glass	boxes
Wheat	bbls. and sacks

The following Tables give a very complete view of the trade of this great and growing emporium :—

I. Account of the Quantity of the various Articles imported from the Interior to New Orleans during the Nine Years ending with the 30th of September, 1836. These, of course, form also the Articles of Exportation.

Articles.		1836.	1835.	1834.	1833.	1832.	1831.	1830.	1829.	1828.
Apples	bbls.	25,834	4,871	9,666	11,131	12,318	4,500	8,762	1,779	10,925
Apple brandy	—	44	7	50	-	31	2	169	59	79
Bacon, assorted	hhds. and casks.	7,271	2,962	5,046	4,938	4,851	5,427	20,686	3,629	4,147
	boxes	370	779	523	216	370	1,307	312	752	1,190
Bacon hams	hhds.	7,315	2,343	7,218	1,891	2,794	2,008	822	2,902	1,423
	boxes	306	1,257	756	15	65	305	176	1,157	469
Bacon in bulk	lbs.	851,368	1,519,329	615,324	685,218	907,360	1,292,354	309,017	291,001	229,756
Bagging, Kentucky	pieces	55,067	47,972	23,324	29,391	23,950	25,536	12,306	13,472	5,972
Bale rope	coils	32,908	31,554	23,763	20,718	22,973	45,540	20,288	16,034	17,038
Beans	bbls.	1,922	289	1,193	13,918	2,833	1,648	2,989	1,930	773
Butter	hhds.	49	38	-	1	13	5	1	1	4
	kegs and firkins	5,699	6,190	5,072	3,919	5,014	4,219	5,846	4,140	4,047
	bbls.	393	66	80	160	165	446	63		
Beef-suet	bbls.	255	198	478	384	2	332	811	795	770
	boxes	51	20	5	185	374	183	73	40	69
	lbs.	22,190	50,335	28,750	50	-	500	4,441	5,400	6,434
Beef	bbls.	9,931	10,061	5,455	5,350	4,550	10,896	7,566	5,405	5,622
	hhds.	66	18	180	204	3	80	22	133	33
dried	lbs.	115,223	30,052	59,160	83,910	172,410	40,800	200	2 100	17,272
Buffalo robes	packs	3,180	2,674	1,835	1,937	1,992	2,554	5,061	15,210	19,967
Cotton, Louisiana & Miss.	bales	358,931	345,970	307,421	292,748	198,620	242,427	174,194	150,570	191,176
Mobile	—	16,472	17,456	5,063	1,553	17,663	367	6,093	6,350	3,484
Lake	—	11,166	10,526	9,223	11,974	7,354	10,339	9,302	8,753	8,017
North Alabama and Tennessee	—	96,142	148,132	135,542	93,303	114,934	171,816	168,906	99,355	92,648
Missouri & Illinois	—	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	20	109
Arkansas	—	5,738	3,134	1,616	2,862	1,187	1,789	1,525	1,332	1,201
Florida	—	6,842	2,764	5,321	6,278	9,499	2,024	3,121	2,907	1,543
Texas	—	5,484	5,084	917	155	540	335	193	284	-
Corn meal	bbls.	2,742	1,535	1,455	2,963	1,389	2,313	2,443	5,549	498
in ears	—	255,462	227,845	98,554	91,593	71,047	42,194	42,367	91,862	89,876
shelled	sacks	293,763	172,618	52,900	66,893	7,112	290,754	21,190	-	-
Cheese	casks	247	217	117	145	329	120	179	84	147
Candles	boxes	216	46	511	1,819	127	103	622	518	791
Cider	bbls.	1,790	26	1,199	698	759	239	635	455	648
Coal, western	—	35,328	45,786	65,000	24,120	50,000	-	40,800	-	-
Dried peaches	—	443	21	319	29	47	50	136	336	389
Dried apples	—	1,176	60	1,040	1,190	250	65	231	126	140
Feathers	bags	223	386	561	200	143	439	98	373	285
Fixtseed	bbls.	3,381	6,268	3,720	910	997	400	744	541	260
Flour	—	227,191	235,705	320,665	262,739	210,887	260,580	133,700	157,323	152,508
Furs	hhds.	73	194	67	279	149	109	80	67	6
	boxes	8	5	6	76	12	17	12	21	2
	bundles	1,815	2,627	479	276	671	318	587	481	271
Gin	bbls.	70	183	330	503	468	-	110	143	285
Ginseng	bags and cases	57	31	-	191	270	162	138	47	56
	lbs.	9,650	9,200	13,600	-	-	-	-	-	360
Hemp	bundles	7	-	32	575	497	87	6,429	2,137	724
Hempen yarn	reels	-	21	27	95	333	18	398	379	256
Forking yarn	—	-	205	36	-	16	-	91	-	-
Hides	—	21,852	35,056	41,430	22,562	12,929	22,716	15,923	18 439	12,934
Horns	—	44,878	35,967	38,934	28,645	20,267	32,646	29,192	17,327	23,298
Hay	bundles	16,194	1,127	998	1,634	1,155	247	1,025	777	167
Iron, pig	tons	975	3,611	3,123	1,274	30	411	328		
wrought	—	47	131	68	148	-	-	-	-	-
Lard	hhds.	-	9	-	-	-	10	6	19	11
	bbls.	1,687	3,340	2,019	680	1,941	1,358	117	531	1,062
	kegs	169,815	256,036	199,204	198,276	151,420	131,111	70,270	110,206	115,545
	lbs.	2,100	3,274	-	-	-	505	-	12,000	74,073
Leather	bundles	701	1,024	636	858	925	489	314	519	312
	sides	391	25	-	-	-	-	240	185	393
Lime, western	bbls.	600	1,332	3,820	164	-	-	-	-	-
Lead, pig	pigs	295,644	251,739	208,100	180,062	122,933	151,251	234,805	148,203	183,712
bar	kegs and boxes	709	684	429	2,805	353	2,022	2,034	792	471
	lbs.	-	-	-	244,000	245,500	-	-	408,641	-
Oats	bbls.	17,960	15,516	16,854	10,415	2,169	1,852	4,110	5,210	1,763
Onions	—	3,794	909	1,433	892	554	809	1,325	548	387
Oil, linseed	—	167	641	515	483	57	1,666	1,840	2,940	2,837
bear	—	40	68	93	154	48	151	146	254	63
castor	—	1,999	503	253	275	247	572	726	166	91
Peach brandy	—	170	389	249	407	23	5	206	217	192
Perans	—	310	23	11	80	6	2	234	242	747
Pickles	—	57	44	-	73	57	19	108	158	88
	kegs	1,093	1,260	283	849	230	983	1,060	218	780
Potatoes	bbls.	13,568	9,433	7,045	13,128	7,843	2,732	5,148	5,895	1,852
Pork	—	76,916	90,381	91,865	89,978	67,672	65,152	35,407	49,110	35,417
	hhds.	87	124	298	175	80	117	33	504	264
in bulk	lbs.	5,416,976	7,160,934	2,603,860	4,196,192	4,114,096	953,200	211,128	941,400	863,990
Porter and ale	bbls.	756	49	1,723	733	1,516	206	601	424	536
Rum	puncheons	140	537	500	66	-	-	-	-	-
	bbls.	1,398	1,410	2,098	1,776	897	684	87	416	286
Skins, deer	packs	4,338	2,610	5,093	5,323	5,809	3,805	4,089	6,215	3,160
bear	—	65	91	174	311	197	140	128	150	155
Shot	kegs	1,981	2,477	2,084	1,325	1,196	3,096	4,528	2,443	1,127
	bags	-	4	20	72	-	-	-	146	213
Soap	boxes	100	1,418	1,598	1,867	76	408	1,840	4,475	6,900
Shingles	—	580,000	368,000	55,000	702,000	251,000	-	-	331,000	-
Staves	—	1,020,000	1,000,000	2,000,000	850,000	700,000	990,000	933,000	850,000	827,000
Segars	bbls.	105	37	50	27	2	-	-	22	11
Mus. Spanish	bales	5,887	1,270	580	1,110	720	192	779	-	-
Tallow	bbls.	533	440	712	1,508	1,587	631	1,337	3,900	619
Tobacco, leaf	hhds.	49,934	35,787	24,963	21,361	20,015	32,708	33,781	29,432	30,345
chewing	kegs and boxes	1,065	1,393	2,383	2,241	11,488	1,875	1,688	4,571	4,978
	carrols	-	946	145	1,900	1,447	1,028	631	2,137	2,821
	bales	1,549	3,204	1,238	2,822	2,272	-	-	-	-
Twine	bundles	271	519	238	238	126	202	264	415	193
	boxes	45	78	66	42	11	21	67	139	234
Venison hams	—	4,272	4,908	9,222	6,229	970	4,698	4,135	28,152	6,670
Vinegar	bbls.	58	136	159	953	64	124	65	79	1,795
Whiskey	—	33,193	36,440	22,457	35,931	37,012	30,579	24,341	26,449	44,407
Window glass	boxes	2,864	7,898	5,408	5,170	1,195	2,115	4,741	912	459
Wheat	bbls. and sacks	1,040	10,009							

II. Exports of Cotton and Tobacco from New Orleans during each of the Nine Years ending the 30th of September, 1836.

Whither exported.	1835-36.	1834-35.	1833-34.	1832-33.	1831-32.	1830-31.	1829-30.	1828-29.	1827-28.	1826-27.
	Bales of Cotton.									
Great Britain	236,526	259,123	280,169	223,667	208,365	223,374	196,892	130,514	142,846	120,536
France	138,881	141,872	101,258	82,302	76,138	60,913	93,440	78,370	66,45[illegible]	60,101
North of Europe	17,999	4,368	9,742	3,339	4,423	2,911	4,213	12,923	8,216	5,279
South of Europe	12,074	6,918	1,384	1,690	5,732	2,400	1,223	5,095	1,379	
Coastwise	92,535	122,434	60,706	94,223	64,798	123,086	86,116	41,017	86,283	64,799
Total	499,004	534,765	462,213	407,220	349,456	424,684	351,880	267,949	304,848	250,695
	Hogsheads of Tobacco.									
Great Britain	15,493	6,338	8,112	4,875	8,448	6,181	1,792	4,567	5,409	3,232
France	1,196	1,460	806	26	676	256	451	250	642	779
North of Europe	5,942	4,202	4,610	4,520	7,157	4,815	5,161	3,792	6,586	4,193
South of Europe	1,980	1,962	1,455	424	1,461	2,524	6,844	3,248	4,384	2,763
Coastwise	19,328	20,343	10,448	14,047	15,892	21,240	13,980	8,674	18,509	16,022
Total	43,941	34,365	24,931	23,701	33,574	34,966	28,028	21,491	35,111	24,979

III. Arrivals of Ships, Brigs, Schooners, Sloops, and Steamboats, for Four Years, ending the 30th of September, 1836.

Months.	1835-36.					1834-35.					1833-34.					1832-33.				
	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.	Total.	Steam Boats.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.	Total.	Steam Boats.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.	Total.	Steam Boats.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.	Total.	Steam Boats.
October	46	38	25	2	111	94	43	38	41	1	123	74	26	23	20	0	71	62	21	26	35	0	82	66
November	66	40	37	0	143	113	73	47	37	1	158	101	53	42	32	1	128	109	31	24	30	0	85	73
December	59	60	26	1	146	114	79	63	56	1	199	141	52	32	20	1	105	118	65	58	57	0	180	146
January	32	52	70	1	155	166	40	55	57	1	153	135	42	79	63	0	184	97	59	46	43	1	131	173
February	57	40	63	1	161	120	41	40	65	0	146	115	19	49	66	1	135	112	52	59	72	0	183	146
March	39	42	64	2	147	160	70	65	82	0	217	119	67	54	58	3	182	118	52	45	61	0	158	123
April	52	56	60	1	169	144	34	66	82	2	183	104	57	48	57	0	162	107	46	48	52	1	147	104
May	56	41	51	1	149	127	56	53	0	144	108	127	44	46	34	2	126	100	46	45	46	0	137	90
June	18	54	28	2	102	114	15	25	49	2	91	105	34	31	34	0	99	99	29	27	30	0	86	94
July	18	19	25	1	63	68	15	20	30	1	66	58	5	22	22	1	50	51	20	28	18	0	66	58
August	20	23	29	1	73	56	17	22	24	1	64	46	4	19	23	1	47	43	7	15	25	0	47	31
September	35	19	19	0	73	76	24	15	18	1	58	69	16	12	15	0	43	19	17	13	20	0	50	40
Totals	498	472	537	13	1,520	1,372	507	480	583	11	1,601	1,172	419	507	497	10	1,432	1,005	405	428	499	2	1,304	1,051

We are indebted for the above valuable information to the *Circular Statement of William Alderson, Esq.*, New Orleans, the 1st of October, 1836.

[For the information which follows concerning the commerce of New Orleans, we are indebted to *Hazard's Commercial and Statistical Register.*

Imports from the Interior at New Orleans, for Three Years, ending with the 30th September, 1839.

Articles.	1839.	1838.	1837.	Articles.	1839.	1838.	1837.
Apples, bbls.	6,396	24,908	20,625	Horns,	27,450	7,050	15,778
Bacon, assorted hhds. & casks	13,634	11,328	7,781	Hay, bundles	9,915	12,963	30,343
boxes	285	174	358	Iron, pig tons	411	1,612	67
Bacon hams, hhds.	6,118	5,275	6,303	wrought	17		
boxes	160	145	265	Lard, hhds.	213	50	
in bulk, lbs.	1,501,900	964,490	1,493,287	bbls.	8,635	3,745	8,98[illegible]
Bagging, Kentucky pieces	49,539	42,331	34,763	kegs	218,673	219,480	211,97[illegible]
Bale rope, coils	63,107	52,897	28,166	lbs.	2,300	10,000	
Beans, bbls.	417	5,973	6,501	Leather, bundles	615	495	82[illegible]
Butter, hhds.	5	51	1	sides			22[illegible]
kegs and firkins	3,475	11,279	8,055	Lime, western, bbls.	900	500	90
bbls.	431	279	197	Lead, pig pigs	295,097	310,102	344,00[illegible]
Beeswax, bbls.	144	121	212	bar kegs and boxes	521	1,526	61
boxes	21	1	4	Oats, bbls.	30,110	25,289	23,19[illegible]
lbs.	4,250	7,000	563	Onions, —	921	1,308	4,02[illegible]
Beef, bbls.	10,754	6,131	9,370	Oil, linseed —	190	268	34[illegible]
hhds.	72	36	17	bear —	1	9	7
dried lbs.	38,060	44,040	120,642	castor —	343	568	80[illegible]
Buffalo robes, packs	5,562	3,029	5,053	Peach brandy —	51	157	18[illegible]
Cotton, Louisiana and Mississippi, bales	477,949	581,225	442,287	Pecans —	907	31	63[illegible]
Lake —	12,062	22,900	7,655	Pickles —	415	154	45[illegible]
North Alabama and Tennessee —	71,457	13,892	11,643	Potatoes, bbls.	7,534	12,956	10,41[illegible]
Arkansas —	7,003	124,495	157,124	Pork —	166,113	158,548	115,05[illegible]
Mobile —	16,763	11,969	7,101	hhds.	1,160	1,523	33[illegible]
Florida —	1,080	5,437	1,053	in bulk, lbs.	7,192,116	8,474,078	8,330,15[illegible]
Texas —	2,942	2,300	2,645	Porter and ale, bbls.	336	86	1,25[illegible]
Corn meal, bbls.	3,204	3,004	3,004	Rum, puncheons	478	404	53[illegible]
in ears —	161,588	262,334	194,301	bbls.	454	421	4,34[illegible]
shelled —	352,104	169,256	361,975	Skins, deer packs	3,183	2,933	4,01[illegible]
Cheese, casks	315	432	293	bear	74	13	3[illegible]
Candles, boxes	54	900	23	Shot, kegs	870	2,017	1,25[illegible]
Cider, bbls.	183	1,621	757	bags	108		11[illegible]
Coal, western —	94,902	89,220	61,118	Soap, boxes	300	537	33[illegible]
Dried peaches —	24	57	239	Shingles,	68,000	140,000	95,00[illegible]
apples —	—	35	792	Staves,	1,700,000	6,000	1,00[illegible]
Feathers, bags	457	141	182	Segars,	2	31	6[illegible]
Flaxseed, bbls.	316	841	1,920	Moss, Spanish bales	1,958	1,629	3,31[illegible]
Flour, —	456,237	507,610	264,356	Tallow, bbls.	709	110	19[illegible]
Furs, hhds.	114	23	96	Tobacco, leaf hhds.	28,210	27,706	26,19[illegible]
boxes	12	6	1	chewing kegs & boxes	1,769	3,674	1,90[illegible]
bundles	201	589	902	carrots		3-6	
Gin, bbls.		46	179	bales	1,266	144	1,47[illegible]
Ginseng, bags and cases	38	2	70	Twine, bundles	968	591	39[illegible]
lbs.	3,965	3,000	9,500	boxes	16		8[illegible]
Hemp, bundles	4,044	450		Venison hams,	1,810	470	64[illegible]
Hempen yarn, reels		94	40	Vinegar, bbls.	1,674	439	13[illegible]
Packing yarn, —	1,040	471	158	Whiskey, —	29,849	60,011	42,62[illegible]
Hides,	15,613	12,235	22,241	Window glass, boxes	2,849	2,859	3,03[illegible]
				Wheat, bbls. and sacks	17,956	2,027	6,42[illegible]

(New Orleans Price Current.)

Arrivals of Ships, Brigs,

Months.	Ships.	Brigs.
October	51	23
November	96	45
December	86	47
January	86	59
February	73	44
March	75	56
April	68	37
May	57	39
June	14	15
July	26	19
August	17	10
September	18	17
Total	670	411

Exports of Cotton, from

Whither exported.
Liverpool
London
Glasgow and Greenock
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.
Cork, Belfast, &c.
Havre
Bordeaux
Marseilles
Nantz
Lisle and Rouen,
Amsterdam
Bremen
Antwerp, &c.
Hamburg
Gottenburg
Spain and Gibraltar
West Indies
Genoa, Trieste, &c.
Other foreign ports

Comparative Arrivals,

Years.	Arrivals. Bales.
1838-39	589,291
1837-38	743,218
1836-37	601,475
1835-36	498,895
1834-35	531,366

Exports of Sugar and M

Whither exported.
New York
Philadelphia
Charleston, S. C.
Savannah
Providence and Bristol, R. I.
Boston
Baltimore
Norfolk
Richmond & Petersburg, Va.
Alexandria, D. C.
Mobile
Apalachicola and Pensacola
Other Ports
Total

Exports of Tobacco, fr

Whither exported.
Liverpool
London
Glasgow and Greenock
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.
Havre
Bordeaux
Marseilles
Nantz
Amsterdam
Bremen
Antwerp, &c.
Hamburg
Gottenburg
Spain and Gibraltar
West Indies
Genoa, Trieste, &c.
Other foreign ports

Arrivals of Ships, Brigs, Schooners, Sloops, and Steamboats, for Three Years, ending 30th Sept., 1839.

Months.	1838-39.						1837-38.						1836-37.					
	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.	Total.	Steam Boats.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops.	Total.	Steam Boats.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Sloops	Total.	Steam Boats.
October	51	23	91	2	167	50	27	19	15	1	62	74	39	20	23	1	83	117
November	66	45	56	0	197	117	39	35	33	0	157	103	38	28	41	0	107	169
December	36	47	68	5	201	163	75	45	48	0	168	204	75	67	51	0	193	201
January	55	59	103	0	247	161	53	54	64	2	173	198	36	57	91	0	184	146
February	78	44	84	2	208	179	43	41	59	1	143	165	67	58	63	0	188	148
March	75	56	98	2	231	195	52	58	75	3	188	196	33	44	68	1	146	186
April	70	37	79	6	190	186	60	37	72	4	173	150	56	43	52	0	151	155
May	67	36	62	2	160	187	63	50	55	0	168	144	34	45	49	2	130	111
June	14	15	41	2	72	144	57	65	72	4	98	152	19	32	33	0	74	101
July	25	19	47	3	94	76	15	27	29	0	74	79	10	16	25	1	52	93
August	17	10	34	3	64	53	21	20	23	0	64	35	17	21	23	0	61	60
September	16	17	18	1	54	62	25	13	18	0	56	57	25	9	24	1	59	64
Total	670	411	716	28	1825	1573	532	464	564	15	1625	1551	499	490	543	6	1478	1549

(*New Orleans Price Current.*)

Exports of Cotton, from the port of New Orleans, for the last Three Years, commencing 1st October, and ending 30th September.

Whither exported.	Bales of Cotton.			Whither exported.	Bales of Cotton.		
	1838-39.	1837-38.	1836-37.		1838-39.	1837-38.	1836-37.
Liverpool	297,774	465,193	333,832	New York	62,691	39,352	24,734
London	6	128	41	Boston	49,242	40,271	36,509
Glasgow and Greenock	7,390	16,147	17,077	Providence, R. I.	4,038	1,607	1,177
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.	2,459	48	2,966	Philadelphia	6,150	8,526	6,052
Cork, Belfast, &c.	2,139	-	1,180	Baltimore	3,450	6,148	2,978
Havre	112,779	110,609	113,410	Portsmouth	5,363	4,819	3,044
Bordeaux	1,348	4,407	6,100	Other coastwise ports	7,171	5,028	3,781
Marseilles	6,255	7,985	9,110				
Nantz	2,070	5,527	5,289	Total	580 817	737,186	594,538
Cette and Rouen,	-	-	753				
Amsterdam	49	992	202	RECAPITULATION.			
Bremen	27	656	123				
Antwerp, &c.	-	1,598	2,782	Great Britain	309,768	481,501	355,096
Hamburg	310	3,149	2,538	France	132,452	127,888	133,641
Gottenburg	947	343	553	North of Europe	1,446	7,580	6,431
Spain and Gibraltar	1,225	4,713	4,300	South of Europe	9,040	14,525	14,225
West Indies	4,259	2,641	2,050	Coastwise	138,111	105,749	85,145
Genoa, Trieste, &c.	3,566	7,174	7,975				
Other foreign ports	113	902	233	Total	580,817	737,186	594,538

Comparative Arrivals, Exports and Stocks of Cotton of New Orleans, for Ten Years, commencing 1st October.

Years.	*Arrivals.* Bales.	*Exports.* Bales.	*Stocks.* Bales.	Years.	*Arrivals.* Bales.	*Exports.* Bales.	*Stocks.* Bales.
1838-39	589,281	580,817	16,307	1833-34	465,103	462,253	8,756
1837-38	743,218	737,186	8,843	1832-33	418,853	407,220	7,406
1836-37	601,475	596,068	15,302	1831-32	349,797	356,406	7,088
1835-36	498,895	493,005	8,702	1830-31	428,876	424,684	13,697
1834-35	531,366	534,765	4,842	1829-30	363,641	351,890	9,505

(*New Orleans Price Current.*)

Exports of Sugar and Molasses (up the River excepted) for Three Years, ending 30th September, 1839.

Whither exported.	1838-39.				1837-38.				1836-37.			
	Sugar.		Molasses.		Sugar.		Molasses.		Sugar.		Molasses.	
	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
New York	9,913	229	7,594	3,884	10,988	75	4,827	8,012	11,626	53	5,176	8,846
Philadelphia	4,714	126	173	692	5,425	-	763	798	5,257	19	337	403
Charleston, S. C.	1,595	97	963	2,944	1,573	-	991	3,596	1,774	171	246	3,345
Savannah	670	30	182	1,174	404	81	-	1,322	450	-	-	2,987
Providence and Bristol, R. I.	3	3	278	696	29	-	369	162	-	-	52	155
Boston	1,612	131	456	328	545	-	227	1,896	925	96	-	737
Baltimore	5,914	596	1,734	3,552	4,418	-	1,216	3,552	4,888	130	261	3,431
Norfolk	619	5	-	391	186	-	-	770	539	-	-	579
Richmond & Petersburg, Va.	1,216	19	231	765	844	110	236	1,600	876	-	3	1,670
Alexandria, D. C.	137	-	-	399	59	15	257	108	-	-	-	369
Mobile	1,836	140	-	2,609	1,229	234	-	2,018	1,047	157	-	3,087
Apalachicola and Pensacola	460	961	232	1,553	386	1,219	15	906	229	1,034	3	1,304
Other Ports	475	1,174	1,387	1,528	232	1,088	1,610	2,474	70	679	223	1,542
Total	29,143	3,011	13,115	20,415	26,098	3,662	10,144	27,133	27,581	2,259	6,326	28,334

(*New Orleans Price Current.*)

Exports of Tobacco, from the port of New Orleans, for the last Three Years, commencing 1st October, and ending 30th September.

Whither exported.	Hogsheads of Tobacco.			Whither exported.	Hogsheads of Tobacco.		
	1838-39.	1837-38.	1836-37.		1838-39.	1837-38.	1836-37.
Liverpool	3,937	2,757	2,008	New York	7,846	10,072	4,207
London	3,723	3,579	1,609	Boston	2,816	2,599	3,510
Glasgow and Greenock	37	-	-	Philadelphia	1,335	1,652	1,346
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.	571	3,095	5,492	Baltimore	396	864	647
Havre	1,455	2,858	2,386	Other coastwise ports	225	576	670
Bordeaux	-	504	320				
Marseilles	100	1,781	699	Total	29,630	27,076	32,725
Nantz	-	-	342				
Amsterdam	224	-	1,394	RECAPITULATION.			
Bremen	1,251	2,035	3,320				
Antwerp, &c.	-	-	713	Great Britain	8,570	10,031	9,104
Hamburg	-	206	674	France	1,565	5,143	3,717
Gottenburg	939	576	342	North of Europe	2,939	2,973	6,944
Spain and Gibraltar	3,014	1,982	1,982	South of Europe	4,448	3,966	3,180
West Indies	616	791	1,347	Coastwise	12,518	15,063	10,360
Genoa, Trieste, &c.	594	563					
Other foreign ports	315	186	612	Total	29,630	27,076	32,725

Comparative Arrivals, Exports, and Stocks of Tobacco of New Orleans, for Ten Years, commencing 1st October.

Years.	Arrivals. Hhds.	Exports. Hhds.	Stocks. Hhds.	Years.	Arrivals. Hhds.	Exports. Hhds.	Stocks. Hhds.
1838-39	28,310	29,630	945	1833-34	24,963	24,031	216
1837-38	37,706	37,076	2,301	1832-33	21,361	22,701	717
1836-37	28,196	32,725	1,511	1831-32	30,015	32,974	3,257
1835-36	40,934	43,941	7,277	1830-31	32,708	34,968	6,416
1834-35	35,890	34,365	1,984	1829-30	23,781	28,028	9,499

Comparative Number of Vessels, in the Port of New Orleans.

September 30,	1839.	1838.	1837.	1836.	1835.	1834.	183
Ships,	17	20	26	42	25	11	16
Barks,	1	3	4	2	3	0	6
Brigs,	17	15	8	17	24	11	15
Schooners,	21	38	18	24	25	13	20
Total,	56	76	56	85	76	45	57

(*New Orleans Price Current.*)

An Ordinance Concerning the Levee Duties in and for the Port of New Orleans.—The General Council of the Municipalities of New Orleans, in conformity with the 20th section of the Act of Incorporation, approved 8th March, 1836, ordain as follows:

Article 1. The levee or wharfage duties on ships and other decked vessels, and on steam vessels arriving from sea, shall be fixed as follows:

On each sea vessel under 75 tons,						$12
—	of 75 and under	100	tons,			15
—	100	—	125	—		20
—	125	—	150	—		25
—	150	—	200	—		30
—	200	—	250	—		40
—	250	—	300	—		50
—	300	—	350	—		55
—	350	—	400	—		60
—	400	—	450	—		65
—	450	—	500	—		75
—	550	—	600	—		85
—	600	—	650	—		95
—	650	—	700	—		110
—	700	—	750	—		120
—	over 750					130

Art. 2. The payment of these duties shall be exacted and collected by the municipality within whose limits such vessels may have moored, after their arrival from sea in port; and an extra duty of one third of these rates shall be paid by all vessels which may remain in port over two months, the same to be recovered at the commencement of the third month; and if they remain in port four months, then they shall pay a further additional wharfage of one third of said rates, at the commencement of the fifth month, and be privileged to remain until the expiration of six months from date of original arrival and mooring, without a further charge being imposed on them.

Art. 3. When any vessel shall be removed from that division of the port in which it shall have originally paid duty, to another division of said port, under the jurisdiction of another municipality, said latter municipality shall be entitled to receive from the municipality to which said duty has been first paid in the following ratio, viz.:

One half of the duty actually paid or due, if said vessel have not remained longer than fifteen days in that part of the port in which it was first moored; one third, if said vessel have remained longer than fifteen days, but not more than twenty-five days; but if beyond twenty-five days, not any part of said duty shall be recovered. Nevertheless, the municipality in whose limits said vessel shall afterwards be moored, shall have the right to levy and collect the extra duty of one third of the rates mentioned in Article 1, on the conditions mentioned in Article 2; provided, that no further charge or extra duty shall be exacted from any vessel which may have removed from one part of the port to another, for the mere purpose of forthwith proceeding to sea.

Art. 4. All vessels or steamboats coming from sea, which, after their arrival in port shall proceed to, and return from any plantation, or other place, with a cargo, or part of a cargo, of any kind of produce whatever, and shall again enter the port for the purpose of discharging the same, shall pay, on returning from any such trip, a levee duty of eight dollars over and above the duties fixed by the 1st article of this ordinance, the same to be collected by the municipality within whose limits said vessels may discharge said produce.

Art. 5. The levee duties on steam vessels navigating on the river, and which shall moor and land in any part of the incorporated limits of the port, shall be fixed as follows:

On each steamer under 75 tons,						$ 8
—	of 75 and under	100	tons,			12
—	100	—	150	—		16
—	150	—	200	—		20
—	200	—	250	—		25
—	250	—	300	—		30
—	300	—	350	—		35
—	350	—	400	—		40
—	400	—	450	—		45
—	450	—	500	—		50
—	500	—	550	—		55
—	over 550					60

Art. 6. All steam vessels employed as packets, and plying regularly between this port and ports in the Gulf of Mexico, including Havana, shall pay no other or higher rate of wharfage than is imposed by this ordinance on steamboats navigating the Mississippi.

Art. 7. The duties specified in the preceding article, shall be paid on the mooring and landing of said steamers in port, by their captains or other agents, to the officer entrusted with their collection by the municipality within whose limits said vessels shall have moored and landed.

Art. 8. After the payment of these duties, said steamers shall be entitled to remain thirty days in that part of the port which may have been designated by the municipality to which it belongs; and any steamer remaining over thirty consecutive days, shall pay an additional duty of two dollars per day, until its final departure from port, the same to be collected daily; and if any steamer leaves its

first landing place, to take a berth and be moored in another municipality, it shall pay said additional duty of two dollars per day, to the collector of the municipality into whose limits it shall have been removed, whether said term of thirty days shall have expired or not at the time of such removal.

Art. 9. Steamers employed as tow boats, and which shall have received on board any produce, the whole or any part of the cargo of a vessel, and shall discharge the same on the levee, shall pay the same duty as is specified in Article 5, according to their tonnage; said duty to be collected by the proper officer of the municipality within whose limits such discharge shall be effected.

Art. 10. Tow boats shall pay, for each time they may moor to take in wood or other fuel, eight dollars to the municipality within whose limits they may moor and take in said fuel.

Art. 11. The following levee dues shall be exacted on all flat boats, barges, keel boats, pirogues, and other raft, crafts, &c.:

On each flat boat, either fully or in part laden with produce, materials, or merchandise of any kind, - $10
On each barge, measuring 70 feet or more in length, - - - - - - - - - - - 10
On all barges, keel boats, or boats measuring less than 70 feet, and not exceeding 15 tons burthen, 6
On all boats not described in the present ordinance, - - - - - - - - - - - 4
On each coasting pirogue, - 1

The owners or keepers of boats used as places of depôt for any article whatever, shall pay a duty of $1 per day.

The following duties shall also be levied:

On their being broken up, if in the incorporated limits of the port, each flat boat, - - - - $4
On each steamer, or other vessels than flat boats, being broken up within said limits, - - - 10
On rafts of timber not containing more than 25 logs each raft, - - - - - - - - - - - 5
On each raft of timber containing more than 25 logs, then in the ratio of that increase.
On each craft measuring 40 tons or under, employed to carry sugar, molasses, wood, or any other description of merchandise, there shall be levied, on each trip, a duty of - - - - - - - - 4
On all craft exceeding 40 tons each, employed as above, shall also be levied, on each trip a duty of - 6

Art. 12. All boats or other vessels arriving within the limits of the port, with fish, meat, vegetables, eggs, or any and every other kind of provisions, expressly for the purpose of supplying the several markets, shall be entirely exempt from paying any levee dues; but the same, and all other description of craft, otherwise employed, whether particularly mentioned in this ordinance or not, shall pay duty according to the tariff above ordained.

Art. 13. The time allowed for all pirogues, flat boats, barges, boats and keel boats to land their cargoes in port, shall be fixed at twelve days from their original arrival, after which said craft shall pay daily an additional duty on each barge, boat, or keel boat over 70 feet in length, - - - - $1 00
And less than 70 feet long - 75
And in the event of any of said vessels removing from one municipality to another, from their first place of landing, they shall pay daily said additional duty to the latter municipality, whether said term of twelve days shall have expired or not.

The time allowed for discharging of boats or other craft not otherwise described in this ordinance, is fixed at twelve days from their arrival in port, after which said boats and craft, and all rafts and floats, shall be taken out of the incorporated limits of the port, under penalty of being fined $25 for each day they may be found in violation of the law, said fine to be paid by all owners, masters, keepers or consignees of said flat boats, rafts or floats, for each and every day they may refuse to comply with the dispositions of the present ordinance; said fine to be recovered before any competent tribunal, on the evidence of the proper officer whose duty it is to see the levee or port ordinances carried into effect. Provided, however, that this clause in the present ordinance shall not deprive any of the municipalities of the right of granting a specific privilege for said flat boats, rafts or floats, to be broken up and used within any one of their respective limits.

Art. 14. It is hereby expressly forbidden to all owners, masters, consignees, or other persons, to sell, or cause to be sold, on board of any of the aforesaid craft, under any pretence whatever, wine, beer, cider, and spirituous liquors in quantities less than a barrel, under a penalty of fifty dollars for each contravention; said fine to be paid by them in the like manner, and on the like evidence as are described in Article 13.

It is also expressly forbidden to smoke, or allow to be smoked, meat of any kind on board of said craft, under the penalty in the manner levied, and on the evidence above mentioned.

Art. 15. All barges, flat boats, keel boats, or other craft, in which shall be exposed for sale in the part of the port assigned for their accommodation during the said term of twelve days, any produce, goods or merchandise brought on board from a distance less than 100 miles above the cities of New Orleans, excepting sugar, molasses, and cotton, the staples of Louisiana, shall be fined in a sum of not less than $50 nor exceeding $100, the same to be recovered in the manner set forth in Article 13.

Art. 16. In case any person should furnish any false reports relative to the cargoes, owners, or consignees, or the date of such crafts entering the port, or in any manner interfere with, or impede the officers of the several municipalities in the free exercise of the duties devolving on them, said person or persons so contravening shall, on conviction, pay a fine of not less than $20, nor exceeding $100 for each contravention.

Art. 17. It shall be obligatory on the part of captains of vessels and steamers, and also on masters, owners, and keepers of all crafts, flat boats, rafts and floats, to pay the aforesaid duties on board of their respective vessels, a receipt for which shall be delivered to them by the proper officer of each municipality, in order to prove payment thereof, in case any of said vessels, craft, &c. be removed from one division of the port to another.

Art. 18. All the fines imposed by this ordinance shall be for the benefit of the municipality within which any contravention thereof may have been committed; the same to be levied on the evidence of the wharfinger, and if voluntarily paid, the receipt for same shall be given by the treasurer; but if they be resisted, then their recovery shall be effected by and before an authority or court of competent jurisdiction.

Art. 19. It shall be a special duty of the wharfinger for each municipality to make a weekly report to the comptroller thereof, of all and every description of vessels, their tonnage, &c. which may each day enter and moor within the limits of the port under his superintendence; which weekly report shall be carefully filed in the office of said comptroller, for further reference and examination, and in regular rotation of dates.

Art. 20. Be it further ordained, that, from and after ten days' promulgation of this ordinance, the wharfage collectors of the three municipalities shall cause to be kept, by the enrolling clerk at the custom-house, a record book, in which daily entries shall be made of every vessel which may arrive from sea, specifying their names, their masters, consignees, where from, and their tonnage, having three marginal spaces on the right hand, headed Municipality Nos. 1, 2, 3, respectively, which space shall be from time to time filled up with the signatures of the three several wharfage collectors, indicating that they have received the wharfage due to their respective municipalities, by each of whom the expense of procuring and maintaining said book of record, if any, shall be borne and paid in three equal proportions.

Art. 21. Be it also ordained, that, in the event of the resignation or suspension of any officer or officers employed as collectors of any of the branches of the revenues belonging to either of the municipalities, he or they shall be forthwith required to deliver up to the treasurer of the municipality whence his or their appointment was derived, all his or their books, accounts, and vouchers appertaining thereto.

Art. 22. The present ordinance shall be put in force in ten days after its promulgation by the Mayor; and the execution of such dispositions thereof as relate to the police of the port, shall specially belong to the officers appointed by each of the municipalities for this purpose.

Art. 23. All previous ordinances, or parts of ordinances relative to levee dues, and to the police of the port, and which may be at variance with, or opposed to, the provisions of the present ordinance, shall be, and the same are hereby repealed.—(*New Orleans Price Current.*)

The following are the rates imposed on every description of merchandise, by an ordinance of the general council of New Orleans, which was put in execution on the first day of November, 1839.

	Cents.
On each bale of cotton, hay, or moss	6
On each hogshead of sugar	10
On each hogshead of molasses	10
On each hogshead of tobacco	12 1-2
On each 1,000 feet of lumber or 1,000 staves	12 1-2
On each barrel of flour, whiskey, spirits of any kind, beef, pork, potatoes, onions, lime, or other articles packed in barrels, except lead, iron, or other articles of great weight	3
On each cask of bacon, hams, &c.	6
On each ton of pig lead, pig iron, iron and copper nails, iron articles, coal, salt, slates, flag stones, bricks, paving, curb, and gutter stone, stone, bar iron, sand or ballast, or other articles of great weight, computing the ton at 2,000 lbs.	15
On each keg of lard, butter, &c.	1
On each firkin of do.	2
On each piece of bagging, coil bale rope, packing yarn, &c.	2 1-2
On each jack or small trunk of skins, sack of corn, corn meal, oats, bran, or other grain	2 1-2
On each crate of earthen or stone ware	10
On each crate of bottles	5
On each bale of blankets, or articles packed in bales, or cases of the bulk and weight thereof (say 400 lbs.)	6
On each box of tin plates	1
On each bale, box, case, truss, or other package of less weight and dimensions than a bale of blankets, including soap, tin, candles, &c.	4
On each pipe of wine, brandy, or other liquors, exceeding 60 gallons	25
On each cask of wine, brandy, or other liquors, of 60 gallons or less	12 1-2
On each case, basket, or box of wine, cordials, liquors, and oil, containing one dozen bottles	1
On each case, basket, or box of wine, cordials, liquors, oil, &c. containing more than one dozen bottles, then in proportion to that excess (say two cents per dozen).	
On bulk pork, per ton of 2,000 lbs.	15
On each cask of copper	1
On each bag of cotton	1
On each box of sugar	10
On each empty hogshead tierces, bundle of chairs, buckets, &c.	3
On all packages of merchandise, not particularly described in the foregoing tariff, shall be charged with port or wharfage duty as near as may be in conformity with the provisions of this ordinance, and on the scale specified therein, to wit: at the rate of three cents for every four cubic feet.—*Am. Ed.*]	

There were in this city, in 1830, 4 banks, with a capital of 2,000,000 dollars, exclusive of a branch of the Bank of the United States, having a capital of 1,000,000 dollars. The aggregate amount of dividends on bank stock during that year amounted to 542,400 dollars. But one of the banks, having a capital of 2,500,000, had only commenced; and as the whole capital of another bank had not been paid up, the dividend was really the produce of a capital of 6,750,000 dollars; being at the rate of 8·037 per cent. thereon. In April, 1833, there were 10 banks in the city having an aggregate paid up capital of 26,422,145 dollars, exclusive of about 6,000,000 to be paid in. There were, in 1830, 6 insurance companies in the city, having an aggregate capital of 2,400,000 dollars.—*Statement by J. H. Goddard, Esq., New York Daily Advertiser*, 29th of January, 1831; and Letter by the Secretary of the Treasury, 5th of January, 1836.)

For *Monies, Weights, and Measures*, see NEW YORK.

NEWSPAPERS. Publications in numbers, consisting commonly of single sheets, and published at short and stated intervals, conveying intelligence of passing events.

Importance and Value of Newspapers in a Commercial Point of View.—It is foreign to the purposes of this work to consider the moral and political effects produced by newspapers: of the extent of their influence there is no doubt, even among those who differ widely as to its effect. Their utility to commerce is, however, unquestionable. The advertisements they circulate, though these announcements are limited in Great Britain by a heavy duty, the variety of facts and information they contain as to the supply and demand of commodities in all quarters of the world, their prices, and the regulations by which they are affected, render newspapers indispensable to commercial men, supersede a great mass of epistolary correspondence, raise merchants in remote places towards an equality, in point of information, with those in the great marts, and wonderfully quicken all the movements of commerce. But newspapers themselves have become a considerable commercial article in Great Britain. In the year 1830, the produce of the stamp duty, deducting the discount, levied on newspapers, was 410,980*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.* The gross produce of the sale must have been more than double this sum, without allowing for the papers sold at a higher price than 7*d.*; so that the consumption of newspapers must have amounted, in that year, to nearly 1,000,000*l.* sterling.

Newspapers, in London, are sold by the publishers to newsmen or newsvenders, by whom they are distributed to the purchasers in town and country. The newsmen, who are the retailers, receive, for their business of distribution, a regulated allowance. The papers which are sold to the public at 7*d.*, which form the great mass of London newspapers, are sold to the newsmen in what are technically called quires. Each quire consists of 27 papers, and is sold to the newsmen for 13*s.*; so that the newsman's gross profit on 27 papers is 2*s.* 9*d.* In some instances, where newspapers are sent by the post, ½*d.* additional on each paper is charged by the newsmen to their country customers. Some of the clerks at the post-office, called clerks of the roads, are considerable news-agents. The stamp duty on a newspaper is, at present, nominally 4*d.*; but a discount is allowed on those papers which are sold at a price not exceeding 7*d.*, of 20 per cent., which reduces the stamp duty actually paid to 3 1-5*d.* Each paper being sold to the newsman at a little less than 5¾*d.*, the sum which is received by the newspaper proprietors for paper, printing, and the expenses of their establishments, is a small fraction more than 2½*d.* for each copy. Advertisements form a considerable source

of profit to newspapers; and without this source, some of the most widely circulated of them could not support their great expenditure. Each advertisement is now charged, without distinction of length, with a government duty of 1*s.* 6*d.*; but until last year (1833), the duty was 3*s.* 6*d.* In 1832, the advertisements produced 155,400*l.* 16*s.* in Great Britain, and 15,248*l.* 17*s.* 4*d.* in Ireland. We have no means of ascertaining exactly the portion of this sum derived from newspapers, as distinguished from other publications, but we believe we should under-estimate it by taking it at 3-4ths of the whole. The charges of newspapers for advertisements are proportioned to their length, and to the character of the newspaper itself. The sum received for them may now be taken, inclusive of the duty, at 200,000*l.*

Newspaper stamps are obtained at the Stamp Office, where the paper is sent by the stationers to be stamped. The stamps are paid for before the paper is returned. The duty on advertisements, which is also under the management of the commissioners of stamps, is paid monthly; and, for securing these payments, the printer and 2 sureties become bound in moderate sums.

The London newspapers have become remarkable for the great mass and variety of matter which they contain, the rapidity with which they are printed and circulated, and the accuracy and copiousness of their reports of debates. These results are obtained by a large expenditure and considerable division of labour. The reports of parliamentary proceedings are obtained by a succession of able and intelligent reporters, who relieve each other at intervals of ¼ of an hour, or occasionally less. A newspaper cannot aim at copious and correct reports with less than 10 reporters for the House of Commons; and the expense of that particular part of a morning newspaper's establishment exceeds 3,000*l.* per annum.

Regulations as to Newspapers.—The 38 Geo. 3. c. 78. enacts, that no person shall print or publish a newspaper, until an affidavit has been delivered at the Stamp Office, stating the name and places of abode of the printer, publisher, and proprietor; specifying the amount of the shares, the title of the paper, and a description of the building in which it is intended to be printed. A copy of every newspaper is to be delivered within 6 days, to the commissioners of stamps, under a penalty of 100*l.*

The act 39 Geo. 3. c. 79. requires that the name of every printer, type founder, and maker of printing-presses, shall be entered with the clerk of the peace, under a penalty of 20*l.*; and every person selling types or presses must, if required by a justice of the peace, state to whom they are sold.

A printer is bound to print, upon the front of every page printed on one side only, and upon the first and last sheet of every publication containing more than 1 leaf, his name and place of abode. He is also required to keep a copy of every work he prints, on which shall be written or printed the name of his employer; and shall produce the same to any justice, if required, within 6 months.

Persons publishing papers without the name and abode of the printer may be apprehended, and carried before a magistrate; and a peace officer, by a warrant of justice of peace, may enter any place to search for printing presses or types suspected to be kept without the notice required by the act, and may carry them off, together with all printed papers found in the place.

The 1 Geo. 4. c. 9. enacts, that all periodical pamphlets or papers, published at intervals not exceeding 2 days, containing public news, intelligence, or occurrences, or any remarks thereon, and not containing more than 2 sheets, or published for less price than 6*d.*, shall be deemed newspapers, and shall be subject to the same regulations and stamp duties.

Influence of the Tax on Newspapers.—At present it is impossible, without a violation of the stamp laws, to sell newspapers under 7*d.* or 7½*d.*; so that those poorer persons, who cannot afford so large a sum, or who have no means of getting a newspaper, in company with others, are obliged either to be without one, or to resort to those low priced journals that are circulated in defiance of the law. It has been proposed to reduce the duty to 2*d.*; but it may be doubted whether this would be any improvement, and whether the duty be not at present sufficiently low on a paper sold at 7*d.* or upwards. All fixed duties on newspapers seem, however, to be essentially objectionable, inasmuch as, by effectually hindering the free and open circulation of the cheaper sort, they throw their supply into the hands of the least reputable portion of the community, who circulate them surreptitiously, and not unfrequently make them vehicles for diffusing doctrines of the most dangerous tendency. The better way, therefore, would be to assess the duty on newspapers on an *ad valorem* principle, making it, in all cases, 50 per cent., that is, 6*d.* on a newspaper sold at 1*s.*, 1*d.* on one sold at 2*d.*, ½*d.* on one sold at 1*d.*, and so on, proportionally to the price. Several advantages would result from such a plan. It would remove the unjust stigma that now attaches to low-priced papers; and men of talent and principle would find it equally advantageous to write in them as in those of a higher price. Were such an alteration made, it seems probable that the present two-penny papers, than which nothing can be conceived more utterly worthless, would, very soon, be superseded by others of a very different character; and if so, the change would be in the highest degree beneficial. It would also, we apprehend, introduce into newspaper compiling, that division of labour, or rather of subjects, which is found in every thing else. Instead of having all sorts of matters crammed into the same journal, every different topic of considerable interest would be separately treated in a low-priced paper, appropriated to it only, and conducted by persons fully conversant with its principles and details. Under the present omniverous system, individuals who care nothing for the theatre are, notwithstanding, unable to procure a paper in which it does not occupy a prominent place; and those who cannot distinguish one tune from another have daily served up to them long dissertations on concerts, operas, oratorios, and so forth. The proposed system would give the power of selecting. Those who preferred an *olla podrida*

to any thing else, would be sure of finding an abundant supply; while those who wished for a more select regimen—who preferred one or two separate dishes to a multitude huddled together—would be able,—which at present they are not,—to gratify their taste. Neither can there be much doubt that an *ad valorem* duty would be more productive than the present duty; inasmuch as, by legitimatising the circulation of low-priced papers, their number would be prodigiously augmented. It also would have the advantage of being easy of collection; for, being a certain portion of the price, no question could arise with respect to it.

Instead, however, of imposing an *ad valorem* duty on newspapers, it has been proposed to repeal the duty entirely, and to substitute in its stead a post-office duty, similar to that charged in the United States. A scheme of this sort would entirely exempt all newspapers printed and sold in large towns from the duty; a result which, we confess, we do not think is in any respect desirable, but the reverse. In our view of the matter, the object ought not to be to relieve newspapers from the tax, or to create differences in their price by charging a duty only on those carried by post, but to assess the duty so that it should fall equally on them all.

Notices of Newspapers.—The history of newspapers, and of periodical literature in general, remains to be written; and were the task executed by an individual of competent ability, and with due care, it would be a most interesting and important work. It appears, from the researches of Mr. Chalmers, that the first newspaper published in modern Europe made its appearance at Venice, in 1536; but the jealousy of the government would not allow of its being printed; so that, for many years, it was circulated in manuscript! It would seem that newspapers were first issued in England by authority, in 1588, during the alarm occasioned by the approach of the *Armada* to our shores; in order, as was stated, by giving real information, to allay the general anxiety, and to hinder the dissemination of false and exaggerated statements. From this era, newspapers, of one sort or other, have, with a few intermissions, generally appeared in London; sometimes at regular, and sometimes at irregular intervals. During the civil wars, both parties had their newspapers. The earliest newspaper published in Scotland made its appearance under the auspices of Cromwell, in 1652. The Caledonian Mercury was, however, the first of the Scotch newspapers of native manufacture; it made its appearance at Edinburgh, under the title of *Mercurius Caledonius*, in 1660; but its publication was soon afterwards interrupted. In 1715, a newspaper was, for the first time, attempted in Glasgow.

The *Daily Courant*, the first of the daily newspapers published in Great Britain, made its appearance at London in the early part of the reign of Queen Anne.—(See the *Life of Ruddiman*, pp. 102—131.)

From the Stamp Office Accounts, it appears that the number of newspapers sold annually in England, during the 3 years ending with 1753, was 7,411,757; in 1760, 9,464,790; in 1790, 14,035,630; in 1792, 15,005,760.

I. Account of the Aggregate Number of Stamps issued for Newspapers in each of the undermentioned Years; distinguishing the Numbers in England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Years.	England.	Scotland.	Great Britain.	Years.	England.	Scotland.	Great Britain.	Ireland*
1801	15,090,805	994,280	16,085,085	1817	20,946,252	850,816	21,797,063	2,460,401
1802	14,264,289	967,750	15,232,039	1818	21,015,429	1,048,900	22,064,329	2,654,913
1803	15,888,921	1,060,210	16,949,131	1819	21,904,834	1,143,615	23,048,449	2,782,902
1804	16,921,768	1,156,525	18,078,293	1820	25,177,127	1,236,560	26,413,687	2,974,158
1805	17,610,069	1,172,200	18,782,269	1821	23,699,752	1,162,434	24,862,186	2,931,037
1806	19,218,984	1,313,709	20,532,793	1822	22,709,159	1,223,244	23,932,403	3,066,671
1807	20,097,603	1,337,259	21,434,861	1823	23,423,526	1,247,739	24,676,265	3,339,401
1808	20,714,566	1,343,925	22,058,491	1824	24,556,860	1,017,049	25,573,909	3,364,999
1809	22,536,331	1,470,552	24,006,883	1825	25,485,503	1,465,191	26,950,694	3,500,482
1810	22,519,786	1,459,775	23,979,561	1826	25,681,003	1,296,549	26,980,552	3,473,014
1811	22,977,963	1,443,750	24,424,713	1827	25,663,499	1,795,771	27,659,270	3,543,866
1812	23,719,900	1,573,600	25,292,600	1828	26,632,566	2,162,643	28,795,209	3,790,373
1813	24,839,397	1,503,221	26,342,618	1829	26,337,006	2,699,328	29,036,334	3,953,550
1814	24,931,910	1,376,093	26,308,003	1830	27,370,092	3,133,988	30,504,080	4,035,314
1815	23,075,985	1,209,523	24,285,508	1831	30,170,993	3,280,072	33,450,165	4,261,430
1816	21,053,627	996,727	22,050,354	1832	29,427,580	3,264,851	32,692,431	4,518,200
				1833	27,690,929	3,033,392	30,724,321	3,791,000
				1834	27,552,829	3,111,299	30,664,128	4,064,463
				1835	28,490,569	3,024,454	31,515,023	4,290,538

* Until 1817 no distinct account was kept of the stamps issued for newspapers in Ireland.

II. A Return showing the Number of Stamps issued for London Newspapers during the undermentioned Years, ending with 1835.

1825.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
16,910,066	19,765,921	22,048,509	21,432,882	20,247,325	19,159,583	19,417,596

Note.—As a few of the London newspapers are supplied with stamps through stationers (who also procure stamps for the provincial newspapers), the total number of stamps issued for the whole of the London newspapers cannot be furnished.

III. An Account showing the Number of Stamps issued to each of the Provincial Newspapers in England, in the Year ending the 1st of April, 1833, with the duty on Advertisements paid by the same during the Year ending the 5th of January, 1833.—(*Parl. Papers*, Nos. 569. and 524. Sess. 1833.)

Title of Newspaper.	Number of Stamps.	Advertisement Duty.		
		£.	s.	d.
Bath Herald	55,200	411	12	0
Chronicle	47,000	438	15	0
Journal	55,000	460	19	0
and Cheltenham Gazette	59,000	487	7	6
Ber. Stamford	18,000	130	18	0
Berkshire Chronicle	30,450	238	14	6
Berwick Advertiser	27,000	235	16	0
Birmingham Gazette (Aris's)	121,000	1,891	11	6
Journal	118,000	538	5	6
Blackburn Alfred	7,340	35	0	6
Gazette	4,000	130	4	0
Bolton Chronicle	40,000	220	6	6
Boston Gazette	10,000	178	15	6
Brighton Herald	26,000	433	9	6
Gazette	41,000	494	16	0
Guardian	44,000	393	17	6
Bristol Gazette	35,000	445	18	0
Journal	94,000	792	11	6
Mirror	107,150	804	9	6
Mercury	45,287	291	1	0
Times	7,500	47	5	6
Bucks Gazette	20,448	201	12	0
Herald	15,600	160	6	0
Bury Post	73,500	481	12	0
and Suffolk Press	9,000	91	10	0
and Suffolk Herald	19,000	531	3	6
Cambrian	60,100	481	15	0
Cambridge Chronicle	55,050	173	12	0
Carlisle Journal	96,000	240	13	0
Patriot	30,000	225	1	6
Carnarvon Journal	25,200	219	5	6
Cesarvon Herald	19,000	190	4	6
*Chelmsford Chronicle, and Essex Herald	98,000	559	6	0
Cheltenham Chronicle	56,500	547	4	6
Journal	13,000	234	6	6
Chester Chronicle	61,000	509	10	6
Courant	45,000	490	3	6
Chesterfield Gazette	18,000	232	11	6
Colchester Gazette	12,000	86	13	6
Cornubian (Falmouth)	24,000	228	7	6
Cornwall Gazette	50,900	293	16	6
West Briton	82,225	284	0	6
Coventry Herald and Observer	18,000	274	1	0
Mercury	98,100	193	18	0
County Press, Hertford	25,000	244	13	0
Cumberland Pacquet	48,000	539	17	6
Derby Mercury	40,200	218	6	6
Reporter	24,100	296	18	0
Devizes Gazette	38,250	375	0	6
Devonport Telegraph	5,000			
Independent				
*Devonshire Chronicle, North Devon Journal, and Exeter News	23,950	249	6	6
Doncaster Gazette	75,000	580	12	6
Dorchester Journal	60,100	324	9	0
Dorset County Chronicle	47,750	355	12	0
Durham Advertiser	30,000	319	4	0
Chronicle	37,000	335	2	6
Essex Standard	25,800	251	2	6
Independent	28,275	91	14	0
Exeter Flying Post	49,500	480	14	6
and Plymouth Gazette	75,525	625	7	0
Falmouth Packet	20,821	169	11	6
Gloucester Journal	104,300	816	4	0
Halifax Express	21,500	200	11	0
Guardian	8,500			
Hampshire Advertiser, or Southampton Herald	50,000	506	12	6
Telegraph	166,000	801	10	0
Chronicle	67,250	435	12	6
Hereford Journal	72,425	571	18	0
Times	29,850	190	11	6
Hertz Mercury	29,650	218	18	6
Hull Packet	29,000	276	13	6
Advertiser	58,925	544	12	0
Rockingham	35,000	284	18	0
Huntingdon Gazette	25,000	647	10	0
Ipswich Journal	100,000	842	8	6
Kendal Chronicle	12,000	196	0	0
Gazette	78,000	627	0	6
Observer	27,000	31	17	0
Kent Herald	66,000	438	7	6
Lancaster Herald	22,464	120	11	6
Gazette	22,000	194	12	0
Leamington Spa Courier	29,000	306	9	0
*Leeds Intelligencer, and Newcastle Journal	168,750	1,027	19	0
Leeds Times	2,000	1,466	17	6
Mercury	211,000	177	12	6
Patriot	9,000	264	15	6
Leicester Chronicle	43,400	80	3	0
Herald	4,075	580	6	0
Journal	89,500	143	16	0
Lincoln Herald	11,625			
Lincolnshire Chronicle	20,000	23	14	6
Litchfield Mercury	8,750	747	5	0
Liverpool Courier	66,500			
Albion	85,000	1,261	4	6
Mercantile Advertiser	27,750	1,730	15	0
General Advertiser	49,500	1,276	9	0
Mercury	172,500	862	18	0
Saturday Advertiser	10,500	561	11	6
Chronicle	25,000	363	13	6
Journal	77,000			
Standard	37,000	515	0	6
Times	49,000	235	15	0
Macclesfield Courier	87,000	430	13	6
Maidstone Gazette	42,500	438	14	6
Journal	52,950	358	11	6
Manchester Times	185,500	634	7	6
Chronicle	47,250	1,671	1	6
Guardian	183,000	868	7	0
and Salford Advertiser	159,933			
* Courier, and Manchester Herald	122,360			
Merthyr Guardian	10,500			
Monmouthshire Merlin	38,900	285	19	0
Newcastle Chronicle	121,000	622	6	0
Newcastle-upon-Tyne Mercury	33,500	585	12	0
Newcastle Courant	158,475	1,217	13	0
Norfolk Chronicle	96,000	909	16	6
Herald and East Anglian	29,500	291	14	6
Norwich Mercury	86,000	913	16	0
Northampton Mercury	84,000	818	16	6
Free Press	25,500	201	15	6
Herald	36,000	304	13	6
Northumberland Advertiser	13,500	125	16	6
North Devon Advertiser	11,500	81	4	0
Wales Chronicle	17,500	200	2	0
Nottingham Journal	45,000	444	13	6
Review	70,500	375	18	0
and Newark Mercury	44,000	274	11	6
Oxford Herald	46,000	364	17	6
Journal	117,500	877	16	0
Plymouth Herald	26,500	242	2	0
and Devonport Journal	19,500	210	17	6
Portsmouth Herald	56,500	336	0	0
Preston Chronicle	29,000	225	11	6
Pilot	81,000	176	18	6
Reading Mercury	114,700	987	5	6
Rochester Gazette	3,000	57	18	6
Salisbury Journal	150,000	1,070	16	6
Salopian Journal	56,000	619	3	0
Sheffield Independent	35,300	257	8	6
Courant	23,500	211	15	0
Mercury	37,200	334	1	6
Iris	25,000	291	18	0
Sherborne Mercury	47,000	371	14	0
Shrewsbury Chronicle	93,700	682	3	0
Staffordshire Mercury	15,500	154	10	6
Advertiser	135,000	719	12	0
Stamford News	52,500	183	1	0
Mercury	272,500	1,508	7	6
Stockport Advertiser	84,736	197	13	0
Suffolk Chronicle	31,050	653	1	6
Sunderland Herald	19,000	336	7	0
Sussex Advertiser	58,800	577	6	6
Taunton Courier	22,000	267	4	6
Wakefield and Halifax Journal	26,300	155	11	0
Warwick General Advertiser	50,000	409	13	6
Welshman, The	28,300	129	2	0
Western Luminary (Exeter)	31,500	220	3	0
Times (Exeter)	46,500	287	7	0
Westmoreland Advertiser	12,000	103	5	0
Gazette	13,000	99	4	6
Whitehaven Herald	22,000	200	0	6
Wiltshire Standard	2,400			
Windsor Express	34,500	270	10	0
Wolverhampton Chronicle	41,100	408	9	0
Worcester Journal	60,000	606	1	0
Herald	72,000	266	5	6
York Chronicle	16,000	98	5	6
* Herald and York Courant	120,000	995	14	6
Yorkshire Gazette	72,500	543	0	6
Racing Calendar	5,150	19	5	0

Note.—This return is founded upon periodical accounts rendered by stationers, who procure the stamps at this office for newspapers. The papers marked thus * being the property of 1 person, in whose name the stamps are taken out, the number used for each paper cannot be distinguished.

, We extract the following important paragraph from a note by Mr. Wood, the intelligent chairman of the Board of Stamps, subjoined to the *Parl. Paper*, No. 758. Sess. 1833. It shows that the return given above, of the circulation of country newspapers, cannot be much depended upon. Of course, there are no such inaccuracies in the accounts of advertisements:—

"Supposing, however, that the returns had been correct transcripts of the books in this office, it is worthy of remark that they would not have afforded accurate information as to the circulation of newspapers. The circumstances hereinafter detailed will show that such returns must be always incomplete and fallacious.

"In the instance of the London newspapers, the account may approach to tolerable correctness, as the stamps are usually obtained by the parties directly from this office; but it may be observed that these papers borrow from each other, and we have also reason to believe that agents of country papers have been induced by London printers to take out stamps in the name of the latter which were intended for country use; so that, even with regard to the London papers, perfect accuracy cannot be attained.

"But in the case of country papers, still less reliance can be placed on these accounts. The supply of stamps to country papers is effected through London stationers and paper-makers, and sometimes also through country stationers. These persons take out large quantities of stamps, and furnish them, from time to time, to the respective newspapers as required. It is only from the returns made by those stationers that the number of stamps obtained by each country paper are known at this office. The stationers are bound to make these returns, but in general they furnish them with much reluctance and irregularity, and frequently omit them altogether. It is well known

that the Board have no means of detecting or punishing any misstatement, and it is therefore believed that, even when furnished, little regard is paid to accuracy.

"The trouble occasioned at this office ought not to be a consideration, if the returns were really a source of useful and authentic information. But the preceding observations show that no useful results arise; on the contrary, such returns consider collusion resulting from persons whose circulation is under-rated, and on whom passive injury is thus inflicted.

"It is, therefore, worthy of consideration whether similar returns should in future be allowed.

"J. W."

IV. A Return of the Number of Stamps issued by the Stamp Office, for the following London Newspapers, in the Years 1833, 1834, and 1835.

Titles of Newspapers.	1833.	1834.	1835.
Age	661,800	465,750	510,500
Albion and Star	236,000	201,000	261,000
Atlas	127,500	135,000	150,000
Bell's Weekly Messenger	582,500	621,000	630,000
New Weekly Messenger	246,000	247,375	275,000
Bent's Monthly Literary Advertiser	9,150	12,875	13,000
Courier	624,000	568,000	484,500
County Chronicle; County Herald	136,500	130,000	125,000
Court Journal; Naval and Military Gazette	148,000	122,000	107,535
Christian Advocate	72,300	77,914	85,500
Cobbett's Weekly Political Register	72,750	56,304	56,000
Corn Trade Circular	3,250	1,000	
Circular to Bankers	12,000	13,250	15,900
Course of the Exchange	3,750	1,250	900
Examiner	212,125	176,550	176,500
Financial and Commercial Record	3,540	1,250	2,200
Globe and Traveller	1,092,000	1,014,000	915,000
Guardian and Public Ledger; British Traveller; Weekly Times	130,500		
Guardian and Public Ledger	97,000		
General Advertiser for Town and Country		115,000	95,050
John Bull	225,000	264,750	240,500
London Gazette	125,000	130,000	140,000
Mercantile Journal - Mercantile Prices Current ("Price's") - New Prices Current ("Nicholson's")	19,005	29,385	16,050
	4,800	1,500	2,250
	14,031	3,727	66
Literary Gazette	35,550	20,700	28,475
Law Chronicle; Law Gazette	6,050	6,650	5,525
Morning Advertiser	1,175,000	1,164,000	1,220,250
Chronicle; Observer; Englishman; Bell's Life in London	1,568,292	721,997	
Chronicle		338,500	
Chronicle; Evening Chronicle; Evening Herald; English Chronicle			1,353,500
Post	2,602,000	2,612,007	2,240,000
News and Public Ledger	675,000	727,000	660,000
Mark Lane Express; New Farmers' Journal	97,020	154,500	65,450
Mining Journal			
Municipal Corporation Reformer			
News	109,000	94,500	
and Sunday Herald			
Nicholson's Commercial Gazette	34,300	36,775	
New Court Journal	4,250		
Observer; Bell's Life in London		519,000	
Old England - United Service Gazette	22,700	109,000	
United Service Gazette & Surrey Standard	99,500	120,000	
Patriot			
Perry's Bankrupt and Insolvent Gazette	13,225	13,500	
Public Ledger			
Record	264,250	262,100	
Racing Calendar	26,525	25,000	
Standard; St. James's Chronicle; London Packet; London Weekly Journal	1,500,000	1,457,292	
Sun	601,500	560,000	
Sunday Times; Essex and Herts Mercury	385,000	395,000	
Times			
Herald and Merle's Weekly Register	25,000		
Herald	27,000		
Herald and United Kingdom		129,707	
Spectator	106,238	101,500	
Spectator; Municipal Corporation Reformer			
Spectator			
Satirist	136,000	220,500	
Times; Evening Mail	5,671,491	3,365,488	
True Sun; Weekly True Sun	561,000	580,500	
Town	48,880	18,356	
Truth	5,000		
Trade List			
United Kingdom	178,500		
Universal Corn Reporter	11,000	5,075	
Weekly Dispatch	1,515,642	1,434,150	
Dispatch (The New)	26,580		
Dispatch; British Liberator		54,256	
Dispatch; British and American Intelligencer			
Watchman			

N.B. The foregoing are all 4 d. stamps, with the exception of the General Advertiser for Town and Country, and Bent's Monthly Literary Advertiser, which are 2 d.

Where 2 or more papers appear together, they were published by one and the same party, in whose names the stamps were taken out. The number furnished for each paper could not, therefore, be distinguished.

V. An Account of the Sums paid by the Publishers of the following London Newspapers, for the Duty on Advertisements in the Years 1833, 1834, and 1835.

Title of Paper.	1833.	1834.	1835.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Age	564 0 0	349 7 0	337 16 0
Albion	460 11 0	230 15 6	225 3 6
Atlas	390 5 0	249 1 6	243 4 6
Bell's Life in London	185 9 6	109 10 0	150 16 6
British Liberator	59 9 6	1 2 6	
Traveller	204 18 6		
and American Intelligencer			12 1 6
Champion		17 6 6	
Christian Advocate	124 5 6	59 12 6	66 15 0
Cobbett's Register	95 10 6	16 19 0	9 16 0
Commercial Gazette	7 4 6	2 12 0	6 12 0
Record	14 14 6	9 9 0	7 4 0
County Chronicle	470 0 6	244 1 0	245 6 6
Herald	168 9 6	114 0 0	122 15 6
Courier	1,262 0 6	1,165 8 6	1,249 19 6
Court Journal	339 1 0	223 5 6	224 11 0
Course of the Exchange	1 1 0	1 16 0	0 16 6
Englishman	26 12 6	7 14 6	
English Chronicle	24 17 6	24 12 0	20 18 6
Evening Chronicle			71 11 0
Mail	28 17 6	62 6 6	74 3 6
Examiner	215 7 0	205 14 6	216 18 0
General Advertiser		348 1 6	748 11 6
Globe and Traveller	1,648 1 6	1,096 16 0	1,076 9 6
Guardian & Public Ledger	2,573 17 6	783 19 0	
Herts and Essex Mercury	252 8 0	149 5 0	126 0 0
John Bull	690 13 0	382 7 0	419 18 6
Law Chronicle	0 1 6	0 19 6	0 12 0
Literary Advertiser	118 16 0	76 11 6	85 13 0
Gazette	223 18 6	219 0 0	218 5 0
London Gazette	649 8 0	367 17 6	371 14 0
Journal	26 11 6	14 12 6	15 12 0
Mercantile Journal	5 11 6	6 18 0	
Packet	16 3 6	10 15 0	5 11 0
Mark Lane Express	51 19 6	53 12 0	90 10 6
Merle's Weekly Register	75 9 6		
Mining Journal			20 5 0
Morning Advertiser	4,564 6 0	2,795 5 6	2,964 12 0
Morning Chronicle	2,330 0 6	1,527 16 0	1,100 6 6
News		560 9 6	
Herald	5,916 14 0	4,470 3 0	4,704 4 6
Post	4,918 16 6	2,562 4 6	3,075 15 6
Naval & Military Gazette	96 3 0	188 13 0	214 11 6
News	171 18 6	108 19 0	96 3 6
New Court Journal	41 2 6		36 13 6
Farmers' Journal	6 8 6		
Weekly Dispatch		3 16 6	
Weekly Messenger	168 15 6	182 12 6	93 0 6
Observer	501 1 0	118 11 6	139 7 6
Old England	86 3 6	223 12 6	209 1 6
Patriot	201 5 0	70 5 6	59 1 6
Public Ledger		139 1 6	138 0 6
Racing Calendar	102 4 6		1,507 4 6
Record	613 2 0	56 9 6	56 11 6
Satirist	238 6 6	402 19 0	434 1 6
Saint James's Chronicle	600 17 6	178 10 0	244 14 6
Spectator	311 9 0	400 19 0	362 12 6
Standard	1,103 12 0	183 4 6	227 10 6
Survey Standard		923 11 6	1,123 1 6
Stock List	1 17 6	0 16 6	88 6 6
Sun	706 10 0	444 7 6	0 11 0
Sunday Herald	18 11 0	345 19 6	660 19 6
Times	548 19 0	356 17 0	80 0 6
Times	12,555 1 6	9,660 17 6	538 5 6
Town	108 9 0	94 5 6	7,240 2 6
and Country Advertiser			
True Sun	240 9 6	278 11 0	88 16 6
United Kingdom	257 0 6	208 14 0	
Service Gazette	61 15 6	74 11 0	40 16 0
Universal Corn Reporter	0 17 0	2 12 6	2 9 6
Weekly True Sun	113 9 6	125 14 0	43 13 6
Dispatch	551 17 6	309 18 0	283 7 6
Messenger	447 2 0	307 19 0	278 3 6
Times	209 16 6		
World	80 9 0		
Watchman			110 16 6

VI.—An Account of the Nu
the 5th of January, 18

Title of Newspaper.	
Dublin Newspapers:	
Christian Journal	-
Dublin Evening Mail	-
Evening Post	-
Gazette	-
Mercantile Advertiser	-
Evening Packet	-
Evening Freeman	-
Daily Freeman	-
Morning Register	-
Mooney's Circular	-
Observer	-
Pilot	-
Racing Calendar	-
Record	-
Satirist	-
Saunders's News Letter	-
Stewart's Dispatch	-
United Service Journal	-
Warder	-
Weekly Freeman	-
Country Newspapers:	
Antrim:	
Belfast Commercial Chr	
News Letter	-
Northern Whig	-
Guardian	-
Northern Herald	-
Athlone and Westmeath:	
Athlone Independent	-
Sentinel	-
Westmeath Guardian	-
Cork:	
Cork Constitution	-
Evening Herald	-
Southern Reporter	
People's Press	-
Mercantile Chronicle	-
Donegal:	
Ballyshannon Herald	-
Down:	
Newry Telegraph	-
Examiner	
Drogheda:	
Drogheda Journal	-
Argus	-
Fermanagh and Cavan:	
Enniskillen Chronicle	-
Impartial Reporter	-
Enniskilliner	-
Galway:	
Connaught Journal	-
Galway Weekly Adver	

VII. An Account of the Gro
of the und

Years ending 5th of January.	England.	
	£. s. d.	
1811	328,413 10 11	
1812	335,095 6 0	
1813	345,902 1 8	
1814	362,241 4 4	
1815	353,500 0 0	
1816	363,414 3 8	
1817	330 893 15 9	
1818	349,104 4 0	
1819	350,257 3 0	
1820	383,080 11 4	
1821	419 618 15 8	
1822	394,995 17 4	
1823	376 485 19 8	
1824	390,375 8 8	
1825	409 281 0 0	
1826	425,154 10 8	
1827	429,662 15 2	
1828	428,829 9 8	
1829	439,798 8 0	
1830	438,667 10 8	
1831	455,972 10 6	
1832	502,697 19 4	
1833	490,451 6 8	
1834	491,457 3 0	
1835	458,033 16 5	
1836	473,910 12 6	

VI.—An Account of the Number of Stamps issued to each Newspaper in Ireland, respectively, from the 5th of January, 1835, to the 5th of January, 1836.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 146. Sess. 1836.)

Title of Newspaper.	No. of Stamps issued.
Dublin Newspapers.	
Christian Journal	12,500
Dublin Evening Mail	424,624
Evening Post	164,000
Gazette	11,000
Mercantile Advertiser	17,500
Evening Packet	222,500
Evening Freeman	53,500
Daily Freeman	165,500
Morning Register	247,000
Mooney's Circular	3,500
Observer	160,697
Pilot	152,000
Racing Calendar	1,210
Record	28,340
Satirist	60,708
Saunders's News Letter	444,000
Stewart's Dispatch	40,311
United Service Journal	20,835
Warder	109,489
Weekly Freeman	104,000
	2,392,204
Country Newspapers.	
Antrim:	
Belfast Commercial Chronicle	120,000
News Letter	114,000
Northern Whig	88,550
Guardian	69,525
Northern Herald	51,925
Athlone and Westmeath:	
Athlone Independent	6,825
Sentinel	9,100
Westmeath Guardian	5,367
Cork:	
Cork Constitution	150,675
Evening Herald	58,350
Southern Reporter	189,700
People's Press	12,638
Mercantile Chronicle	30,001
Donegal:	
Ballyshannon Herald	7,185
Down:	
Newry Telegraph	62,650
Examiner	59,311
Drogheda:	
Drogheda Journal	25,248
Argus	4,345
Fermanagh and Cavan:	
Enniskillen Chronicle	9,650
Impartial Reporter	10,050
Enniskilliner	6,900
Galway:	
Connaught Journal	3,300
Galway Weekly Advertiser	20,685

Title of Newspaper.	No. of Stamps issued.
***Country Newspapers*—continued.**	
Galway:	
Patriot	14,725
Irishman	1,100
Kerry:	
Kerry Evening Post	9,025
Western Herald	5,900
Tralee Mercury	12,400
Kilkenny and Carlow:	
Kilkenny Journal	18,850
Moderator	22,450
Carlow Morning Post	1,525
Sentinel	15,650
King's and Queen's Counties:	
Leinster Express	22,050
Independent	17,625
Limerick and Clare:	
Limerick Chronicle	174,100
Star and Evening Post	40,000
Evening Herald	9,456
Times	18,975
Clare Journal	11,484
Londonderry:	
Londonderry Sentinel	54,700
Journal	26,490
Mayo:	
Ballina Impartial	6,420
Mayo Constitution	19,755
Telegraph	24,025
Western Star	725
Longford and Roscommon:	
Roscommon Gazette	6,875
Journal	6,349
Sligo:	
Sligo Journal	7,975
Tipperary:	
Clommell Advertiser	18,950
Herald	7,850
Tipperary Free Press	29,750
Constitution	6,000
Tyrone:	
Strabane Morning Post	4,334
Waterford:	
Waterford Chronicle	42,050
Mirror	21,000
Mail	32,575
Wexford:	
Wexford Freeman	16,500
Independent	33,000
Conservative	21,625
	1,000,775
Dublin Newspapers, brought forward	2,392,204
Total	3,392,979

VII. An Account of the Gross Produce of the Duties on Newspapers and Advertisements during each of the undermentioned Years, in England, Scotland, and Ireland.

Years ending 5th of January.	Newspapers.			Advertisements.		
	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.
	L. s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.
1811	928,413 10 11	21,288 7 8	(In those years there was no separate account kept of stamps issued for newspapers in Ireland.)	113,546 19 1	15,041 8 0	15,723 11 7
1812	935,095 6 0	21,054 13 9		114,196 11 5	14,397 9 0	20,479 5 8
1813	845,902 1 8	22,948 6 8		115,875 18 3	14,448 6 0	20,915 5 10
1814	862,461 4 4	21,921 19 7		114,111 12 10	14,623 7 0	21,233 3 11 1-4
1815	873,300 0 0	20,133 7 7		106,575 9 8	13,410 3 0	19,759 17 6
1816	889,414 3 5	20,281 12 10½		110,941 6 6	14,017 7 0	20,475 16 1 1 2
1817	880 893 15 8	16,612 2 4		118,202 3 4	15,353 8 6	18,498 7 5
1818	849,104 4 0	14,180 5 4	18,898 1 2 1-2	116,352 4 11	16,666 13 0	18,191 12 7
1819	850,257 3 0	17,491 13 4	20,210 16 6	119,788 19 4	17,240 6 0	18 535 12 6
1820	865,080 11 4	19,060 5 0	21,187 1 11 3-4	122,227 3 3	16,911 3 6	16,731 1 8 1-4
1821	419 616 15 8	20,509 6 8	22,693 10 10	123,772 15 6	16,416 15 0	15,491 0 0
1822	394,995 17 4	19,373 18 0	22,346 9 7	125,965 17 5	16,095 2 0	15,102 5 0 1-2
1823	379,435 19 8	20,387 8 0	23,556 1 0 1-4	131,288 12 0	17,030 16 6	13,708 7 3 1-4
1824	390,375 8 8	20,795 13 0	25 448 2 5	125,475 5 7	16,020 11 0	14,524 3 3 1-4
1825	409 291 0 0	22,387 9 4	25,693 13 6 1-2	134,683 19 3½	17,825 17 0	16,426 10 9
1826	423,154 10 8	24,419 17 0	26,659 9 3 1-2	144,791 2 6½	18,708 18 0	15,807 15 0
1827	428,662 15 2	22,018 6 4	25,137 11 9 1 4	135,627 7 2	17,779 13 0	15,720 0 0
1828	428,629 9 8	23,929 10 4	25,581 3 11 1 4	133,978 16 11	18,400 14 6	14,379 17 6
1829	439,798 8 0	23,556 2 8	27,330 16 8	136,368 17 10	17,933 12 5	15,532 15 0
1830	439,667 10 8	42,301 6 0	28,578 16 7 1 4	136,052 18 10	17,522 5 7	14,985 6 0
1831	455,972 10 6	49,466 10 0	29,380 18 3 3-4	137,915 19 4	19,566 8 0	16,357 14 0
1832	502,697 19 4	52,090 15 2	31,846 16 3	137,858 13 9	19,080 0 0	15,672 10 2
1833	490,451 6 8	51,485 14 8	30,513 9 6 1-2	137,122 10 0	18,276 6 0	15,248 17 4
1834	481,457 3 0	48,100 14 0	31,591 13 5	114,506 2 2	16,191 4 4	12,240 2 4
1835	458,033 16 5	49,339 19 8	29,782 7 9 1-2	73,308 1 6	10,114 16 2	8,130 14 8
1836	473,910 12 6	47,999 4 8	31,287 6 11	77,853 2 9	10,587 17 0	8,468 12 2

VIII. An Account of the Number of Stamps issued to each of the Newspapers and Advertising Papers in Scotland, in the Year 1835; also, an Account of the Amount of Advertisement Duty paid in the same Year by each Paper.

Names of Papers.	Number of Stamps issued to each Paper.	Advertisement Duty paid by each Paper.	Names of Papers.	Number of Stamps issued to each Paper.	Advertisement Duty paid by each Paper.
		£. s. d.			£. s. d.
Edinburgh:—			Glasgow:—		
Courant	231,000	823 2 6	Courier	96,500	
Mercury	92,500	303 6 0	†Journal		587 7 0
Advertiser	114,000	283 0 6	†Chronicle	50,500	11 0 6
Gazette	7,000	114 19 6	Herald	204,500	184 16 6
Journal	75,000	188 17 0	**Free Press	21,600	928 17 6
Chronicle	35,790	103 10 6	True Free Press		139 19 0
Scotsman	171,670	392 2 0	Scots Times	23,500	32 8 0
Observer	25,600	178 11 6	* Sat. Even. Post		144 0 0
N. B. Advertiser	289,000	1,135 16 6	Liberator	55,475	30 16 6
Sat. Even. Post	51,200	190 0 0	Scottish Guardian	92,900	104 8 0
Patriot	56,230	79 10 0	Argus	72,000	159 18 0
Constitution	12,000	63 0 0	††Weekly Reporter		983 11 6
Grey's Mon. Record		131 2 6	Liberal	1,000	22 2 6
* Aikman's Advertiser		4 10 0	Constitutional	10,500	9 1 0
Aberdeen:—			Greenock:—		63 4 6
Journal	96,000	505 8 6	Intelligencer	19,750	
**Herald		168 13 0	Advertiser	28,500	197 19 0
Observer	21,000	145 7 0	Inverness:—		140 0 0
Advertiser	15,000	89 15 6	Journal	24,500	
Ayr:—			Courier	31,000	197 18 6
Advertiser	42,000	120 7 6	Kelso:—		148 11 6
Observer	33,250	94 1 0	Mail	42,600	
Dumfries:			Chronicle	25,200	179 13 6
Times	21,000	62 10 6	Kilmarnock:—		64 11 6
Courier	72,500	197 7 0	Journal	15,250	
Herald and Advertiser	20,525	54 7 0	Montrose:—		87 19 6
	54,100	65 3 6	Review	30,000	
Dundee:—			Paisley:—		169 6 0
Advertiser		226 0 0	Advertiser	20 000	
Chronicle	21,500	96 16 6	Perth:—		95 1 0
Courier	10,000	138 11 6	Courier	21,600	
Guardian	8,000	56 1 6	Advertiser	38,500	123 19 6
Elgin:—			Constitutional	17,000	127 17 0
Courant	13,000	83 0 6	Stirling:—		78 12 0
Fife:—			Journal and Advertiser	28,000	
Herald	29,000	91 7 0			99 1 6
Journal	19,000	71 15 6			
				2,675,630	10,397 7 6

* Not subject to stamp duty. ** Stamps supposed to have been purchased in London.
Papers marked thus † belong to the same proprietors, and the stamps used by each cannot be distinguished.
Stamps used by papers marked †† cannot be ascertained.

The increase of newspapers in Great Britain, though it is shown by these documents to have been pretty considerable, has been materially repressed by the mode in which the stamp duty has been assessed. The circulation of the Parisian daily papers much exceeds that of the London journals; a result which can only be ascribed to their greater cheapness.

American Newspapers.—The increase of newspapers in the United States has also been a good deal more rapid than in England; a consequence, partly, no doubt, of the greater increase of population in the Union, but more, probably, of their freedom from taxation, and of the violence of party contests. The total number of newspapers annually issued in the Union has been estimated at from 55,000,000 to 60,000,000, while the total number issued in Great Britain and Ireland, in 1833 (see No. I.) was only 34,515,221; so that, making allowance for the difference of population, every individual in America has, at an average, more than twice the supply of newspapers enjoyed by individuals in England. "From this exuberant supply of daily and weekly papers, and the low price charged as compared with the English and French newspapers, they are liberally patronised by all classes, and are found in almost every dwelling and counting house, and in all hotels, taverns, and shops; and attract a large share of the public attention. As the paths of honour and promotion are alike open to every one, it follows that public discussion forms the principal staple of the newspapers. There is no country where the press has a more powerful influence over public opinion."—(*Picture of New York*, p. 391.)

We are not, however, to estimate the influence of newspaper literature by its quantity only, but must have regard also to its *quality*. The latter is, indeed, the principal thing to be attended to; and in whatever degree the Americans may exceed us in the number, they certainly are immeasurably below us in the quality, of their newspapers. Speaking generally, we do not hesitate to say that the newspaper press is a disgrace to the Union. The journals indulge, with few exceptions, in the most offensive personalities. Instead of examining the principles of the measures brought forward, they assail the character and misrepresent the motives of those by whom they are introduced. It is impossible, we believe, to name an individual, who has attained to any high office in the United States, or to consideration in Congress, who has not been libelled, traduced, and calumniated by a large portion of the press, to a degree that can hardly be imagined. The magnitude of the evil will, probably, lead to its cure. An intelligent and well instructed people cannot, surely, continue to patronise a press whose principal features are misrepresentation, exaggeration, and abuse

The following Table contains a Statement of the Number of Newspapers published in the United States at the Commencement of the Revolutionary War, and the Number of Newspapers and other Periodical Works published in the same in 1810 and 1828.

States.	1775.	1810.	1828.	States.	1775.	1810.	1828.
Maine	-	-	29	Georgia	1	13	18
Massachusette	7	32	78	Florida	-	1	2
New Hampshire	1	12	17	Alabama	-	-	10
Vermont	-	14	21	Mississippi	-	4	6
Rhode Island	2	7	14	Louisiana*	-	10	9
Connecticut	4	11	33	Tennessee	-	6	8
New York	4	66	161	Kentucky	-	17	23
New Jersey	-	8	23	Ohio	-	14	66
Pennsylvania	9	71	185	Indiana	-	-	17
Delaware	-	2	4	Michigan	-	-	2
Maryland	2	21	37	Illinois	-	-	4
District of Columbia	-	6	9	Missouri	-	-	5
Virginia	2	23	34	Arkansas	-	-	1
North Carolina	2	10	20	Cherokee nation	-	-	1
South Carolina	3	10	16				
				Total	37	358	802

(An important alteration was made in 1836, in the duties on, and in the regulations relating to, newspapers. The act 6 and 7 *Will.* 4 cap. 76. has repealed the former duty on newspaper stamps (see *ante*, p. 221.), and has imposed in its stead the duties specified in the following schedule:—

	L.	*s.*	*d.*
For every sheet or other piece of paper whereon any newspaper shall be printed	0	0	1
And where such sheet or piece of paper shall contain on one side thereof, a superficies, exclusive of the margin of the letter-press, exceeding 1,850 inches, and not exceeding 2,295 inches, the additional duty of	0	0	0½
And where the same shall contain on one side thereof a superficies, exclusive of the margin of the letter-press, exceeding 2,29 inches, the additional duty of	0	0	1
Provided always that any sheet or piece of paper containing on one side thereof a superficies, exclusive of the margin of the letter-press, not exceeding 765 inches, which shall be published with, and as a supplement to, any newspaper chargeable with any of the duties aforesaid, shall be chargeable only with the duty of	0	0	0½

And the following shall be deemed and taken to be newspapers chargeable with the said duties; viz.—

Any paper containing public news, intelligence, or occurrences printed in any part of the United Kingdom to be dispersed and made public:

Any paper printed in any part of the United Kingdom weekly or oftener, or at intervals not exceeding 26 days, containing only or principally advertisements:

And also any paper containing any public news, intelligence, or occurrences, or any remarks or observations therein, printed in any part of the United Kingdom for sale, and published periodically or in parts or numbers at intervals not exceeding 26 days between the publication of any 2 such papers, parts, or numbers, where any of the said papers, parts, or numbers respectively shall not exceed 2 sheets of the dimensions hereinafter specified (exclusive of any cover or blank leaf, or any other leaf upon which any advertisement or other notice shall be printed), or shall be published for sale for a less sum than 6*d.*, exclusive of the duty by this act imposed thereon: provided always that no quantity of paper less than a quantity equal to 21 inches in length and 17 inches in breadth, in whatever way or form the same may be made or may be divided into leaves, or in whatever way the same may be printed, shall, with reference to any such paper, part, or number as aforesaid, be deemed or taken to be a sheet of paper:

And provided also, that any of the several papers herein-before described shall be liable to the duties by this act imposed thereon, in whatever way or form the same may be printed or folded, or divided into leaves or stitched, and whether the same shall be folded, divided, or stitched, or not:

Exemptions.—Any paper called "Police Gazette, or Hue and Cry," published in Great Britain by authority of the Secretary of State, or in Ireland by the authority of the Lord Lieutenant.

Daily accounts or bills of goods imported and exported, or warrants or certificates for the delivery of goods, and the weekly bills of mortality: and also papers containing any list of prices current, or of the state of the markets, or any account of the arrival, sailing, or other circumstances relating to merchant ships or vessels, or any other matter wholly of a commercial nature; provided such bills, lists, or accounts do not contain any other matter than what hath been usually comprised therein.

Regulations, &c.—A discount of 25 per cent. is to be allowed on the above duties on newspapers printed in Ireland.—§ 2.

In order to prevent fraud, in the returns as to newspapers, it is enacted, that, from the 31st of December, 1836, a separate or distinctive stamp or die shall be used for each newspaper.—§ 3.

No person is to print or publish a newspaper until after a declaration has been made and lodged at the Stamp-Office, containing certain particulars (specified in the act), as to the names and addresses of the printer, and certain of the proprietors of such paper, &c., under a penalty of 50*l.* Persons wilfully making a false or defective declaration are, upon conviction, to be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor.—§§ 6, 7.

There are a number of regulations intended to provide for the discovery and liability of the printer and proprietors, the security of the duties, and the prevention of the sale of unstamped papers. A penalty of 20*l.* is imposed on any person printing, publishing, selling, &c., newspapers not duly stamped; and it is declared to be lawful for any officer of stamps, or any person authorised by the commissioners in that behalf, to seize any such offender, and take him before any justice having jurisdiction where the offence is committed, who shall summarily determine the matter, and upon conviction and default of payment, shall commit such offender to prison for some term not exceeding 3, nor less than a calendar month.—§ 17.

Penalty for sending abroad newspapers not duly stamped, 50*l.*—§ 18.

Justices may grant warrants to search for unstamped newspapers, and to seize presses, &c. used in printing the same; and on refusal of admittance, officers may break open doors, &c. Persons resisting officers liable to a penalty of 20*l.*—§§ 22, 23.

Influence of the Reduction of the Duty.—The duty which formerly amounted, deducting the discount, to 3 1-5*d.* (see *ante*, p. 220.), being now reduced to 1*d.*, the price of the great majority of the London newspapers has been reduced from 7*d.* to 5*d.* Provincial papers, which are got up at comparatively little expense, are now sold generally at 4½*d.* or 4*d.*; and this, also, is the case with one or two of the metropolitan journals. The newsman's profit on selling a quire, or 27 papers, at 7*d.*, used to be 2*s.* 9*d.*, it is now on the 4*d.* papers, 2*s.* 3*d.*

The reduction of the price has occasioned a considerable increase in the demand for the old or established papers; and a considerable number of new weekly papers have also started into existence since the reduction of the duty in the metropolis and throughout the country.

* For some curious details with respect to newspapers in Louisiana, see Mr. Stuart's *Three Years in America*, vol. ii. p. 210.—the most instructive and trustworthy of all the recent works on the United States.

Hitherto, however, no new daily paper has been established. The preceding Tables exhibit the circulation of each of the principal papers, and the total consumption of stamps, in each of the three years ending with 1835; and will, consequently, serve as standards by which to measure the precise influence of the late change on the demand for each paper. The general influence of the new system is seen in the subjoined table.

If it were proper to reduce the duty, and to preserve it at a uniform level, the new arrangements are, perhaps, as unexceptionable as any that could be devised. But we are not sure that the better way would not have been to have assessed the duty on an *ad valorem* principle, making it, in all cases, a certain aliquot part of the price.

A Return of the Number of Newspapers to which Stamps were issued, and of the Number of Stamps issued to Newspapers, in the Years ending 15th September, 1836 (when the former System terminated) and 1837, and the Half Year ending 15th March, 1838; distinguishing the Number issued to London Newspapers, to English Provincial Newspapers, and to Irish and Scotch Newspapers respectively, and showing the Total Number and Amount each Year; also, the Amount of Newspaper Stamp Duty received in each of the above Periods.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 307. Sess. 1838.)

	Year ending 15th September, 1836.			Year ending 15th September, 1837.			Half Year ending 15th March, 1838.		
	Number of Newspapers.	Number of Stamps issued.	Amount of Duty.	Number of Newspapers.	Number of Stamps issued.	Amount of Duty.	Number of Newspapers.	Number of Stamps issued.	Amount of Duty.
			£. s. d.			£. s. d.			£. s. d.
London Newspapers	71	19,241,640	256,556 0 0	65	29,172,797	121,553 6 5	66	14,438,556	60,160 13 4
English Provincial do.	194	8,535,396	113,804 16 0	227	14,996,113	62,483 16 1	223	7,366,643	30,695 5 0
Scotch do.	64	2,654,439	35,392 10 2	65	4,123,350	17,180 10 10	66	2,216,409	9,235 0 0
Irish do.	78	5,144,582	57,525 2 0	71	5,203,967	16,963 3 11	62	2,620,181	8,197 8 5
Total	397	35,576,056	413,278 8 2	458	53,496,207	217,180 17 3	497	26,641,979	108,288 4 10

Sep.)

[The number of newspapers, magazines, and other periodicals published in the United States, as appears from returns made to the Post Office Department in 1839, is as follows:

Maine,	41	Florida Territory,	9
New Hampshire,	26	Alabama,	34
Vermont,	31	Mississippi,	36
Massachusetts, (at Boston 65)	194	Louisiana, (at New Orleans 10)	26
Rhode Island,	14	Arkansas,	4
Connecticut,	31	Tennessee,	50
New York, (at New York city 71)	274	Kentucky,	31
New Jersey,	39	Ohio, (at Cincinnati 27)	164
Maryland, (at Baltimore 20)	48	Michigan,	31
Pennsylvania, (at Philadelphia 71)	253	Wisconsin Territory,	5
Delaware,	3	Iowa Territory,	3
District of Columbia, (at Washington 11)	16	Indiana,	69
Virginia, (at Richmond 10)	52	Illinois,	33
North Carolina,	30	Missouri,	25
South Carolina,	20		
Georgia,	33		1,555

Of the above, 116 are published daily, 14 tri-weekly, 30 semi-weekly, and 991 once a week. The remainder are issued semi-monthly, monthly, and quarterly, principally magazines and reviews. Many of the daily papers also issue tri-weekliles, semi-weeklies, and weeklies. Thirty-eight are in the German language, four in the French, and one in the Spanish. Several of the New Orleans papers are printed in French and Spanish.—*Am. Ed.*]

NEW YORK, the capital of the state of that name, and the commercial metropolis of the United States, in lat. 40° 42′ N., lon. 74° 8′ W. It is situated on the southern extremity of Manhattan Island, at the point of confluence of the Hudson river, which separates Manhattan from New Jersey, with East River, which separates it from Long Island. New York bay, or inner harbour, is one of the most capacious and finest in the world; it is completely land-locked, and affords the best anchorage. The entrance to the bay through the Narrows is extremely beautiful. On each side, the shore, though wooded down to the water's edge, is thickly studded with farms, villages, and country seats. At the upper end are seen the spires of the city; and in the distance the bold precipitous banks of the Hudson. From New York to the bar between Sandy Hook Point and Schryer's Island (the division between the outer bay or harbour and the Atlantic) is about 17 miles. Fortifications have been erected at the Narrows, Governor's Island, and other places, for the defence of the city and shipping. The wood-cut on the opposite page represents the city and bay of New York, and the surrounding country.

The Hudson river was first explored in 1609, by the famous English navigator whose name it bears, then in the service of the West India Company of Holland. In 1612, New Amsterdam, now New York, was founded by the Dutch, as a convenient station for the fur trade. In 1664, it was taken by the English. The Dutch again recovered possession of it in 1673; but it was retaken by the English in the following year, and continued in their occupation till the termination of the revolutionary war.

New York has increased faster than any other city in the United States. In 1699, it contained 6,000 inhabitants. In 1774, previously to the commencement of the war of independence, the population amounted to 22,750. During the war, the population continued stationary; but since 1783, its increase has been quite extraordinary. In 1790, the popula-

tion amounted to 33,131; in 1800, to 60,489; in 1810, to 96,373; in 1820, to 123,706; and in 1830, to above 213,000! Originally the houses were mostly of wood, and the streets narrow and confined. In these particulars, however, a great improvement has taken place during the last half century; most of the old houses having been pulled down, and rebuilt with brick. The new streets, which are broad, and intersect each other at right angles, are well paved and lighted. Broadway, the principal street, is one of the largest and finest in the world. Many of the public buildings are commodious and elegant. The pools, that were formerly abundant in the city and its vicinity, have been completely filled up; a measure that has done much to improve the health of the population. In respect of cleanliness, however, New York is not to be compared with an English town. There is hardly such a thing as a sink or common sewer in the whole city: the night-soil and filth are collected in pits, of which there is one in every house, and, being conveyed to the nearest quay, are thrown into the water; but as these quays are made of timber, with many projections, a great deal of filth is retained about them, producing, in hot weather, an abominable stench. The yellow fever, by which New York is sometimes visited, uniformly breaks out in the lower and dirtiest part of the town; and seldom, indeed, extends to the new and more elevated streets. It is now much less prevalent than formerly; and the general opinion seems to be, that if stones were substituted for timber in the quays, sewers constructed, and proper regulations enforced as to cleanliness, the scourge would entirely disappear.



Entrance to Harbour, Light-houses, &c.—The course in entering the harbour of New York is nearly due W. from the outermost white buoy on the bar, till the buoy on the S.W. point of the east bank be passed, and then nearly due N. The navigation is extremely easy. Pilots generally board while without the bar; for, otherwise, they are only entitled to half fees. Were it not for fear of violating insurances, their services would seldom be required—(See *Rates of Pilotage, post.*) The light-house near the extremity of the long, low, narrow tongue of land, projecting from the New Jersey shore, called Sandy Hook, is in lat. 40° 28′ N., lon. 74° 0′ W. It is fitted up with a very powerful fixed light,

which, in clear weather, may be seen by vessels coming from the westward 10 leagues off. But, from its position, it is not readily discovered by ships coming from the S. till too near. To obviate this inconvenience, a floating light was moored about 7 miles E. from Sandy Hook Point. In 1828, however, 2 light-houses were erected on Neversink hills, nearly 4 miles S. by E. from Sandy Hook. They are 300 feet apart; the most northerly being furnished with a fixed, and the other with a revolving light, both of great power. The lights are elevated 250 feet above the level of the sea; and may be seen, in clear weather, in all directions, from 40 to 50 miles. Since they were fitted up, the floating light has been discontinued. Vessels load and unload at the wharfs on both sides the city.

New York is indebted, for her wonderful increase, to her admirable situation, which has rendered her the greatest emporium in the New World. The rise of the tide is about 6 feet; and even at ebb, there is 21 feet water on the bar; and the water in the outer and inner bays, and in the river, is so deep, that ships of the largest burden lie close to the quays, and may proceed to a great distance up the river. The navigation of the bay is but rarely impeded by ice. The great strength of the tide, and the vicinity of the ocean, keep it generally open, even when the Chesapeake and Delaware bays are frozen over. The influence of the tides is felt in the Hudson as far as Troy, 160 miles above New York, affording very peculiar facilities for its navigation. These natural advantages have been vastly extended by a system of canalisation, which has already connected the Hudson with Lake Ontario and Lake Erie; and which, when completed, will connect it with the Ohio river, and consequently with the Mississippi and the Gulf of Mexico! So prodigious a command of internal navigation is not enjoyed by any other city, with the exception of New Orleans; but the readier access to the port of New York, the greater salubrity of the climate, and her situation in the most industrious part of the Union, where slavery is abolished, give her advantages over her southern rival, which, it is most probable, will secure her continued preponderance.

Trade, &c.—The commerce of New York is very extensive. The value of the merchandise annually loaded and unloaded in the port is estimated at from 100,000,000 to 120,000,000 dollars. The number of vessels in the port in the busy season varies from 500 to 750, exclusive of about 50 steam packets. The number of arrivals from foreign ports amounted in 1832 to 1,808; and the coasting arrivals are between 4,000 and 5,000. The total value of the imports into the United States in the year ending the 30th of September, 1832, was 101,029,266 dollars; of which no less than 53,214,402, or more than the half, were imported into New York! The customs revenue on the goods paying duties, imported into this city, amounts to about 13,000,000 dollars, while the total customs revenue of the United States seldom exceeds 22,000,000 dollars. The imports comprise an infinite variety of articles. The principal are cottons, woollens, linens, hardware, cutlery; earthenware, brass and copper manufactures, &c. from Great Britain; silk, wine, brandy, &c. from France and Spain; sugar and coffee from the Havannah and Brazil; with tea, spices, cochineal, indigo, dye woods, &c. The value of the exports from New York in the year ending the 30th of September, 1832, amounted to 26,000,945 dollars, being between $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{1}{4}$ part of the total exports from the United States. The exports principally consist of wheat flour, corn, rice, and cotton; beef, pork, butter, dried fish, and all sorts of provisions; furs, tobacco, coarse manufactured goods, lumber, &c. The great excess of the imports into New York over the exports is accounted for by the fact, that, while mostly all articles of export from the Western States are shipped at New Orleans, the greater part of the more valuable articles brought from abroad, and destined for the consumption of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and, in some degree, even Kentucky, are principally imported into New York.

The tonnage of New York is greater than that of Liverpool, or any other city, with the single exception of London. The registered tonnage belonging to the port on the last day of December, 1831, amounted to 122,458 tons, and the enrolled and licensed tonnage to 163,980 tons; making a grand total of 286,438 tons, being between $\frac{1}{4}$ and $\frac{1}{5}$ of the whole tonnage of the United States.

Account of the Quantities of some of the principal Articles of Native American Produce exported from New York during each of the Three Years ending with the 1st of January, 1833.

Articles.	1830.	1831.	1832.
Ashes, pot - - - - barrels	19,613	19,393	18,241
pearl - - - - —	4,152	5,694	2,356
Beef - - - - - —	15,029	17,913	17,333
Pork - - - - - —	13,085	20,147	29,418
Lard - - - - - - kegs	14,136	24,885	11,101
Butter - - - - - - —	6,761	12,282	9,286
Cotton - - - - - bales	101,940	118,502	108,741
Cotton goods - - - - packages	5,306	3,030	7,545
Flour (wheat) - - - - barrels	304,352	437,104	195,614
Corn - - - - - bushels	174,183	245,368	93,716
Rice - - - - - tierces	13,372	15,205	16,678
Tar - - - - - barrels	19,397	18,879	18,537
Turpentine - - - - - —	102,441	121,769	144,878
Hides - - - - - number	- -	- -	169,403
Whale oil - - - - - gallons	- -	- -	1,392,600
Soap - - - - - boxes	- -	- -	76,981
Tobacco - - - - hogsheads	8,088	7,815	7,783

***Shipping.*—Arrivals from, and Departure for, Foreign Ports, in 1831.**

Flags.	Arrived.		Departed.		Flags.	Arrived.		Departed.	
	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.		No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.	No. of Vessels.	Tonnage.
British - -	278	41,758	273	31,716	Hayti - -	2	330	2	330
United States -	1,294	306,529	1,275	265,205	Brazil - -	2	134	2	134
France - -	25	6,710	22	3,228	Genoa - -	1	260	still in port.	
Spain - -	8	1,762	7	1,076	Russia - -	1	260	1	260
Netherlands -	1	260	1	170	Mexico - -	1	260	1	260
Germany - -	10	2,798	7	2,042	Denmark - -	18	3,709	16	2,003
Holland - -	2	315	2	315					
Hanse Towns -	1	260	1	260	Total -	1,658	368,684	1,622	316,472
Sweden - -	14	3,339	12	2,473					

The arrivals in 1834, from foreign ports, were, ships, 496; barques, 119; brigs, 886; schooners, 425; sloops, 6; being, in all, 1,932. Of these there were, American, 1,486; British, 303; French, 27; Dutch, Hamburgh, and Bremen, 33; Swedish, 28; Spanish, 18; Danish, 11, &c. By far the greater part of the British ships are from our colonies in North America and the West Indies.

Regulations as to Passengers arriving at New York.—On the arrival of passengers, an entry must be made at the Custom-house of their names, clothes, implements of trade or profession (all of which are exempt from duty), and an oath taken respecting them; the form of which, and the entry, may be had at the office gratis. Cabin passengers make this entry themselves, and pay 20 cents each for a permit; on exhibiting which to the officer on board, they are allowed to move their baggage after it has been inspected. Only 1 entry and permit is necessary for a *family*, and only 20 cents demanded, whatever may be the number of the family. Remains of sea stores, such as tea, sugar, foreign spirits and wines, are liable to pay duties; but unless these are of great bulk or quantity, they are generally allowed to pass free.

An entry is usually made by the master of the vessel of steerage passengers and their baggage: they pay each 20 cents for a permit. When entry is made by any person not the owner, he gives bond for payment of duties, if any; and if, after entry is made at the Custom-house, and the oath taken, any article is found belonging to a passenger, liable to pay duty, *not specified in the entry*, it is forfeited, and the person in whose baggage the article is found subjected in treble the value.

Besides making entry at the Custom-house, it is provided by a law of the State, that every master of a vessel arriving from a foreign country, or from any other port of the United States, "shall within 24 hours after entering his vessel at the Custom-house, make a report in writing, on oath, to the mayor, and in case of his sickness or absence to the recorder of the said city, of the name, age, and occupation of every person who shall have been brought as passenger in such ship or vessel on her last voyage, upon pain of forfeiting, for every neglect or omission to make such report, the sum of 75 dollars for every alien, and the sum of 50 dollars for every other person neglected to be so reported as aforesaid."

Masters of ships bringing passengers to New York must also pay a dollar on account of each passenger to the corporation, as commutation money, or give bond that none of them shall become chargeable on the city poor rates for the space of 2 years. They almost uniformly prefer paying the commutation. The number of immigrants arriving at New York from the British Islands, and from all places, in the undermentioned years, was as follows:—

Years.	From England.	From Ireland.	From Scotland.	Total British Isles.	From all Parts.
1828	6,631	6,197	2,717	15,547	
1829	8,110	2,443	948	11,501	16,064
1830	16,352	3,497	1,584	21,433	30,294
1831	13,808	6,721	2,078	22,607	31,739
1832	18,947	6,050	3,286	28,283	48,589
1833	Particulars not specified.			16,100	41,752
1834				26,540	48,110
1835				16,749	

Lines of Packets.—The establishment of regular lines of packets from New York to foreign ports, and also to every principal port in the United States, has produced a new era in the commerce of the city, and redounded equally to the benefit of the enterprising individuals by whom they were projected, and the public. The principal intercourse is carried on with Liverpool; there being about 20 packet ships, distributed in 4 lines, employed at present (1836) in maintaining a regular communication with that port. A dozen packet ships are also employed in the trade between New York and London; and 15 in the trade between New York and Havre. These ships vary in size from 450 tons, the burden of the smallest, to 800 tons. Their tonnage has latterly been increasing; and, at an average, it may now be estimated at about 600 tons. These ships are all American property, and built chiefly in New York. They are probably the finest and fastest sailing merchant vessels in the world; being beautifully modelled, of the best workmanship, and fitted up with every convenience for passengers, and in the most expensive style. The safety, regularity, and expedition with which they perform their voyages is quite astonishing. The average length of a voyage from Liverpool and Portsmouth to New York, may be estimated at about 34 days, and, from the latter to the former, at about 20 days. The Independence, of 730 tons, Captain Nye, made the voyage from New York to Liverpool, in the course of the present year, in 14 days; and the Toronto of 650 tons, Captain Griswold, made the voyage from New York to Portsmouth in the same time. And it is material to observe, that these voyages are not reckoned from land to land, but from *port to port*.

The packet ships from New York sail from London on the 7th, 17th, and 27th; and from Portsmouth, or rather Cowes, at which place they touch, on the 1st, 10th, and 20th of each month.

Those bound for New York from Liverpool, sail on the 1st, 8th, 16th, and 24th of each month; those bound for New York from Havre sail on the same days as those from Liverpool.

Cabin passage to New York from London and Liverpool 35 guineas; from New York to London and Liverpool 140 dollars; a cabin passage to New York from Havre 140 dollars, from New York to Havre, the same. This includes provisions, wines, beds, &c., so that the passengers have no occasion to provide any thing except personal apparel.

Each ship has a separate cabin for ladies; each state-room, in the respective cabins, will accommodate *two* passengers; but a *whole* state room may be secured for 1 individual by paying at the rate of 1½ passage, that is, 52½ guineas to New York.

Packets for *Philadelphia* sail from Liverpool on the 8th and 20th of every month throughout the year; and 4 of these ships sail *from* Philadelphia for Liverpool on the 20th of each month; the others do not

always return *direct* for Liverpool, but sometimes go to Charleston, Savannah, &c., to bring cargoes of produce to Liverpool.

Cabin passage same as that to and from New York.

These ships, 8 in number, are all American built and owned, and average about 500 tons burden; some of them are as splendid as the New York packets, and are all fitted up with every regard to comfort.

Three American packet ships are employed in the trade between New York and the Clyde; and an American packet ship sails from Liverpool for Boston twice every month.

The rate of *steerage* passage varies, in the course of the year, considerably; depending on the number of ships and the number of passengers going at the time. By the packet ships it fluctuates from 3 to 6 guineas for each full-grown person; and children under 14 years are taken at half-price. By other ships the rate of steerage passage varies, at Liverpool, from 1*l.* 10*s.* to 5*l.*; being sometimes reduced, by competition, so low as 30*s.*; but the *average* rate may be taken at 4*l.* For these rates, the ship provides nothing but berths, fire, and water; the passengers provide their own provisions, bedding, &c. The expense of provisions for a poor person, who might wish to be as economical as possible, for the voyage out to the United States, would not be more than from 40*s.* to 50*s.*

The *cabin* passage by the common traders (and many of them are quite equal to the packets in equipment and safety) varies from 15*l.* to 25*l.*; no wines being provided by the ships at these rates, but provisions, bedding, malt liquor, and spirits.

The rates of *freight* to New York, are—

	By Packets.	By other Ships.
	L. s. d. *L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.* *L. s. d.*
Fine goods per ton measurement of 40 cubic feet	2 0 0 to 0 0 0	1 5 0 to 1 10 0
Hardware	1 10 0 – 0 0 0	0 17 6 – 1 2 6
Coarse low-priced goods	1 0 0 – 1 5 0	0 12 6 – 0 17 6
Iron, per ton of 20 cwt.	0 10 0 – 0 12 6	0 9 0 – 0 12 6
Coals, do. do.	1 0 0 – 1 5 0	0 12 6 – 0 15 0
Crates of earthenware, per ton of 40 cubic feet	0 10 0 – 0 12 6	0 9 0 – 0 12 6
Salt, per ton of 40 bushels	0 17 6 – 1 5 0	0 12 6 – 0 15 0

Steam packets.—It has been proposed to establish steam packets between New York and Valentia harbour, on the west coast of Ireland; but as yet little progress has been made in the undertaking. It may be doubted, indeed, seeing how well the intercourse is maintained by the sailing packets, whether the introduction of steam packets would be of material service. [See art. STEAM VESSELS.]

BANKS, INSURANCE COMPANIES, ETC.—We borrow from a detailed and authentic statement by Thomas H. Goddard, Esq., published in the *New York Daily Advertiser* for the 29th of January, 1831, the following particulars in relation to the banks, insurance companies, &c. of New York, in 1830, with a view of their progress from 1819 to 1830.

Banks.	When chartered.	Length of Charter.	No. of Shares.	Amount of Share.	Amount of Capital.	Time and Rate of Dividend.	Amount of Dividend.
			Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*		*Dollars.*
United States Branch	. .	. .	25,000	100	2,500,000	Jan. 3 1-2 — July 3 1-2	175,000
America	1832	20 years	20,000	100	2,000,000	Jan. 3 1-2 — July 2 1-2	100,000
Mechanics'	1810	23 do.	80,000	25	2,000,000	Jan. 3 1-2 — July 3 1-2	140,000
Manhattan Company	1799	perpetual	41,000	50	2,050,000	Jan. 3 1-2 — July 3 1-2	143,500
Delaware and Hudson Canal Company	1825	do.	15,000	100	1,500,000	June 0 — Dec. 0	
Merchants'	1805	27 years	28,000	50	1,400,000	June 3 — Dec. 3	84,000
City	1812	20 do	25,000	50	1,250,000	May 3 — Nov. 3	75,000
New York	18—	1,800	500	250,000	May 4 — Nov. 4	20,000	
Phœnix	1812	20 do.	20,000	25	500,000	Jan. 3 1-2 — July 3 1-2	35,000
North River	1821	21 do.	10,000	50	500,000	Jan. 4 — July 4	40,000
Tradesmen's	1822	10 do.	12,000	40	480,000	Jan. 3 — July 3 1-2	31,800
Chemical	1824	21 do.	20,000	25	500,000	Jan. 3 1-2 — July 0	32,500
Union	1811	20 do.	20,000	50	6,000,000	May 3 — Nov. 3	60,000
Fulton	1824	20 do.	20,000	30	600,000	May 3 1-2 — Nov. 3 1-2	42,000
Dry Dock	. .	perpetual	14,000	50	700,000	Jan. 2 — July 0	14,000
Greenwich	1830	new	8,000	25	200,000	not determined	
			359,900		18,130,000		1,037,700

Recapitulation.—There were, in 1830, 16 banks in this city, whose aggregate capital was 18,130,000
And these made dividends for 1,037,700
Of these, the Hudson and Delaware made no dividend, in consequence of appropriating their means to the great work of completing the canal between the 2 rivers, which promises a great advantage to the city. The Greenwich had just commenced; so that the dividend accrued upon a capital of 17,930,000 dollars—making an interest of 5·7875 per cent., as the paper discounted would average 60 days' notes, and 6 per cent. discount deducted, there must have been discounted during the year paper to the amount of . . 103,769,982

Marine Insurance.—During 1830, there were in this city 8 marine insurance companies, with an aggregate capital of 8,050,000
And these made dividends for 403,000
But 2 companies, whose capital amounted to 450,000 dollars, divided nothing, so that the dividend really arose out of a capital of 2,600,000 dollars, making an interest of 15·572 per cent. The American Company commenced in 1815, and its dividends to 1830 inclusive were 312 per cent., amounting to . . 1,560,000

Dollars.
The Ocean, with a capital of 350,000, has, from 1823 to 1830 inclusive, made dividends for 126 per cent. . 441,000

Fire Insurance.—During 1830, there were in this city 20 fire companies, whose aggregate capital was . . 7,000,000
And these made dividends for 434,350
But 2 companies, whose capital amounted to 750,000 dollars, divided nothing, so that the dividend really arose out of a capital of 7,080,000 dollars, making an interest of 6·905 per cent. The Washington commenced 1814, and has made a uniform semi-annual dividend of 4 1-2 per cent., making in all 144 per cent., amounting to 720,000
From 1823 to the year 1830 inclusive—

The dividends of the Eagle were	69 1-2	per cent.	347,500
Globe	84	—	540,000
Franklin	44 1-2	—	133,500
North River	64	—	211,200
New York	76	—	380,000

Progress of Stocks in the City of New York, from 1819 to 1830, both inclusive.

Years.	Banks in New York City.				Marine Insurance Companies.			Fire Insurance Companies.		
	Amount of Capital.	Amt. of Div. declared.	Rate per Cent	Amount of Paper discounted	Amount of Capital.	Amount of Div. declar.	Rate per Cent.	Amount of Capital.	Amt. of Div. declared.	Rate per Cent
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*		*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*		*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	
1819	15,900,000	782,000	4·918	78,199,892	3,850,000	412,250	10·707	4,850,000	237,500	4·877
1820	15,900,000	921,500	5·795	92,149,080	3,850,000	250,740	6·513	4,800,000	363,000	9·111
1821	15,900,000	920,500	5·789	92,649,084	3,850,000	240,650	6·510	4,800,000	364,500	9·100
1822	16,000,000	921,200	5·757	92,119,976	3,850,000	340,150	8·310	4,500,000	365,500	8·122
1823	14,500,000	904,500	6·403	99,250,000	3,150,000	276,500	8·777	7,400,000	485,000	6·554
1824	15,600,000	617,040	3·947	61,705,020	4,650,000	317,000	6 817	7,400 000	552,500	7·465
1825	17,450,000	936,300	5·368	84,648,972	5,300,000	321,000	4·169	1,190,000	767,500	6·4 9
1826	17,500,000	1,031,300	5·894	103,149,856	5,300,000	260,000	4 905	12,150,000	717,750	5·815
1827	17,880,000	1,035,400	5·781	102,539,006	4,350,000	228,000	5·241	12,450,000	602,000	4·835
1828	18,330,000	1,030 300	5·669	101,919,972	4,100,000	201,500	7·343	10,100,000	467,000	4·624
1829	17,830,000	977,000	5·479	97,600,902	3,900,000	442,000	14·735	7,800,000	464,500	5·955
1830	18,130,000	1,037,700	5·723	103,769,952	3,050,000	403,000	19·213	7,800,000	479,750	6·150
	12 years	11,302,050		1,120,204,752		3,652,800			5,868,500	

In the previous estimates, the rate per cent. on the actually productive capital was given. Here the interest is determined by comparing the whole capital with the whole dividend.

Remarks on Banking at New York.—The reader will find in the article BANKS, FOREIGN (vol. I. p. 125.), some details as to the banking system of the United States. It seems to be quite as defective in New York as in any other part of the Union. Several banks in that State have failed, and some of those that still exist obtained their charters by resorting to the most disgraceful practices. In the summer of 1830, the grand jury of the city entered upon an investigation of certain circumstances connected with the formation of some of these establishments, which ended in the conviction, as conspirators to defraud the public, of not a few citizens, and even of some members of the legislature, who had previously been deemed highly respectable! The Court of Errors afterwards decided, by a small majority, that these convictions were illegal; but the fact of the most scandalous abuses having prevailed was established beyond all question. We may mention, by way of example, that the United States Lombard Association, incorporated in 1825, was sworn to as having a paid up capital of 300,000 dollars; but the association having failed in 1826, it was ascertained that not more than 30,000 dollars had ever been paid up! There were, we are sorry to say, several other cases quite as bad, or, if possible, even worse than this.—(*Report and Observations on the Banks, &c. of the State of New York*, p. 10.)

With the exception of the branch of the United States Bank, all the other New York banks issue notes of so low a value as 1 dollar. They all discount bills: generally at 6 per cent.

In order to protect the public from the mischief resulting from the failure of banks, the legislature of the State of New York enacted a law, in 1829, compelling all banks chartered in future, or getting their charters renewed, to pay from ¼ to 1 per cent. of their capital stock to the treasurer of the State, by whom it is invested and accumulated as a guarantee fund. When a bank fails, its debts, under certain restrictions, are to be paid from this fund. Commissioners have also been appointed, having authority to examine upon oath, and to inquire into any particulars as to the management of the different banks subjected to this regulation.

This system has not been established for a sufficient length of time to enable a conclusive opinion to be formed as to its practical operation. We believe, however, that it will be found quite inadequate to eradicate the evils complained of. Even were it otherwise successful, what can be more unjust than to tax the capital of solid and well-managed concerns, to create a fund to pay the debts of those set on foot for the purpose of swindling? The interference of the commissioners, by lessening the responsibility of the directors, must be a good deal worse than useless; and can have no effect other than the multiplication of abuses. We have not, indeed, the least doubt, that it will be found in America, as in England, that banking can acquire no real solidity till a stop be put to the issue of all notes for payment of which security has not previously been given. Nothing short of this can be of any material service. It is mere error and delusion to suppose that it is possible to prevent fraud or mismanagement by any system of official superintendence.

Forgery is extremely prevalent in the State of New York, and, indeed, throughout the Union; a consequence of the low value at which notes are issued, and of their employment even in the smallest transactions. It is not, in truth, easy to imagine that the paper currency of any country can be in a less satisfactory condition than that of the United States. And it will not, certainly, be improved, but much deteriorated, should the president succeed in his efforts to destroy the Bank of the United States.

SALES BY AUCTION.—The practice of selling goods, particularly those imported from abroad, by auction, is of long standing in New York, and is carried to a very great extent. Auctioneers are appointed by the senate, on the nomination of the governor.

Statement of Sales at Auction in the State of New York, from 1810 to 1830 inclusive, from Returns made by the Auctioneers to the Comptroller.

Years.	Amount of Duties.		Amount of Sales dutiable.		Amount of Sales not dutiable.		Total.	
	Dollars.	*cents.*	*Dollars.*	*cents.*	*Dollars.*	*cents.*	*Dollars.*	*cents.*
1810	126,404	62	5,602,662	59	510,760	28	6,113,422	87
1811	110,220	76	4,393,987	51	342,155	24	4,736,142	75
1812	121,236	92	5,203,566	07	425,451	30	5,629,017	97
1813	156,481	05	6,001,162	40	1,051,646	40	7,052,808	80
*1814	86,067	76	3,527,155	68	387,631	12	3,914,787	00
1815	182,936	57	12,124,054	76	1,037,695	01	13,161,749	77
1816	171,907	40	11,349,825	07	765,889	76	12,115,715	83
1817	199,123	38	12,472,446	92	726,165	73	13,198,612	65
1818	176,032	24	11,873,658	42	1,614,418	83	13,488,077	25
1819	141,570	96	9,538,202	51	1,727,356	31	11,265,558	82
1820	153,099	86	10,182,967	00	1,833,229	75	12,016,196	75
1821	154,543	92	10,525,791	05	1,819,434	72	12,345,275	77
1822	180,761	68	12,340,127	54	1,798,880	88	14,139,008	42
1823	208,234	01	13,754,821	57	3,117,128	86	16,871,950	43
1824	226,218	13	15,716,432	88	3,587,586	48	19,304,019	36
1825	285,037	62	19,713,686	07	4,530,600	69	24,244,287	36
1826	242,810	06	16,328,198	52	4,722,154	73	21,050,353	25
1827	247,808	24	16,401,643	68	3,063,576	64	19,465,220	32
1828	257,180	40	17,449,544	64	8,590,116	29	26,039,660	93
†1829	242,552	54	16,536,906	60	8,685,802	29	25,222,708	89
1830	218,513	66	15,465,405	99	10,300,705	79	25,766,111	78
	3,892,661	78	246,502,249	87	60,638,437	10	307,140,686	97

Abstract of the principal Provisions of the Law concerning Auctions.

The duties are—

1. On wines and ardent spirits, foreign or domestic, 2 per cent.
2. On goods imported from beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and sold in packages, bales, &c., as imported, 1 per cent.
3. On all other articles, subject to duties, 1 1-2 per cent.

The following articles are not subject to duties:—

1. Ships and vessels.
2. Utensils of husbandry, horses, neat cattle, hogs, and sheep.
3. Articles grown, produced, or manufactured in this state, except distilled spirits.
4. All fabrics of cotton, wool, hemp, and flax, manufactured within the jurisdiction of the United States.

Goods are exempted from auction duties,—

1. When they belong to the United States or this State.
2. When sold by the authority of a court, or when seized by a public officer on account of any forfeiture or penalty, or under a distress for rent.
3. The effects of a deceased person sold by executors, or administrators, or by a person authorised by a surrogate.
4. The effects of a bankrupt or insolvent sold by his assignees, appointed pursuant to law, or by a general assignment for the benefit of all his creditors.
5. Goods damaged at sea and sold within 20 days after being landed, for the owners or insurers.

*The returns of sales for 1814, having been mislaid at the comptroller's office, the amounts are stated by estimating the average of the 4 preceding years in proportion to the duties paid, which are exactly correct as stated.

†The amount of real estate sold in 1829 (included in the above not dutiable) was $2,131,390 67 cents.

Any citizen of this State may sell at auction (except in the city of New York) all such goods as are not subject to duties. But in the city of New York, or where the goods pay duties, the sale must be by an authorised auctioneer, his partner, or clerk. And any person selling contrary to the said provisions is guilty of a misdemeanour.

When an auctioneer cannot attend an auction by *sickness*, by *duty as a freeman*, by *military orders*, or *necessary attendance in a court of justice*, or when he is *temporarily* absent from the place for which he is appointed, he may employ a partner to attend in his behalf.

He must give bond to the people of this State, with 2 freehold sureties, conditioned in the penalty of 5,000 dollars, for the payment of the duties imposed by law and accruing on the sales. The penalty of selling without the bond is 125 dollars for each article offered for sale.

No auctioneer in any city shall at the same time have more than 1 house or store for holding his auctions, and shall, before entering on his office, designate in writing, to be filed with the clerk of the city, such house or store, and his partner or partners. But goods sold in the packages in which they were imported, furniture, and such bulky articles as have usually been sold in warehouses, in the streets, or on the wharfs, need not be sold in the house or store designated in such writing, if such sale be advertised at least 2 days previously in 1 or more newspapers.

Auctioneers are to receive 2 1-2 per cent. on the amount of all sales, unless by previous agreement in writing; and for *demanding* or receiving an unlawful commission, shall forfeit 250 dollars, and refund the monies so received.

No auctioneer, on the same day and at the same place where his public auction shall be held, nor any other person at the same time and place, shall sell at private sale any goods liable to auction duties, under penalty of forfeiting their price.

Every auctioneer shall make out in writing a quarterly account, dated on the 1st days of April, July, October, and January in the year for which he is appointed, stating minutely—

1. The sum for which any goods shall have been sold at every auction held by or for him, from the time of his giving bond, or from the date of his last quarterly account.
2. The days on which sales were so made, and the amount of each day's sale, designating the sales made by himself, or in his presence, and those made in his absence by his partner or clerk, and the cause of his absence.
3. The amount of all private sales made by himself or his partners, and the times thereof.
4. The amount of duties chargeable on all sales made.

Every such account shall, within 20 days af er its date, be exhibited, by auctioneers for a city, to the mayor or recorder; and if by an auctioneer for a county, to a county judge, and be verified by oath. Every partner of an auctioneer, and every clerk who has made any sales, shall also swear to his belief in the truth and justice of every particular of such account.

The State duties (together with the addition of 2 1-2 per cent. on the whole amount of them) are to be paid within 10 days after exhibiting such account.

Any deceit or fraud in violating any provision of the law respecting auctioneers, is made a misdemeanour, and subjects the offending party to the payment of *treble* damages to the party injured.

Coins.

A Table of various Foreign Coins, &c. with their Value in Federal Money.

	Dols.	cts.	m.
Sixteenth of a dollar	0	6	2½
Half a pistareen	0	9	0
Real plate of Spain	0	10	0
An English sixpence	0	11	1
Eighth of a dollar	0	12	5
Livre Tournois of France	0	18	5
Franc of France	0	18	7½
A pistareen	0	18	5
An English shilling	0	22	2
Quarter of a dollar	0	25	0
Mare banco of Hamburgh	0	29	0
The florin or guilder of the United Netherlands	0	40	0
Half dollar	0	50	0
Rupee of Bengal	0	50	0
Rix-dollar of Denmark	1	0	0
Rix-dollar of Sweden	1	0	0
Spanish dollar	1	0	0
Rouble of Russia	1	0	0
Crown of England and France	1	9	0
Milree of Portugal	1	24	0
Tale of China	1	48	0
Pagoda of India	1	84	0
French pistole	3	66	7
Spanish pistole	3	77	3
Pound of Ireland	4	10	0
Pound sterling of Great Britain	4	44	0
French guinea	4	60	0
English guinea	4	65	7
A moidore	6	0	8
Half Johannes	8	0	0
A doubloon	14	93	4
A Johannes	16	0	0
Real vellon of Spain	0	5	0
Real of Gibraltar	0	6	5
Rix dollar of Bremen	0	75	0
Pezza of Leghorn	0	80	0
Ducat of Naples	0	80	0
Ounce of Sicily	2	80	0

Coins of the United States.

Gold Coins.

				L.	s.	d.	
Eagle, value 10 dol., wt. 270 grs. stand. gold.	=	2	5	8	sterl.
Half eag's, 5 do. 135 do.	=	1	1	10	—
Quarter 2½ do. 67½ do.	=	0	10	11	—

Standard gold is 11 parts pure and 1 alloy.

Silver Coins.

				s.	d.
Dollar, val. 10 dimes, wt. 416 grs. stand. silver	=	4	3·75	sterl.
Half dollar 5 do. 208 do.	=	2	4·87	—
Quarter, 2½ do. 104 do.	=	1	0·93	—
Dime, 10 cents, 41 3-8ths	=	0	5·46	—
Half dime, 5 do. 20 4-8ths	—			

Standard silver is 1,485 parts pure, and 179 alloy.

A pound of pure gold is valued at 15 lbs. of pure silver.

Coins of the United States decimally divided.—10 mills make 1 cent, 10 cents 1 dime, 10 dimes 1 dollar, 10 dollars 1 eagle.

Rules for reducing the Currencies of the different States into each other.

To reduce the currencies of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Virginia, into those of New York and North Carolina,—to the given sum add 1-3d part thereof. Of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland,—to the given sum add 1-4th thereof. Of South Carolina and Georgia,—from the given sum subtract 2-9ths thereof.

To reduce New York and North Carolina into New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Virginia,—from the given sum deduct 1-4th thereof. Into Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland,—from the given sum deduct 1-6th thereof. Into South Carolina,—to the sum given add 1-16th, then take 1-4 of the whole.

To reduce Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland, into New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Virginia,—from the sum given deduct 1-5th thereof. Into New York and North Carolina,—to the sum given add 1-5th thereof. Into South Carolina and Georgia,—multiply by 3 and 1-9th, and divide the product by 5; or multiply by 28, and divide by 45.

To reduce South Carolina and Georgia into New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and Virginia,—to the given sum add 2-7ths thereof. Into Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland,—multiply the given sum by 45 and divide by 28. Into New York and North Carolina,—from the given sum subtract 1-7th, and double the remainder.

Custom-house Regulations.—Vessels must be reported to the collector by the master 24 hours after arrival; must come to a full entry 48 hours after arrival, at which time the commander is to make a detailed account of his cargo, stores, and passengers, and that he has deposited all letters in the post office, except such as are for the ship's husband, at which time he must also deposit the ship's register, clearance, and cockets, in the Custom-house.

Warehousing.—There is no warehousing system, but goods are received into the public stores, where they are allowed to remain 3 months at the risk and expense (for fees of cartage, labourage, and storage, as fixed by the Chamber of Commerce, see post) of the owner, without any duties being demandable. Woollens are the only exceptions to this rule: since 1833, interest is charged upon the amount of duty payable on their account from the time of their importation.

Port Charges.—For American vessels, or those of States having reciprocity treaties:—

	Doll.	cts.	L.	s.	d.
Fees on entering	5	70	or 1	5	1¾
Fees on clearing	2	70	— 0	12	1¾

Custom-house Fees.—1. *Fees payable to Collector.*—Entry of a vessel of 100 tons or upwards, 2 dollars and 50 cents; clearance of a vessel of 100 tons or upwards, 2 dollars and 50 cents; entry of a vessel under 100 tons, 1 dollar and 50 cents; clearance of a vessel under 100 tons, 1 dollar and 50 cents; every post entry, 2 dollars; permit to land goods, 20 cents; every bond taken officially, 40 cents; permit to land goods, for the exportation, for drawback, 50 cents; delivery or other official certificate, 20 cents; official document, (register or copied), required by any person, 20 cents.

2. *Fees payable to the Surveyor.*—Admeasuring and certifying the same, of every ship or vessel of 100 tons and under, per ton, 1 per cent.; admeasurement of every ship or vessel above 100 tons, and not exceeding 200 tons, 1 dollar and 50 cents; above 200 tons, 2 dollars; for all other services on board any ship or vessel of 100 tons and upwards, having on board goods, wares, or merchandise subject to duty, 3 dollars; for like services on board any ship or vessel of less than 100 tons, 1 dollar and 50 cents; on all vessels not having on board goods, wares, or merchandise subject to duty, 66 2-3d cents. Certificate of registry of vessels, 2 dollars. Endorsement on register or record, 1 dollar. Every bond required by this act, 25 cents; every bond for a Mediterranean passport, 40 cents; every seaman's protection, 25 cents.

Under the Coasting Act.—Admeasuring every vessel in order to the registering, enrolment, licensing, or recording the same, of 5 tons or upwards, and less than 20, 50 cents; 20 and not exceeding 30, 75 cents; 70, 1 dollar; above 100, 150 cents. For every certificate of enrolment, 50 cents; every endorsement of ditto, 20 cents; every licence, including the bond, not exceeding 20 tons, 25 cents; above 20 tons, and not more than 100, 50 cents; more than 100, 1 dollar. Recording certificate, manifest, and granting permits of less than 30 tons, 25 cents; above 50 tons, 50 cents. For certifying a manifest and granting permit for registered vessels, 150 cents. For receiving certified manifest and granting permit for registered vessels, 12½ cents. Granting permit for a vessel not belonging to a citizen, or arrival, to proceed from district to district, and receiving a manifest, 1 dollars; receiving manifest and granting permit to unload, as above, 2 dollars. Granting permit for a vessel to carry on fishery in a foreign port, 25 cents. For report and entry of any foreign goods imported in such last mentioned vessel, 25 cents.

Expense of loading a vessel of 300 tons, in the port of New York, with the usual cargo	Dolls.	L.	s.	d.
exported from thence	160	36	0	0
Ditto of discharging	80	18	0	0
For discharging—	Cents.			
Coals, per chaldron	25	0	1	1
For loading—				
Tobacco, per hhd.	25	0	1	1
Cotton, per bale	25	0	1	1
Flour, per bl.	3 1/2	0	3	1¾
Flax seed, do.	7	0	6	3¼

Rates of Wharfage.—Vessels under 50 tons, 50 cents per day each 3d.; and for every 50 tons more, 12½ cents additional = 7d.

N.B.—Wharfs are all private property.

Rates of Commission,—recommended for general Adoption, and allowed by the New York Chamber of Commerce, unless we find mutual rebate to the contrary.

On Foreign Business.—On the sale of merchandise, 5 per cent.—sale or purchase of stocks, 1 per cent.—Specie, 1-2 per cent.—Purchase and shipment of merchandise, with fund in hand, on the aggregate amount of *cost and charges*, 2 1-2 per cent.—Drawing or indorsing bills, in all cases, 2 1-2 per cent.—Vessels, selling or purchasing, 2 1-2 per cent.—Procuring freight, 5 per cent.—Collecting freight or general average, 2 1-2 per cent.—Outfits or disbursements with funds in hand, 2 1-2 per cent.—Effecting marine insurance, a

all cases, when the premium does not exceed 10 per cent., *on the amount insured*, 1-2 per cent.—When the premium exceeds 10 per cent., *on the amount of premium*, 5 per cent.—Collecting dividends on stock, 1-2 per cent.—Collecting delayed or litigated accounts, 5 per cent.—Adjusting and collecting insurance losses, 2 1-2 per cent.—Receiving and paying monies, from which no other commission is derived, 1 per cent.—Remittances in bills, in all cases, 1 2 per cent.—Loading and reshipping goods from vessels in distress, *on the value*, 1-2 per cent.—Receiving and forwarding goods entered at the Custom-house, *on the value*, 1 per cent.—and 2 1-2 per cent. on responsibilities incurred.

On Inland Business.—On the **sale of merchandise**, 2 1-2 per cent.—Purchase and shipment of merchandise, or accepting for purchase, without funds or property in hand, 2 1-2 per cent.—Sale or purchase of stocks, 1 per cent.—Sale or purchase of specie, 1-2 per cent.—Sale of bills of exchange with indorsement, 1-2 per cent.—Sale of bank notes or drafts not current, 1-2 per cent.—Selling or indorsing bills of exchange, 2 1-2 per cent.—Selling or purchasing vessels, 2 1-2 per cent.—Chartering to proceed to other ports to load, 2 1-2 per cent.—Procuring or collecting freight, 2 1-2 per cent.—Outfits or disbursements 2 1-2 per cent.—Collecting general average, 2 1-2 per cent.—Effecting marine insurances, in all cases when the premium does not exceed 10 per cent., *on the amount insured*, 1-2 per cent.—When the premium exceeds 10 per cent., *on the amount of premium*, 5 per cent.—Adjusting and collecting insurance losses, 2 1-2 per cent.—Collecting dividends on stocks, 1-2 per cent.—Collecting bills, and paying over the amount, or receiving and paying monies from which no other commission is derived, 1 per cent.—Receiving and forwarding goods, *on the value*, 1-2 per cent.—The same when entered for duty or debenture, 1 per cent.—Remittances in bills, in all cases, 1-2 per cent.

The above commissions to be exclusive of the guarantee of debts for sales on credit, storage, brokerage, and every other charge actually incurred.—The risk of loss by fire, unless insurance be ordered, and of robbery, theft, and other unavoidable occurrences, if the usual care be taken to secure the property, is in all cases to be borne by the proprietor of the goods. When bills are remitted for collection, and are returned under protest for non-acceptance or non-payment, the same commission to be charged as though they were duly honoured. On consignments of merchandise withdrawn or reshipped, full commission to be charged to the extent of advances or responsibilities incurred, and half commission on the residue of the value.

Rates of Storage,—chargeable per month, as established by the New York Chamber of Commerce.

	Cents.
Almonds, in frails or packages, cwt.	6
Alum, in casks or bags, per ton	40
Ashes pot and pearl, bbl.	6
Ash bbl.	6
Bottles, quart, in mats, cr. or hmp. gr.	3
Bark, quercitron, in casks, ton	60
Bagging, cotton, loose or in bales, pc.	3
Butter, in firkins of 60 lbs., per firkin	2
Brandy. *See* Liquors.	
Candles, in boxes of 50 or 60 lbs., box	2
Chocolate, in boxes of 50 lbs., box	2
Cocoa, in bags, per cwt.	2 1-2
in casks, ditto	3
Coffee, in casks, ditto	2 1-2
in bags, ditto	2
Copperas, in casks, per ton	40
Copper, in pigs, ditto	30
in sheets or bolts, ton	30
braziers' bottoms, ton	75
Cordage, per ton	50
Cassia, in mats or boxes, per cwt.	10
Cotton, American, in square bales, 300 lbs.	12 1-2
ditto, in round bales, ditto	16
West Indian, in proportion to round.	
East Indian, in bales, per 300 lbs.	9
Cheese, casks, boxes, or loose, cwt.	3
Duck, heavy, per bolt	1 1-2
Ravens or Russia sheeting, piece	03-4
Dry goods, in boxes or bales, 40 cubic feet	40
Fish, pickled, per bbl.	6
dry, in casks or boxes, cwt.	4
in bulk, per cwt.	2 1-2
Figs, in frails, boxes, or drums, cwt.	2 1-2
Flax, per ton	60
Flax seed, or other dry articles, in tierces of 7 bushels per tierce	10
Flour, or other dry articles, in bbls.	4
Earthenware, in crates of 25 to 30 feet	15
in hhds. of 40 to 50 feet	30
Grain, in bulk, per bushel	1
Ginger, in bags, per cwt.	2
Glass, window, in boxes of 50 feet	1 1-2
Gin. *See* Liquors.	
Hemp, per ton	75
Hides, dried or salted, per hide	1 1-2
Hollowware, in casks of 40 cubic feet	40
Indigo, in serons or boxes, per cwt.	4
Iron, in bars or bolts, per ton	30
in hoops, sheets, or railroads, ton	50
Liquors, in puncheons of 120 gallons, per puncheon	30
in 1-4 casks	61-4
in pipes or casks, 120 gallons	90
bottled, in casks or boxes, doz. bottles	1 1-2
Leather, per side	1
Lard, in firkins of 60 lbs.	2
Lead, pig or sheet, per ton	20
dry or ar in oil, ditto	20
Molasses, per hhd. of 110 gallons (other casks in proportion)	30
Nails, in casks, per cwt.	2
Oil, in hhds. or casks, 110 gallons	30
in chests of 30 flasks, per chest	4
bottled, in boxes or baskets, doz.	1 1-2
Paints, in casks or kegs, per ton	40
Pork, per bbl.	6
Porter. *See* Liquors.	
Pepper, in bags, per cwt.	2 1-2
Pimento, in casks or bags, cwt.	2 1-2
Rice, in tierces, per tierce	12
in 1-2 ditto, per 1-2 ditto	6
Rags, in bales, per cwt.	6
Raisins, Malaga, in casks	3

	Cents.
Raisins, Malaga, in boxes	1
in other packages, per cwt.	2
Rum, *See* Liquors.	
Saltpetre, in bags, per cwt.	2
in casks, ditto	2 1-2
Salt, in bags or bulk, per bushel	1
Shot, in casks, per ton	37
Soap, in boxes of 50 to 60 lbs.	2
Steel, in bars or bundles, per ton	30
in boxes or tubs, ditto	40
Sugar, raw, in bags or boxes, per cwt.	2
ditto, in casks, ditto	2 1-2
refined, in casks or packages	3
Tallow, in ...ks or serons, cwt.	2
Tea, hr... whole chests	15
ditto, in 1-2 chests	8
green or black, in 1-4 chests	4 1-2
in boxes, in proportion to 1-4 chests.	
Tin, block, per ton	20
in boxes of usual size, per box	1 1-2
Tobacco, in hhds., per hhd.	37 1-2
in bales or serons, per cwt.	4
manufactured, in kegs of 100 lbs.	2
Wines. *See* Liquors.	
Woods, for dyeing, under cover, per ton	80
ditto, in yards	25
Whiting, in hhds., per ton	37 1-2

On articles on which the rate is fixed by weight, it is understood to be on the gross weight; and on liquors, oil, &c. on which the rate refers to gallons, it is understood to be on the whole capacity of the casks, whether full or not. The proprietors of goods to be at the expense of putting them in store, stowing away, and turning out of store.—All goods taken on storage to be subject to 1 month's storage; if taken out within 15 days after the expiration of the month, to pay 1-2 a month's storage; if after 15 days, a whole month's storage.

Rates of Cartage.

	s.	d.
Ale or beer, per hhd.	2	0
hhd. from 60 to 90 gallons	2	0
Alum or copperas, from 12 to 15 cwt., per hhd.	2	6
from 15 to 20 cwt.	3	0
over 1 ton	4	6
Bar iron, per load	2	0
Boards and plank, per load	2	0
Brandy, pipe over 100 gallons	3	0
Bread, 4 tierces	2	0
Bricks, per load	2	0
handled and piled	2	6
Building or paving stones, load	2	0
Calves, sheep and lambs	2	6
Cider, cheese, and cocoa	2	0
Clay and sand, 12 bushels	2	0
Coal, half chaldron, per load	2	6
Cocoa, per load	2	0
Coffee, in bags or bbls.	2	0
above 10 cwt., per hhd.	2	6
Cordage, small, per load	2	0
Cotton, per load of 3 bales	2	0
Cut stone, per load	2	6
Dried fish, loose, load	2	6
Dye wood, per load	2	0
Earthenware, loose, per load	2	6
European goods, per load	2	0
Flax, in bales and bundles, load	2	6
Flax-seed, 3 tierces	2	0
Fire wood, per load	2	0
Flour, in bags, 12 per load	2	0
7 bbls. per load	2	0
Gammon, or hams, per load	2	0
Gin, pipe over 100 gallons	3	0
Hay, in trusses, bundles, bales, per load	2	6
loose	4	0
Heading or staves, per load	2	0
Hides, 50 per load	2	6
Hemp, in bales or bundles, per load	2	6
loose, not over 12 cwt.	3	6
Hoops, in bundles	2	0
Hoop-poles, per load	2	6
Hollow ware, per load	2	6
Household furniture	4	0
Molasses, from 60 to 90 gallons	2	6
from 90 to 140 gallons	3	0
Oil, per load of 3 bbls.	2	0
Oysters, ditto shells, &c. load	2	6
Potashes, per load of 3 bbls.	2	0
Paints, common, load	2	0
per hhd., from 12 to 15 cwt.	2	6
from 15 to 20 cwt.	3	0
above 20 cwt.	4	6
Pantiles, per load	2	6
Plaster of Paris, ton	4	0
Pork, beef, tar, pitch, and turpentine, 5 bbls.	2	0
Rum, per hhd.	3	0
Salt, 20 bushels	2	0
Shingles, long cedar, pine, in bundles	2	0
Cyprus, 2,000 (32 inch)	3	0
Stone, paving or building	2	0
Sugar, Havannah, 3 boxes	2	6
from 9 to 15 cwt.	2	6
from 15 to 20 cwt.	3	0
above 20 cwt.	4	6
Scantling, or timber, per load	2	0
Tea, per load	2	6
Tiles or slate, per load	2	6
Tobacco, in hhds. from 9 to 15 cwt. per hhd.	2	6
from 15 to 20 cwt.	3	0
above 20 cwt.	4	6
Wheat, or other grain, per load	2	6
Wine, pipe, over 100 gallons	3	0
in 4 quarter-casks	3	0
Whiting, common load	2	0
per hhd., 12 to 15 cwt.	2	6
from 15 to 20 cwt.	3	0
above 20 cwt.	4	6

Cables.

	£	s.	d.
For every cable, whole shot of 5 inches in circumference to 7 inches	5	0	
Do. half shot of like dimensions	2	6	
Do. whole shot of 7 to 10 inches	12	0	
Do. half shot of like dimensions	6	0	
Do. whole shot of 10, and not exceeding 12 inches in circumference	14	0	
Do. whole shot of 12, and not exceeding 14 inches in circumference	20	0	
Do. half shot of the dimensions of the two last mentioned	10	0	
Do. whole shot of 14 and not exceeding 15 inches	24	0	
Do. half shot of like dimensions	12	0	
Do. whole shot of 15 inches	32	0	
Do. half shot of like dimensions	16	0	
☞ *Goods, wares, merchandise, or other articles not herein enumerated, per load*	2	0	

In all cases where the distance exceeds 1-2 a mile, and not 2 miles, 1-2 in addition to be allowed.

Rates of Porterage.—For any distance not exceeding 1-2 a mile, 12 1-2 cents; over 1-2 a mile, and not exceeding a mile, 25 cents, and in that proportion for any greater distance. For carrying a load upon a hand-barrow, for any distance not exceeding 1-2 a mile, 25 cents; over 1-2 a mile, and not exceeding a mile, 44 cents; and in that proportion for any greater distance.

Hand-cartmen.—For any distance not exceeding 1-2 a mile, 18 3-4 cents; over 1-2 a mile, and not exceeding a mile, 31 1-4 cents; and in that proportion for any greater distance.

Harbour Master.

The office of harbour master was created in 1806, by legislative enactment, with power to regulate and station all vessels in the harbour, or at the wharfs, to accommodate vessels wishing to discharge their cargoes, and to decide promptly all disputes connected with the foregoing subjects. Resisting his authority subjects to a fine of 50 dollars and costs, for the benefit of the New York hospital.

Fees.—On vessels unloading, 1 1-2 cent per ton. Vessels paying foreign duties and tonnage, *double*; which must be paid within 48 hours after arrival. Schooners and sloops in the coasting trade, 3 dollars. For adjusting any diff[illegible] respecting situation, 3 dollars.

Pilots must register the [illegible] vessels, names, and places of abode, in his office; and are obliged to put to sea whenever ordered by him. The penalty for refusing is 5 dollars and loss of licence.

Pilotage.

There are 9 branch and 9 deputy pilots, and as many registered boats.

Rates of Pilotage.—Every pilot who shall take charge of any vessel to the eastward or southward of the White Buoy on the eastern ridge near the bar, and conducts and moors safely such vessel to a proper wharf, or from the city to the southward or eastward of said buoy, is entitled by law to the following rates, to wit:—For vessels of the United States, and those who are entitled by treaty to enter upon the same terms as American vessels, the sums which follow:—Every vessel drawing less than 14 feet, 1 dol. 50 cts. per foot; do. drawing 14 feet, and less than 18, 1 dol. 75 cts. per foot; do. drawing 18 feet or upwards, 2 dols. 25 cts. per foot. The same rates of pilotage to be allowed for any vessel that may be piloted any where within the Hook, whose master or owner does not wish the same to be brought to the city wharfs. Half pilotage only to be allowed to any pilot who shall take charge of a vessel to the westward of the White Buoy. No pilotage whatsoever to be given to any pilot, unless he shall take charge of a vessel to the southward of the upper Middle Ground, nor unless such vessel shall be of 70 tons burden, provided the usual signal be not given, in which case half pilotage is to be allowed. Between the 1st of November and the 1st of April, inclusive, 4 dols. additional to be allowed for vessels of 10 feet water and upwards; if less than 10 feet, 2 dols. One fourth additional to be given to the pilots who shall take charge of vessels out of sight of the light-house. For every day any pilot shall be required to remain on board, 3 dols. per day. Foreign vessels not entitled by treaty to enter on the same terms as those of the United States, to pay 1-4th additional to the pilots, and also 5 dols. over and above the foregoing rates of pilotage.

Wardens of the Port.

Vessels and goods arriving in a damaged state, and required to be sold by auction for the benefit of underwriters out of the city of New York, must be under the inspection of the wardens, who may be required to certify the cause of the damage, and amount of sale and charges.

Fees.—1 1-2 per cent. on gross amount of sales; and for each survey on board of any vessel, at any store, or along the docks or wharfs, 3 dols. on damaged goods; each survey on hull, spars, rigging, &c., 5 dols.; each certificate, 1 dol. 25 cts.; ditto of distress of said vessel, 3 dols. 50 cts.; same services for vessels paying foreign duties and tonnage, *double*.

Quantity of Goods to compose a Ton.

Extract from the By-Laws of the New York Chamber of Commerce.

Resolved,—That when vessels are freighted by the ton, and no special agreement is made between the owner of the vessel and freighter of the goods, respecting the proportion of tonnage which each particular article shall be computed at, the following regulation shall be the standard of computation—

That the articles, the bulk of which shall compose a ton, to equal a ton of heavy materials, shall be in weight as follows:—1,568 lbs. of coffee in casks, 1,530 ditto in bags; 1,120 lbs. of cocoa in casks, 1,307 ditto in bags.

952 lbs. of pimento in casks, 1,110 ditto in bags.

8 barrels of flour, of 196 lbs. each.

6 barrels of beef, pork, tallow, pickled fish, pitch, tar, and turpentine.

20 cwt. of pig and bar iron, potashes, sugar, logwood, fustic, Nicaragua wood, and all heavy dye woods, rice, honey, copper ore, and all other heavy goods.

16 cwt. of coffee, cocoa, and dried codfish, in bulk, and 12 cwt. of dried codfish in casks of any size.

6 cwt. of ship bread in casks, 7 cwt. in bags, and 8 cwt. in bulk.

200 gallons (wine measure) reckoning the full contents of the casks of oil, wine, brandy, or any kind of liquors.

22 bushels of grain, peas, or beans in casks.

36 bushels of ditto in bulk.

56 bushels of European salt.

31 bushels of salt from the West Indies.

29 bushels of sea coal.

40 feet (cubic measure) of mahogany, square timber, oak plank, pine and other boards, beaver, fure, paltry, bees' wax, cotton, wool, and bale goods of all kinds.

1 hogshead of tobacco, and 10 cwt. of dry hides.

2 cwt. of China raw silk, 10 cwt. nett bohea, and 2 cwt. green te.

Taxes allowed by Custom.

Alum, in bags	6 lbs.
in casks	10
Almonds, in cases	10 per cent.
in bales	8 —
double bales	6 lbs.
in bags	6 —
Cheese, in casks or tubs	4 per cent.
Cocoa, in serons	15 —
Copperas, in casks	8 —
Cassia, in boxes	10 —
in mats	actual.
Cinnamon, in boxes	6 per cent.
in bales	actual.
Cloves, in casks	6 per cent.
in bags	12 —
Currants, in casks	4 —
in boxes	16 —
Figs, in boxes	10 —
in mats or frails	10 —
in drums	6 —
in casks	12 —
Glue, in casks	10 —
in boxes	17 —
Hemp, in bales	12 —
Indigo, in cases	16 —
Lead (white, in oil) in kegs	8 —
do. if the kegs are packed in hogsheads, extra allowed for the hogshead is	100 lbs.
(white, dry) in casks	6 per cent.
(red, dry) do.	4 —
(red, in oil) do.	10 —
in casks	8 —
Nails, in bags	10 —
Nutmegs, in casks	13 —
in bags	4 —
Ochre (in oil) in casks	12 —
(dry), do.	10 —
Powder, gun, in 1-4 casks	6 lbs.
in 1-2 do.	8 —
in whole do.	25 —
Plums, in boxes	8 per cent.
Prunes, in do.	8 —
Paris white, in casks	10 —
Raisins, in jars	10 lbs.
in boxes	15 per cent.
in casks	12 —
in frails	4 —
in drums	10 —
Rice	10 —
Snuff, in boxes	15 —
Sugar-candy, in tubs	15 —
Sugar in loaves	1-4 lb.
Steel, per bundle	6 —
Shumac, no tare: sometimes 1 lb. per bag is allowed.	
Sheet iron, in casks	16 per cent.
Steel, in cases and casks	6 —
Spikes, in casks	8 —
in bags	8 —
Tallow, in bales	8 —
in casks	12 —
in serons	8 —
in tubs	16 —
Twine, in boxes	15 —
in casks	12 —
in bales	8 —
Tobacco, in boxes	16 —
Wire, in casks	8 per cent.
Whiting, in do.	10 —
Actual tare is allowed on fruit, if required.	

Taxes allowed by law.

On candles, in boxes	10 —
Cheese, in hampers or baskets	10 —
in boxes	10 —
Chocolate, in boxes	10 —
Coffee, in bags	2 —
in bales	3 —
in casks	12 —
Cocoa, in bags	1 —
in casks	4 —
Cotton, in bales	6 —
in serons	6 —
Indigo, in do.	10 —
Nails, in casks	8 —
Pimento, in bags	3 —
Pepper, in do.	3 —
Sugar, other than loaf sugar, in casks	12 —
in boxes	10 —
in mats or bags	6 —
Salts, Glauber	3 —
Sugar candy, in boxes	10 —
Soap, in boxes	10 —
Shot, in casks	3 —
Every whole chest of bohea tea	70 lbs.
1-2 do. do.	36 —
1-4 do. do.	20 —
Every chest of hyson or other green tea of 70 lbs. or upwards	90 —
Every box of other tea between 50 and 70 lbs.	16 —
do. do. if 80 lbs.	20 —
do. do. from 80 lbs. and upwards	22 —

The above to include ropes, canvass, and other coverings, and other boxes of teas, according to the invoices or actual weight thereof.

We have derived these statements from the *New York Annual Register*, for 1831; *The Picture of New York* the *Consul's Answers to the Circular Queries*, and *private communications*.

Prices at New York.—The following statements of the wholesale prices of some of the principal articles of exportation at New York, are taken from the *New York Prices Current* for the 17th of September, 1830.

	Dls. cts.		Dls. cts.
Cotton—*Import duty, 3 cents per lb.*			
New Orleans, per lb.	0 14	to	0 21
Alabama, do.	0 13 1-2	—	0 22
Upland, do.	0 12	—	0 15
Tennessee, do.			
Cotton bagging—*Import duty, 3 1-2 cents per square yard.*			
Hemp, per yard	0 15	—	0 21
Flax, do.	0 20	—	0 0
American, do.			
Flour and meal—*Import duty, 50 cents per 112 lbs.*			
New York, superfine, per barrel	9 0	—	9 0
Troy, do.	9 0	—	0 0
Western Canal, do.	9 0	—	9 50
Philadelphia, do.	0 0	—	0 0
Baltimore, Howard Street, do.	9 0	—	9 75
Richmond Country mills, do.	8 50	—	0 0
Georgetown, do.	9 75	—	10 0
Alexandria, do.	0 0	—	0 0
Fredericksburgh, do.	0 0	—	0 0
Petersburgh, do.	0 0	—	0 0
Scratched and Bran, do.	8 50	—	0 0
Middlings, fine, do.	8 0	—	8 25
Rye flour, do.	0 0	—	6 25
Indian meal, do.	5 0	—	0 0
per bushel	2 50	—	25 0
Furs—*Import duty,—dressed, 12 1-2 per cent. ad valorem; undressed, free.*			
Beaver, parchment, per lb.	6 0	—	6 50
North, do.	5 0	—	6 0
South, do.	2 50	—	4 0
West, do.	4 50	—	6 0
Otter, per skin	4 0	—	7 0
Raccoon, S. and W.	0 10	—	0 20
Detroit, &c.	0 25	—	0 35
Muskrat, S. and N., do.	0 8 1-2	—	0 21
Marten, Canada, do.	0 85	—	1 0
N. W., do.	1 12 1-2	—	1 50
Red fox, do.	0 85	—	1 37 1-2
Mink, S. and N., do.	0 20	—	0 40
Norris skins, do.	0 20	—	0 30
Hare skins, Russia, do.	0 12 1-2	—	0 18
Grain—*Import duty,* Wheat 25 cents per bushl., other sorts free.			
Wheat, Virginia, per bushel	1 50	—	1 75
North Carolina, do.	1 87 1-2	—	2 0
Rye, Northern, do.	1 12 1-2	—	1 18
Corn, yellow, Northern, do.	1 12 1-2	—	1 18
white, Long Island & Jersey, do.	1 12 1-2	—	1 18
Southern, do.	1 0	—	1 12
Barley, North River, do.	0 74	—	0 0
Oats, Northern and Southern, do.	0 48	—	0 62
Beans, per tierce of 7 bushels	10 0	to	12 0
Peas, white, dry, do.	7 0	—	0 0
Lumber—*Yard selling prices.*			
Boards, North River, per mille feet	17 0	—	18 0
Eastern pine, do.	18 0	—	19 0
Albany do., per piece	0 18	—	0 19
Plank, Georgian do., per mille feet	25 0	—	35 0
Heading, W. O., per mille	54 0	—	0 0
Staves, W. O., pipe, do.	60 0	—	62 0
hogshead, do.	45 0	—	45 0
barrel, do.	30 0	—	33 0
R. O., hogshead, do.	34 0	—	38 0
Hoops, do.	50 0	—	60 0
Scantling, pine, do.	15 0	—	18 0
oak, do.	20 0	—	25 0
Timber, oak, per square foot	0 20	—	0 25
Georgian yellow pine, do.	0 28	—	0 30
Shingles, cypress, per mille	4 0	—	10 0
Naval Stores—			
Tar, per barrel	2 12 1-2	—	2 25
Pitch, do.	2 0	—	2 12 1-2
Rosin, do.	1 37 1-2	—	1 50
Turpentine, Wilmington, soft, do.	2 50	—	0 0
North. Co., do. do.	2 75	—	3 0
Spirits of turpentine, per gallon	0 38	—	0 43
Provisions—			
Beef, mess, per barrel	10 0	—	10 25
prime	6 0	—	6 50
cargo	4 50	—	0 0
Pork, mess, do.	24 50	—	25 0
prime	16 50	—	17 50
cargo, do.	14 0	—	0 0
Hog's lard, per lb.	0 17	—	0 17 1-2
Butter, Genesee dairy, do.	0 16	—	0 23
West, do. do.	0 10	—	0 20
shipping, do.	0 12	—	0 17
Philadelphia	0 10	—	0 15
Cheese, American do.	0 8	—	0 10
Hams, smoked, do.	0 15	—	0 16
Tobacco—*Import duty, Leaf, 15 per cent. ad valorem.*			
Richmond and Petersburgh, per lb.	0 6	—	0 9
North Carolina, do.	0 5	—	0 7
Kentucky do.	0 7	—	0 10
Cuba (in parcels), do.	0 15	—	0 23
St. Domingo, do.	0 14	—	0 20
Manufactured, No. 1., do.	0 15	—	0 17
No. 2., do.	0 13 1-2	—	0 14 1-2
No. 3., do.	0 12 1-2	—	0 13
Ladies' twist, do.	0 19	—	0 22
Cavendish, do.	0 14	—	0 40

[The Tables omitted in this article are comprehended in those which have been added to the articles IMPORTS AND EXPORTS, and SHIPS.—*Am. Ed.*]

New York Canals, 1833.—In addition to the information laid before the reader in vol. i. p. 280, we have now to state, that the total amount of tolls collected on all the canals of the State, for the year ending the 30th of September, 1833, was as follows, viz.—

	Dolls. cts.
Erie and Champlain Canals	1,324,421 63
Oswego Canal	20,950 23
Cayuga and Seneca Canals	14,783 59
	1,360,155 45
The expenses of collection are deducted from the tolls received by the collectors, which add, say	25,800 0
Total amount of tolls	D. 1,385,955 45
The nett revenue of the Erie and Champlain Canal fund, after paying all expenses, amounts to	1,138,161 23

The debt standing against the State, on the 30th of September, 1833, for the several canals, was as follows, to wit:—

	Dolls. cts.
Erie and Champlain Canal debt	5,922,659 29
Oswego do.	427,347 0
Cayuga and Seneca do.	237,000 0
Chenango do.	316,000 0
Crooked Lake do.	120,000 0
Chemung do.	60,000 0
Total	D. 6,673,006 29

Bills of Exchange.—By a revised law of the State of New York, the following damages on bills drawn or negotiated in this State, and protested for non-payment, are allowed, viz.—

Bills drawn on the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, or district of Columbia, 3 per cent.

North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Kentucky, or Tennessee, 5 per cent.

Any other State or territory of the United States, or any other place on or adjacent to this continent, and north of the equator, or any British or other foreign possessions in the West Indies, or elsewhere on the Western Atlantic Ocean, or any port or place in Europe, 10 per cent.

Such damages shall be in lieu of interest, charges of protest, and all other charges incurred previous to and at the time of giving notice of non-payment, but the holder of such bill shall be entitled to demand and recover lawful interest upon the aggregate amount of the principal sum specified in such bill, and of the damages thereon, from the time at which notice of protest for non-payment shall have been given, and payment of such principal sum shall have been demanded.—Sect. 19.

If the contents of such bill be expressed in the money of account of the United States, the amount due thereon and of the damages herein allowed for the non-payment thereof, shall be ascertained and determined without any reference to the rate of exchange existing between this State and the place on which such bill shall have been drawn, at the time of the demand of payment or of notice of non-payment.—Sect. 20.

If the contents of such bill be expressed in the money of account or currency of any foreign country, then the amount due, exclusive of the damages payable thereof, shall be ascertained and determined by the rate of exchange or the value of such foreign currency, at the time of the demand of payment.—Sect. 21.

TARIFF OF THE UNITED STATES.—Notwithstanding the unprecedented progress of the United States in wealth and population, their foreign trade was nearly stationary for the 10 years ending with 1830! And yet, considering the spirit of commercial enterprise by which the people, particularly in the New England States and New York, are animated, and their skill in navigation, it might have been fairly presumed that the growth of their foreign trade would, at least, have kept pace with the development of the internal resources of the country. That it did not do so is wholly owing to the policy of government. Not satisfied with the extraordinary advances their constituents had made in numbers and wealth, Congress seems to have believed that their career might be accelerated by means of Custom-house regulations!—by giving an artificial direction to a portion of the public capital and industry, and turning it into channels into which it would not naturally flow!

No one who has the slightest acquaintance with the condition of America—who knows

that she is possessed of boundless tracts of fertile and unappropriated land—that her population is comparatively thin, and wages high—can doubt for a moment that agriculture *must*, for a long series of years, be the most profitable species of employment in which her citizens can engage. There can be no question, indeed, that such branches of manufacture as are naturally adapted to her peculiar situation, will gradually grow up and flourish in America, without any artificial encouragement, according as her population becomes denser, and as the advantage which now exists on the side of agriculture becomes less decided. But to force, by means of duties and prohibitions, the premature growth of manufactures, is plainly to force a portion of the industry and capital of the country into businesses in which it will be *least* productive.

Such, however, has been, for a lengthened period, the policy of the American legislature. The exploded sophisms of the mercantile system, though renounced by every statesman in Europe, acquired a noxious influence in congress, and were put forth with as much confidence, as if their soundness neither had been, nor could be, questioned! From 1816 down to 1832, the object of the American legislature was to bolster up a manufacturing interest, by imposing oppressive duties on most manufactured articles imported from abroad. Now, it is obvious even had the articles produced in America through the agency of this plan been as cheap as those they superseded, that nothing would have been gained by it; for, to whatever extent the importation of foreign articles may be diminished, there must be a corresponding diminution in the exportation of native American products; so that the only result would have been the raising up of one species of industry at the expense of some other species, entitled to an equality of protection. But the "American system" was not so innocuous. Instead of the goods manufactured in the States being as cheap as similar ones manufactured in Europe, they were admitted to be, at an average, from 30 to 100 per cent. dearer! The extent of the pecuniary sacrifice that was thus imposed on the Union has been variously estimated by American writers; but we have been assured by those who have the best means of knowing, that it may be moderately estimated at from 50,000,000 to 60,000,000 dollars, or from about 11,000,000*l.* to 13,000,000*l.*! And this immense burden —a burden nearly *three* times as great as the whole public expenditure of the republic—was incurred for no purpose of public utility, and was productive of nothing but mischief. The whole effect of the scheme was to divert a certain amount of the national capital from the production of cotton, wheat, rice, tobacco, &c., the equivalents sent to foreigners in payment of manufactured goods, to the direct production of these goods themselves! And as the latter species of industry is nowise suitable for America, a tax of 13,000,000*l.* a year was imposed on the Union, that the manufacturers might be enabled to continue a losing business. We leave it to others to determine whether the absurdity of the system, or its costliness, be its more prominent feature. That its influence was not more injurious, is solely owing to the smuggling it occasioned. With a frontier like that of America, and with a half or more of the population hostile to the tariff, it would have been worse than absurd to suppose that it could be carried into full effect. But it had enough of influence to render it in the last degree prejudicial—to occasion a great rise in the price of many important articles—to cripple the trade and navigation of the country—and to throw a considerable part of it into the hands of foreigners, who carried it on in defiance of the law.

It is difficult, however, to say how long this perverse system might have been maintained, but for its political effects. It was principally patronised by the Northern States. We believe, indeed, that it is quite impossible to show that they either did or could derive any benefit from it; but, at all events, it is quite certain that it was highly injurious to the Southern States. Their staple products are cotton, tobacco, and rice, of which by far the largest portion is exported to foreign countries: and the planters speedily found that every restriction on importation from abroad occasioned a corresponding difficulty of exportation. This led to a disunion of interests, and to strong remonstrances against the tariff by the Southern States. These, however, were disregarded. Provoked by this treatment, South Carolina took the decisive step of refusing to enforce the customs acts; and threatened, if coercion were attempted, to repel force by force, and to recede from the Union! This was a death-blow to the tariff. Congress now saw, what all sensible men had seen long before, that it was necessary to recede; that, in fact, either the tariff must be modified, or the integrity of the Union be brought into jeopardy. A law was accordingly passed on the 14th of July, 1832, which directed a considerable deduction to be made from the duties on various articles after the 3d of March, 1833; and a subsequent act, commonly called "Mr. Clay's New Tariff Bill," was passed on the 2d of March, 1833, providing for the future gradual reduction of the duties. These judicious acts restored tranquillity; and, there can be no doubt, will be, in every point of view, highly beneficial to the republic.

We subjoin the act of the 22d of March, 1833, and the explanatory letter of Mr. M'Lane, Secretary to the Treasury.

Mr. Clay's New Tariff Bill,

To modify the Act of the 14th of July, 1832, and all other Acts imposing Duties on Imports.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in congress assembled, that, from and after the 31st of December, 1833, in all cases where duties are imposed

on foreign imports by the act of July 14, 1832, entitled "An Act to alter and amend the several Acts imposing Duties on Imports," or by any other act, shall exceed 20 per cent. on the value thereof, one tenth part of such excess shall be deducted; from and after the 31st of December, 1835, another tenth part thereof shall be deducted; from and after the 31st of December, 1837, another tenth part thereof shall be deducted; from and after the 31st of December, 1839, another tenth part thereof shall be deducted; and from and after the 31st of December, 1841, one half of the residue of such excess shall be deducted; and from and after the 30th of June, 1842, the other half thereof shall be deducted.

Sect. II.—And be it further enacted, that so much of the second section of the act of the 14th of July aforesaid, as fixes the rate of duty on all milled and fulled cloth, known by the name of plains, jerseys, or Kendal cottons, of which wool is the only material, the value whereof does not exceed 35 cents a square yard, at 5 per cent. *ad valorem*, shall be and the same is hereby repealed. And the said articles shall be subject to the same duty of 50 per cent. as is provided by the said 2d section for other manufactures of wool, which duty shall be liable to the same reductions as are prescribed by the 1st section of this act.

Sect. III.—And be it further enacted, that until the 30th of September, 1842, the duties imposed by existing laws, as modified by this act, shall remain and continue to be collected. And from and after the day last aforesaid, all duties on imports shall be collected in ready money, and all credits now allowed by law, to the payment of duties, shall be and are hereby abolished, and such duties shall be paid for the purpose of raising such revenues as may be necessary to an economical administration of the government; and from and after the day last aforesaid, the duties required to be paid by law on goods, wares, and merchandise, shall be assessed upon the value thereof at the port where the same shall be entered, under such regulations as may be prescribed by law.

Sect. IV.—And be it further enacted, that, in addition to the articles now exempted by the act of the 14th of July, 1832, and the existing laws, from the payment of duties, the following articles imported from and after the 31st of December, 1833, and until the 30th of June, 1842, shall also be admitted to entry free from duty; to wit, bleached and unbleached linens, table linens, linen napkins, and linen cambrics, and worsted stuff goods, shawls, and other manufactures of silk and worsted, manufactures of silk, or of which silk shall be the component material of chief value, coming from this side of the Cape of Good Hope, except sewing silk.

Sect. V.—And be it further enacted, that from and after the said 30th of June, 1842, the following articles shall be admitted to entry free from duty; to wit, indigo, quicksilver, sulphur, crude saltpetre, grindstones, refined borax, emery, opium, tin in plates or sheets, gum Arabic, gum Senegal, lac dye, madder, madder root, nuts and berries used in dyeing, saffron, turmeric, woad or pastel, aloes, ambergris, Burgundy pitch, cochineal, camomile flowers, coriander seed, catsup, chalk, cocculus Indicus, horn plates for lanterns, ox horns, other horns and tips, India rubber, unmanufactured ivory, juniper berries, musk, nuts of all kinds, oil of juniper, unmanufactured rattans and reeds, tortoiseshell, tin foil, shellac, all vegetables used principally in dyeing and composing dyes, weld, and all articles employed chiefly for dyeing, except alum, copperas, bichromate of potash, prussiate of potash, chromate of potash, and nitrate of lead, aquafortis and tartaric acid. And all imports on which the 1st section of this act may operate, and all articles now admitted to entry, free from duty or paying a less rate of duty than 20 per cent. *ad valorem* before the said 30th of June, 1842, from and after that day may be admitted to entry, subject to such duty, not exceeding 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, as shall be provided for by law.

Sect. VI.—And be it further enacted, that so much of the act of July 14, 1832, or of any other act, as is inconsistent with this act, shall be and the same is hereby repealed: provided that nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to prevent the passage, prior or subsequent to the said 30th of June, 1842, of any act or acts from time to time, that may be necessary to detect, prevent, or punish evasion of the duties on imports imposed by law; nor to prevent the passage of any act prior to the 30th of June, 1842, in contingency either of excess or deficiency of revenue, altering the rate of duties on articles which, by the aforesaid act of the 14th of July, 1832, are subject to a less rate of duty than 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, in such manner, as not to exceed that rate, and so as to adjust the revenue to either of the said contingencies.

Circular to Officers of the Customs.

Treasury Department, April 20, 1833.

The 7th section of the act of the 14th of July, 1832, entitled "An Act to alter and amend the several acts imposing the Duties on Imports," provides, that in all cases where the duty which now is or hereafter may be imposed on any goods, wares, or merchandise imported into the United States, shall, by law, be regulated, or be directed to be estimated or levied upon the value of the square yard, or any other quantity or parcel thereof, and in all cases where there is or shall be imposed any *ad valorem* rate of duty on any goods, wares, or merchandise imported into the United States, it shall be the duty of the collector, within whose district the same shall be imported or entered, to cause the actual value thereof, at the time purchased, and place from which the same shall have been imported into the United States, to be appraised, estimated, and ascertained, and the number of such yards, parcels, or quantities, and such actual value of every of them as the case may require; and it shall, in every case, be the duty of the appraisers of the United States, and every of them, and every other person who shall act as such appraiser, by all the reasonable ways or means in his or their power, to ascertain, estimate, and appraise the true and actual value, any invoice or affidavit thereto to the contrary notwithstanding, of the said goods, wares, and merchandise, at the time purchased, and place from whence the same shall have been imported into the United States, and the number of such yards, parcels, or quantities, and such actual value of every of them as the case may require, &c. &c.

The 9th section of the same act provides, "that it shall be the duty of the secretary of the treasury, under the direction of the President of the United States, from time to time to establish such rules and regulations, not inconsistent with the laws of the United States, as the President of the United States shall think proper, to secure a just, faithful, and impartial appraisal of all goods, wares, and merchandise as aforesaid, imported into the United States, and just and proper entries of such actual value thereof, and of the square yards, parcels, or other quantities, as the case may require, and of such actual value of every of them; and it shall be the duty of the secretary of the treasury to report all such rules and regulations, with the reasons therefor, to the next session of Congress."

The 1st section of the act of the 2d of March, 1833, entitled "An act to modify the Act of the 14th of July, 1832, and all other Acts imposing Duties on Imports," declares, "that from and after the 31st of December, 1833, in all cases where duties are imposed on foreign imports by the act of the 14th of July, 1832, entitled 'An Act to alter and amend the several Acts imposing Duties on Imports,' or by any other act, shall exceed 20 per cent. on the value thereof, one tenth part of such excess shall be deducted," &c.

It is believed that by this provision, and as necessary to the execution of the law, all duties imposed by any act of Congress upon foreign imports are substantially regulated by, and are directed to be estimated and levied upon, the value of the square yard, where that is the form, and upon some other quantity or parcel in cases where the duty is not imposed by the square yard; and that consequently the authority conferred by the 9th section aforesaid must necessarily be exercised, for the more effectual execution of the said act of the 2d of March, 1833.

The following rules and regulations are therefore established, under the direction of the President

of the United States, for the purpose of securing a just, faithful, and impartial appraisal of all goods, wares, and merchandise imported into the United States from and after the 31st of December next, and for the just and proper entries of the actual value thereof, and of the square yard, parcels or other quantities, as the case may require.

In all cases of *ad valorem* duties under the act of the 14th of July, 1832, or any other act, the regulations at present authorised by law, for ascertaining the actual value, will remain unaltered. With respect to those articles liable to a specific duty, or other duty than that of *ad valorem*, the actual value thereof at the time purchased, and place from which the same shall have been imported into the United States or in the country wherein the same may have been originally manufactured, or produced, as the case may be, will be appraised, estimated, and ascertained, and the number of yards, or square yards, tons, pounds, gallons, bushels, or other parcels or quantities, and such actual value of any of them as the case may require, and just and proper entries thereof be made, in the same manner and according to the same regulations, as are required by the said act of the 14th of July, 1832, and other acts now in force in regard to articles paying *ad valorem* duty; and in all such cases the same verification of invoices and other proofs will be required and produced as are at present authorised in respect to articles liable by previous acts to an *ad valorem* duty. The value of all such articles being thus ascertained, the proportion which the duty now paid by such articles bears to the said value will be calculated, and from the excess thereof beyond 20 per cent. there will be deducted, from and after the 31st of December next, 10 per cent.; that is to say, where such proportion shall be equal to 50 per cent., there shall be deducted 10 per cent. upon 30 per cent., or 3 dollars; and from and after the 31st of December, 1835 the like deduction shall be made from the same excess, or 10 per cent. upon 30 per cent., being 3 dollars more; and in the same manner, at the several periods specified in the said act of the 2d of March, 1833, until the 31st of December, 1841; from and after which, one half of the residue of such excess will be deducted, and the other half thereof from and after the 30th of June, 1842.

From the proportion of the duty thus ascertained upon the wines of France, in addition to the said 10 per cent., there will also be deducted such further per cent. as will be necessary to preserve the discrimination in favour of such wines, stipulated in the convention between the United States and his Majesty the King of the French, concluded at Paris on the 4th of July, 1831, and authorised by law.

It may be proper to observe, that all manufactures of cotton, or of which cotton shall be a component part, will be appraised, estimated, and ascertained, and the number of yards, square yards, or otherwise, parcel or quantities, and of such actual value thereof as the case may require, will be ascertained, and just and proper entries thereof made, according to the foregoing regulations.

It is believed that the value of foreign imports referred to in the act of the 2d of March, 1833, is not the assumed value on which the duty upon all manufactures of cotton, or of which cotton shall be a component part, is directed to be estimated under the act of the 14th of July, 1832; viz. of *thirty cents*, if not dyed, coloured, painted, or stained, though valued at less than 30 cents; and of *thirty-five cents*, if dyed, coloured, painted, or stained, though valued at less than 35 cents the square yard. This value is merely artificial, and assumed by previous laws as a means of augmenting the *ad valorem* rate of duty, imposed for the purpose of protection, upon such articles; and the amount of the duty, although ascertained by the adoption of the minimum principle, is the proportion which the sum collected by the government bears to the actual value of the article; and, therefore, a quantity of such cottons, costing in fact 80 dollars, but valued for the purpose of the act of the 14th of July, 1832, at 240 dollars, really pays a duty of 75 per cent. upon the true value thereof.

The act of the 2d of March, 1833, however, proceeds upon a different principle, and aims at a different purpose. It obviously intends to make an equal deduction from the duty on all foreign imports, and ultimately to reduce it to a rate not exceeding 20 per cent. upon the real, and not an assumed, value of the articles imported. This last purpose is explicitly stated in the last clause of the 5th section, which provides "that all imports on which the 1st section of this act may operate, and all articles now admitted to entry free of duty, or paying a less rate of duty than 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, before the said 30th of June, 1842, from and after that day may be admitted to entry, subject to such duty, not exceeding 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, as shall be provided for by law." And the 1st section, which has been already referred to, expressly provides for the deduction, after the 30th of June, 1842, of all excess of foreign imports above 20 per cent. on the value thereof, which shall have been imposed by previous laws, and to which they may then be subject.

The object of thus establishing a general *ad valorem* duty on foreign imports, and of equalising the rate, can only be attained by calculating the duty on the real instead of the assumed value. This purpose is more particularly manifest from the last clause of the 3d section, which provides, that from and after the 30th of June, 1842, "the duties required to be paid by law on goods, wares, and merchandise, shall be assessed upon the value thereof at the port where the same shall be entered, under such regulations as may be prescribed by law." Each of these clauses relates to the actual value of the foreign import, and they differ only in estimating that value; previously to the 30th of June, 1842, the value in the foreign port being taken, and after that time, the value at the port of entry. The object of neither can be accomplished at any period, by adhering either to the nominal value assumed by previous acts, or to the rate of *ad valorem* founded upon such assumption.

In all importations of manufactures of cotton, therefore, or of which cotton shall be a component part, after the 31st of December, 1832, the value thereof will be ascertained in the manner aforesaid; and from the amount which the rate of duty under the act of the 14th of July, 1832, or any other act, shall exceed 20 per cent. on such value, the deduction required by the act of the 2d of March, 1833, will be made according to the foregoing rules.

Though these rules and regulations will not go into effect until the 1st of January next, they have been thus early adopted and made public, for the purpose of giving timely notice to the manufacturers and merchants, and all others concerned; and especially as to the verification, by the consuls abroad of the invoices of importations to be made after that time.

LOUIS M'LANE, Secretary of the Treasury.

Drawback.—All articles subject to duty imported into the United States, not having been landed more than 3 years, are allowed a drawback of the duties, on exportation of the same (except foreign dried and pickled fish, and other salt provisions, and chain cables).

Credits.—When the duty on an article of which wool is not a component part does not exceed 200 dollars, it must be paid in cash without discount; when it exceeds 200 dollars, a credit of 8 months is allowed for the 1-2, and of 6 months for the other 1-2, reckoning from the date of the vessel's entry. Duties on wool, and all manufactures of wool, to be paid in cash without discount.

Discount.—When the duties on any article, except wool and woollen manufactures, exceed 200 dollars, and they are paid in cash at the time of entry, the importer is entitled to a discount of 4 per cent.

Lastage and Bearage.—On spirits, 2 per cent.; ale, beer, and porter, in bottles, 10 per cent.; all other liquors, in bottles, 5 per cent.

Restrictions.—No goods to be imported in vessels less than 30 tons burden. No beer, ale, and porter, in casks of less capacity than 40 gallons, beer measure; or, if in bottles, in packages less than 6 dozen. No distilled spirits in casks of less capacity than 30 gallons, wine measure, except brandy, which may be imported in casks of any capacity, not less than 15 gallons.

Tonnage Duty.—On American vessels, and the vessels of Denmark, Central America, Netherlands, Hamburg, Bremen, Lubeck, Prussia, Sweden, Norway, Oldenburgh, Russia, Austria, Brazil, Hanover, Papal Dominions, Portugal, and Sardinia, from whatever port or place, and on French vessels coming from Martinique and Guadeloupe, free. On French vessels from other ports, and on all other foreign vessels (except as above enumerated) coming from ports where Americans are permitted to trade, 1 dollar per ton; and from ports where Americans are not permitted to trade, 2 dollars and 50 cents per ton.

On Spanish vessels, coming direct from Spain, 6 cents per ton.

Free Goods.—The following, among other articles, are admitted free of duties:—Antimony, almonds, aloes, annotto, amber, ambergris, argols, arrowroot, arsenic, assafœtida.—Balsams, barilla, bar

ex, bleaching powder, brimstone, borax.—Cantharides; camphor, crude; capers, chalk, cinnamon, cloves, cocoa, cochineal, coffee; copper, in pigs and bars, and sheathing; cream of tartar, currants.—Dye woods of all kinds.—Fruits of all kinds, flax; furs of all kinds, all dressed.—Ginger, gums of all kinds, gunny bags.—Hemp, Manilla and Sisal, hides, horns, honey.—Ipecacuanha, juniper berries, ivory, jalap.—Lac dye, liquorice paste.—Mace, madder, mauna, marble, munjeet.—Nuts of all kinds, nutmegs, nutgalls.—Oils—of almonds, aniseed, cassia, cinnamon, cloves, palm, juniper, lavender, bergamot, lemons, roses, opium, olives.—Pepper, peruvian bark, pimento, plaster of Paris.—Quicksilver.—Rags, rhubarb.—Sarsaparilla, sulphur, shellac.—Teas, from China; tin, in bars, plates, or sheets; tartar, tortoise-shell.—Verdigris.—Wood; wool, not costing over 8 cents per lb.

The following Table exhibits the progressive reductions that will take place in the duties on some of the principal articles imported into the United States, under Mr. Clay's Bill.

Articles.	Per Cent. ad Valorem.	1833. Dec. 31. 1-10th per Cent.	1835. Dec. 31. 1-10th per Cent.	1837. Dec. 31. 1-10th per Cent.	1839. Dec 31. 1-10th per Cent.	1841. Dec. 31. Half of Excess per Cent.	1842. June 30. Remainder of Excess per Cent. ad Valorem.
Wool manufactured, the value at the place of exportation less than 8 cents per lb.	free	free	free	free	free	free	20
Wool, exceeding 8 cents per lb. at the place of exportation, 4 cents per lb. specific, and 40 per cent. equal to average	54	50·60	47·20	43·80	40·40	30·20	20
Woollen cloths, milled, fulled; known by the name of plains, kerseys, or Kendal cottons, of which wool is the only material, the value exceeding 35 cents a square yard, 5 per cent., raised by H. Clay's bill to	50	47	44	41	38	29	20
All other woollen cloths	50	47	44	41	38	29	20
Flannels, bocking, baize, 16 cents the square yard, equal to average	50	47	44	41	38	29	20
Cotton, white, costing under 30 cents a square yard, valued at 30 cents, and pay 25 per cent., equal to average	42 1-2	40·25	38	35·75	33·50	26·75	20
Cotton, coloured, valued at 35 cents a square yard, pay 25 per cent., equal to average	42 1-2	40·25	38	35·75	33·50	26·75	20
Nails, 5 cents per lb., equal to average	78	72·20	66·40	60·60	54·80	37·40	20
Spikes, 4 cents per lb., equal to average	96	88·40	80·80	73·20	65·60	42·80	20
Bruizier's rod, spike rod, sheet, hoop, slit, or rolled iron, 3 cents per lb., equal to average	113	103·70	94·40	85·10	75·80	47·90	20
Pig iron, 50 cents per cwt., equal to	43	40·70	38·40	36·10	33·80	26·90	20
Bar iron, rolled, 1 dol. 50 cts. per cwt., equal to	96	87·50	80	72·50	65	42·50	20
hammered, 90 cents per cwt., equal to	83	31·70	30·40	29·10	27·08	23·90	20

[We subjoin a statement of the arrivals at New York from foreign ports, taken from the *New York Shipping and Commercial List.*

Arrivals in 1839.	
Steamers	91
Ships	552
Barques	354
Brigs	916
Galliots	5
Schooners	411
Total	2159
Of which there were:—	
American	1,569
English	337
French	50
Swedish	46
Bremen	42
Hamburg	21
Danish	17
Colombian	11
Sicilian	11
Dutch	9
Spanish	7
Austrian	6
Prussian	6
Russian	5
Portuguese	4
Norwegian	3
Belgian	3
Haytien	3
Brazilian	2
Neapolitan	1
Tuscan	1
Hanoverian	1
Sardinian	1
Texian	1

Number of Arrivals.	
In 1830	1510
In 1831	1634
In 1832	1808
In 1833	1926
In 1834	1932
In 1835	2043
In 1836	2292
In 1837	2071
In 1838	1790
In 1839	2159
Arrivals of British vessels included in the above	
In 1830	92
In 1831	276
In 1832	369
In 1833	371
In 1834	303
In 1835	287
In 1836	367
In 1837	241
In 1838	230
In 1839	337
Number of Passengers.	
In 1830	30,224
In 1831	31,779
In 1832	48,589
In 1833	41,758
In 1834	48,110
In 1835	35,303
In 1836	60,541
In 1837	51,975
In 1838	25,581
In 1839	48,159

It may be remarked that no fact can be adduced more illustrative of the energy of the causes in operation to advance the prosperity of the city of New York, than the comparatively slight impression upon it which was produced by the great fire of the 16th of December, 1835. The value of the merchandise destroyed, was estimated by a committee appointed for the purpose, at $13,115,692; the buildings destroyed, in number 529, at $4,000,000. Contrary to general expectation abroad, few or no failures ensued as an immediate consequence of these losses.

Losses from fire are indeed so frequent, and often so extensive, in New York, as to constitute a material drawback on the rate of its advancement in wealth. We find it officially stated, in the present summer (1840), that there occurred in this city, during the period of one year, 192 fires, being an average of more than one for every 48 hours!

Of these, 90 originated in brick and fireproof buildings.
The property destroyed by the said fires, amounted in all to - - - - - $2,225,000
On which there were insurance for - - - - - - - - - - 2,952,319
The collective amounts paid by the Insurance Companies, was - - - - - 2,001,991
Leaving a balance of actual loss to the persons insured, of - - - - - - 991,319
The value of property destroyed, on which there was no insurance, amounts to - 240,000

See IMPORTS and EXPORTS, SHIPS, and TARIFF.—*Am. Ed.*]

NICARAGUA, OR PEACH WOOD (Ger. *Nicaragaholz*, *Blutholtz*; Du. *Bloedhout*, Fr. *Bois de sang*, *Bois de Nicarague*; It. *Legno sanguigno*; Sp. *Palo de sangre*; Port. *Pao sanguinho*), a tree of the same genus (*Cæsalpinia*) as the Brazil and sapan wood; but the species has not been exactly ascertained. It grows principally in the vicinity of the lake of Nicaragua, whence its name. It is said by Dr. Bancroft to be almost as red and heavy as the true Brazil wood, but it does not commonly afford more than a third part, in quantity, of the colour of the latter; and even this is rather less durable and less beautiful, though dyed with the same mordants. Nicaragua or peach woods differ greatly in their quality as well as price; one sort being so deficient in colouring matter, that 6 pounds of it will only dye as much wool or cloth as 1 pound of Brazil wood; while another variety of it will produce nearly half the effect of an equal quantity of Brazil wood, and will sell proportionally dear.—(*Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. p. 332.)

The London dealers distinguish Nicaragua wood into 3 sorts, viz. *large*, *middling*, and *small*; the price of the 1st sort (duty included) being from 14*l.* to 20*l.* per ton; of the 2d, from 8*l.* to 10*l.* per do.; and of the 3d, from 7*l.* to 8*l.* per do. The entries of Nicaragua wood for home consumption amounted, in 1831, to 1,485 tons: in 1832, they amounted to 1,980 tons; an increase that was, no doubt, in part at least, occasioned by the duty having been reduced in 1831 from 15*s.* to 5*s.* a ton.

NICKEL, a scarce metal, which occurs always in combination with other metals, from which it is exceedingly difficult to separate it. When pure, it is of a fine white colour resembling silver. It is rather softer than iron: its specific gravity, when cast, is 8·279; when hammered, 8·932. It is malleable, and may without difficulty be hammered into plates not exceeding $\frac{1}{100}$th part of an inch in thickness. It is attracted by the magnet; and is not altered by exposure to the air, nor by being kept under water. It is employed in potteries, and in the manufacture of porcelain.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

NITRE. See SALTPETRE.

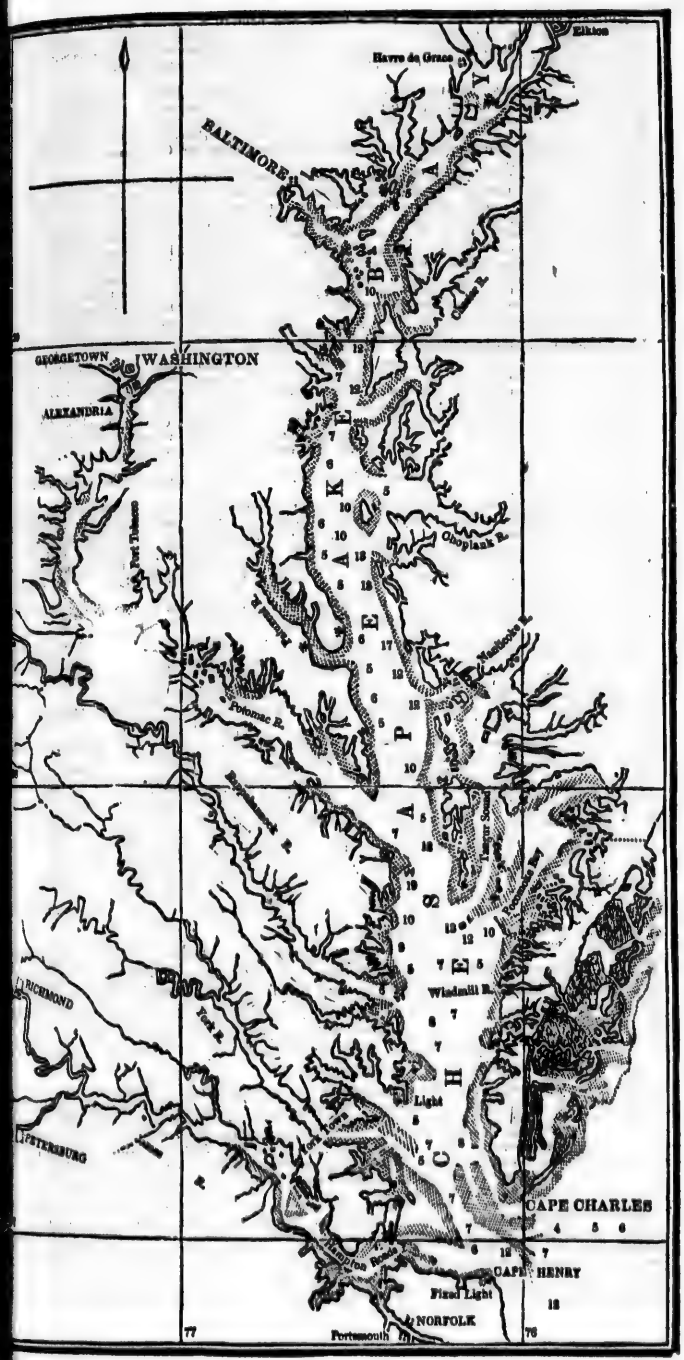
[NORFOLK, a seaport situated on Elizabeth river in Virginia, and 8 miles from Hampton Roads, in lat. 37° 12′ North, and longitude 76° 42′ West. Its harbour is capacious and deep, of easy access, and safe in all weathers. The Roads are formed by an enlargement of James river, at its mouth in the Chesapeake Bay; and they afford an anchorage for vessels, unsurpassed anywhere else in the world. These circumstances, together with the advantages of transportation furnished by the Dismal Swamp canal and the Portsmouth and Roanoke railroad, have rendered Norfolk a place of considerable trade. In this respect it takes precedence of any other place in the state of Virginia. We annex a plan of the Chesapeake Bay. See opposite page.—*Am. Ed.*]

NOTE, PROMISSORY. See BANKING, and BANKS.

NUT, OR HAZEL NUT (Ger. *Haselnüsse*; Fr. *Noisettes*, *Avelines*; It. *Nocciuole*, *Avelane*; Sp. *Avellanas*; Port. *Avellãs*; Lat. *Avellanæ*), the fruit of different species of *Corylus*, or hazels. The kernels have a mild, farinaceous, oily taste, agreeable to most palates. A kind of chocolate has been prepared from them; and they have sometimes been made into bread. The expressed oil of hazel nuts is little inferior to that of almonds. Besides those raised at home, we import nuts from different parts of France, Portugal, and Spain, but principally from the latter. The Spanish nuts in the highest estimation, though sold under the name of Barcelona nuts, are not really shipped at that city, but at Tarragona, a little more to the south. Mr. Inglis says that the annual average export of nuts from Tarragona is from 25,000 to 30,000 bags, of 4 to the ton. They cost, free on board, in autumn, 1830, 17*s.* 6*d.* per bag.—(*Spain in* 1830, vol. ii. p. 362.) The entries of nuts for home consumption amount to from 100,000 to 125,000 bushels a year; the duty of 6*s.* a bushel producing from 10,000*l.* to 12,500*l.* nett.

NUTMEG (Ger. *Muskatennüsse*; Du. *Muskaät*; Fr. *Muscades*, *Noix muscade*; It. *Noce muscada*; Sp. *Moscada*; Arab. *Jowzalteib*; Sans. *Jatiphala*; Malay, *Buah-pala*), the fruit of the genuine nutmeg tree (*Myristica Moschata*), a native of the Moluccas, but which has been transplanted to Sumatra, Penang, &c. An inferior and long-shaped nutmeg is common in Borneo; but the fruit nowhere attains to the same perfection as in the Moluccas. Of the several varieties of the tree, that denominated the Queen Nutmeg, which bears a small round fruit, is the best. The kernel, or proper nutmeg, is of a roundish oval form, marked on the outside with many vermicular furrows, within of a fleshy farinaceous substance, variegated whitish and bay. Nutmegs are frequently punctured and boiled, in order to obtain the essential oil; the orifice being afterwards closed; but the fraud is easily detected by the lightness of the nutmeg.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Ainslie's Materia Indica.*)




Elkton
Havre de Grace
BALTIMORE
GEORGETOWN
WASHINGTON
ALEXANDRIA
Potomac R.
Rappahannock R.
Chesapeake Bay
Windmill R.
RICHMOND
PETERSBURG
Light
CAPE CHARLES
CAPE HENRY
Fixed Light
NORFOLK
Portsmouth
77
76

Nutmegs should be chosen large, round, heavy, and firm, of a lightish grey colour on the out… and the inside beautifully marbled, of a strong fragrant smell, warm aromatic taste, and a fat… body. They are very subject to be worm-eaten. The best manner of packing them is in dry cha… The oblong kind, and the smaller ones, should be rejected. 15 cwt. are allowed to a ton.—(*Milburn. Orient. Com.*)

The dried produce of a nutmeg tree consists of nutmeg, mace (which see), and shell. Suppos… the whole produce to be divided into 100 parts, there are 13½ of mace, 33½ of shell, and 53½ of nut… In the ancient commerce, and down to the establishment of the Dutch monopoly, nutmegs were … ways sold and exported in the shell. The natives, whenever the commerce is left to their … ment, continue the practice, which is strongly recommended by Mr. Crawfurd.—(*East Indian Arch… lago*, vol. iii. p. 396.)

The jealous and miserable policy of the Dutch has reduced the trade in nutmegs to a mere … compared to what it would otherwise have been. They have, in so far at least as it was … exerted themselves to exterminate the nutmeg plants every where except in Banda. They bribe … native princes of the surrounding islands to root out the trees; and annually send a fleet to see … the work of destruction has been effected, and that the bribes have not been bestowed in vain. … engage in an illicit trade in spices is *death* to an inferior person, and *banishment* to a noble; and … notwithstanding these tremendous penalties, it is supposed that about 60,000 lbs. of nutmegs, … 15,000 lbs. of mace, are clandestinely exported each year! In Banda, the aboriginal inhabitants … been expatriated, and the island parcelled among settlers from Holland, under the name of *perk*… These persons, who may be turned out of their farms on the most trifling pretext, have about … slaves, who cultivate and prepare the nutmegs. The prices paid to the cultivator are all fixed … vernment; and it deserves to be mentioned, as affording one of the most striking illustrations of … ruinous effects of monopoly, that the fixed price which the government is now obliged to pay for … megs is FIVE *times greater than the price at which they bought them when the trade was free!* Such … rough outline of that monstrous system, which has reduced what used to be one of the most import… branches of Eastern commerce so low, that it is unable to afford employment for the capital of a … wealthy merchant. We cannot conceive how so enlightened and liberal a government as that … Holland should continue to tolerate such scandalous abuses—abuses destructive alike of the rights … those subjected to its authority in the East, and the commerce and wealth of its subjects at home. … (*Modern Universal History*, vol. x. p. 457—467. 8vo ed.; and *Crawfurd's Eastern Archipelago*, vol. … p. 394—413.)

Mr. Crawfurd estimates the produce of the Banda Islands at about 600,000 lbs. of nutmegs, … 150,000 lbs. of mace.

During the period that the English had possession of the spice islands, nutmeg plants were … to Penang, Bencoolen, and some of the West India islands. In the latter they have altogether fail… at least as far as respects any useful purpose; but very good nutmegs, and in considerable quantit… are now raised at Penang and Bencoolen. Mr. Crawfurd, however, alleges that the cost of bring… them to market is there so high, that the restoration of a free culture in the native country of the … meg would instantly destroy this unstable and factitious branch of industry.—(*Eastern Archipe…* vol. iii. p. 409.)

The duty on nutmegs was reduced, in 1819, from 5*s.* 5*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb.; and the quantities … for home consumption have since rapidly increased. We subjoin

An Account of the Quantities of Nutmegs retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom, … each Year since 1810, the Nett Amount of Duty received thereon, and the Rates of Duty.

Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Nett Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty charged thereon.	Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Nett Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty charged thereon.
		L. *s.* *d.*				*L.* *s.* *d.*	
1810	39,137	11,166 11 1	{ 4*s.* 8*d.* per lb. and 2*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* per cent. ad valorem.	1820	90,771 1-4	11,212 8 9	2*s.* 6*d.* per lb.
				1821	94,599 1-4	11,731 5 5	ditto
1811	50,060	14,462 14 4	ditto	1822	112,066	14,000 10 6	ditto
1812	47,196	11,805 2 9	ditto	1823	117,767 3-4	14,725 7 9	ditto
1813	Records destroyed.		{ (From 15 April) 5*s.* 6 1-2*d.* per lb. and 3*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.* per cent. ad valorem.	1824	129,702	16,176 19 7	ditto
				1825	90,214 1-2	13,406 13 2	ditto
1814	43,160	14,710 2 3	(From 10 April) 5*s.* 5*d.* per lb.	1826	101,117 1-4	12,623 13 10	ditto
1815	59,830	15,329 11 1	ditto	1827	125,529	15,707 2 3	ditto
1816	54,677	14,808 2 3	ditto	1828	140,062 1-2	17,514 6 4	ditto
1817	66,747 1-2	17,808 1 3	ditto	1829	113,273 1-2	14,114 6 2	ditto
1818	66,351 1-2	17,944 8 6	ditto	1830	121,260	15,158 0 0	ditto
1819	107,575	17,936 19 5	(From 5 July) 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb.	1831	152,399	18,025 0 0	ditto
				1832	117,405	14,675 0 0	ditto

[See IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—*Am. Ed.*]

NUTRIA, or NEUTRIA, the commercial name for the skins of *Myopotamus Boo… ensis* (Commerson), the *Coypou* of Molina, and the *Quoiya* of D'Azara. In France, … skins were, and perhaps still are, sold under the name of *racoonda*; but in England th… are imported as *nutria* skins—deriving their appellation, most probably, from some supp… similarity of the animal which produces them, in appearance and habits, to the otter, … Spanish name for which is nutria. Indeed, Molina speaks of the *coypou* as a specie… water rat, of the size and colour of the otter.

Nutria fur is largely used in the hat manufacture; and has become, within the last 15 or 20 y… an article of very considerable commercial importance. The imports fluctuate considerably. In … they amounted to 1,570,103 skins; but they have not in any other year been much more than half … number. In 1826, they were only 60,871. In 1831 and 1832, the imports were, at an average, 15… skins a year. Those entered for home consumption pay a duty of 1½*d.* a skin. They are princip… brought from the Rio de la Plata. Nutria skins are very extensively used on the Continent. G… froy mentions*, that in certain years, a single French furrier (M. Bechem), has received from 15… to 20,000 skins.—(See FUR TRADE.)

The *coypou* or *quoiya* is a native of South America, very common in the provinces of Chili, Bue… Ayres, and Tucuman, but more rare in Paraguay. In size it is less than the beaver, which it re… bles in many points. The head is large and depressed, the ears small and rounded, the neck … and short, the muzzle sharper than that of the beaver, and the whiskers very long and stiff. Th… are, as in the beaver, 2 incisor teeth, and 8 molar, above and below—20 teeth in all. The limbs …

* Annales du Muséum, vol. vi. p. 89. The figure given is, generally speaking, good: but the tail … too hairy, and contradicts the description.

rt. The fore feet have each 5 fingers not webbed, the thumb being very small: the hind feet have ame number of toes; the great toe and 3 next toes being joined by a web which extends to their ds, and the little toe being free, but edged with a membrane on its inner side. The nails are com- sed, long, crooked, and sharp. The tail, unlike that of the beaver, is long, round, and hairy; but hairs are not numerous, and permit the scaly texture of the skin in this part to be seen. The back 's brownish red, which becomes redder on the flanks: the belly is of a dirty red. The edges of lips and extremity of the muzzle are white.

ike the beaver, the coypou is furnished with 2 kinds of fur; viz. the long ruddy hair which gives tone of colour, and the brownish ash-coloured fur at its base, which, like the down of the beaver, of much importance in hat making, and the cause of the animal's commercial value.

The habits of the coypou are much like those of most of the other aquatic rodent animals. Its prin- al food, in a state of nature, is vegetable. It affects the neighbourhood of water, and swims per- ly well, and burrows in the ground. The female brings forth from 5 to 7 at a time; and the young ays accompany her.

The coypou is easily domesticated, and its manners in captivity are very mild.

x.* We are indebted for this account of nutria—the first, we believe, that appeared in any English to W. J. Broderip, Esq., F. R. S., &c.

NUX VOMICA (Fr. *Noix Vomique*; Hind. *Kaachla*), the fruit of a species of *Strych-* , growing in various places in the East Indies. The fruit is about the size of an orange, ered with a smooth crustaceous yellow bark, and filled with a fleshy pulp, in which are imbed- several orbicular flatted seeds, about ¾ of an inch in diameter. Nux vomica is inodorous, has a very bitter, acrid taste, which remains long on the palate. It is known as a very lent poison. A suspicion has, however, been entertained, that it has been used in por- breweries; but its introduction into them is prohibited under heavy penalties.—(*Thom- 's Dispensatory, &c.*)

O.

OAK (Ger. *Eiche*; Du. *Eik*; Da. *Eeg*; Sw. *Ek*; Fr. *Chêne*; It. *Quercia*; Sp. *Roble*, *rballo*; Port. *Roble*, *Carbalho*; Rus. *Dub*; Pol. *Dab*; Lat. *Quercus*; Arab. *Baalut*). ere are several varieties of this valuable tree; but the common English oak (*Quercus ur*) claims precedence of every other. The oak timber imported from America is very erior to that of this country: the oak from the central parts of Europe is also inferior, ecially in compactness and resistance of cleavage. The knotty oak of England, the wedgeable and gnarled oak," as Shakspeare called it, when cut down at a proper age om 50 to 70 years), is the best timber known. Some timber is harder, some more ficult to rend, and some less capable of being broken across; but none contains all the ee qualities in so great and equal proportions; and thus, for at once supporting a weight, isting a strain, and not splintering by a cannon shot, the timber of the oak is superior to ry other.

A fine oak is one of the most picturesque of trees: it conveys to the mind associations strength and duration, which are very impressive. The oak stands up against the blast, d does not take, like other trees, a twisted form from the action of the winds. Except the ar of Lebanon, no tree is so remarkable for the stoutness of its limbs; they do not ex- ly spring from the trunk, but divide from it; and thus it is sometimes difficult to know ich is stem and which is branch. The twisted branches of the oak, too, add greatly to beauty; and the horizontal direction of its boughs, spreading over a large surface, com- tes the idea of its sovereignty over all the trees of the forest. Even a decayed oak,

> "——— dry and dead,
> Still clad with reliques of its trophies old,
> Lifting to heaven its aged, hoary head,
> Whose foot on earth has got but feeble hold,"

ven such a tree as Spencer has thus described, is strikingly beautiful; decay in this e looks pleasing. To such an oak Lucan compared Pompey in his decline:—

> "Qualis frugifero quercus sublimis in agro
> Exuvias veteres populi, [illegible]aque gestans
> Dona ducum; nec jam v[illegible]idicibus hærens,
> Pondere fixa suo est; nudosque per æra ramos
> Effundens, trunco, non frondibus, efficit umbram.
> At quamvis primo metet casura sub Euro,
> Tot circum silvæ firmo se robore tollant,
> Sola tamen colitur."—(Lib. i. lin. 136.)

The oak is raised from acorns, sown either where the oak is to stand, or in a nursery ence the young trees are transplanted.

The colour of oak wood is a fine brown, and is familiar to every one: it is of different ades; that inclined to red is the most inferior kind of wood. The larger transverse septa in general very distinct, producing beautiful flowers when cut obliquely. Where the ta are small, and not very distinct, the wood is much the strongest. The texture is alter- ely compact and porous; the compact part of the annual ring being of the darkest colour, in irregular dots, surrounded by open pores, producing beautiful dark veins in some ds, particularly pollard oaks. Oak timber has a particular smell, and the taste is slightly ringent. It contains gallic acid, and is blackened by contact with iron when it is damp.

The young wood of English oak is very tough, and often cross-grained, and difficult to work. Foreign wood, and that of old trees, is more brittle and workable. Oak warps and twists much in drying; and, in seasoning, shrinks about $\frac{1}{32}$d of its width.

Oak of a good quality is more durable than any other wood that attains a like size. Vitruvius says it is of eternal duration when driven into the earth: it is extremely durable in water; and in a dry state it has been known to last nearly 1,000 years. The more compact it is, and the smaller the pores are, the longer it will last; but the open, porous, and coarse-coloured oak, which grows in Lincolnshire and some other places, is not near so durable.

Besides the common British oak (*Quercus robur*), the sessile-fruited bay oak (*Quercus sessiliflora*) is pretty abundant in several parts of England, particularly in the north. The wood of this species is said by Tredgold to be darker, heavier, harder, and more elastic than the common oak; tough, and difficult to work; and very subject to warp and split in seasoning. Mr. Tredgold seems disposed to regard this species as superior to the common oak for ship building. But other, and also very high authorities, are opposed to him on this point; and, on the whole, we should think that it is sufficiently well established, that for all the great practical purposes to which oak timber is applied, and especially for ship building, the wood of the common oak deserves to be preferred to every other species. A well-informed writer in the *Quarterly Review* has the following remarks on the point in question:—

"We may here notice a fact long known to botanists, but of which our planters and purveyors of timber appear to have had no suspicion,—that there are two distinct species of oak in England,—the *Quercus robur*, and the *Quercus sessiliflora*; the former of which affords a close-grained, firm, and tough timber, rarely subject to rot; the other more loose and sappy, very liable to rot, and not half so durable. This difference was noted so early as the time of Ray; and Martyn in his *Flora Rustica*, and the late James Smith in his *Flora Britannica*, have added their testimonies to the fact. The second species is supposed to have been introduced some 2 or 3 ages ago, from the Continent, where the oaks are chiefly of this latter species, especially in the German forests, the timber of which is known to be very worthless. But what is of more importance to us is, that *de facto* the imposture abounds, and is propagated vigorously, in the New Forest and other parts of Hampshire; in Norfolk, and the northern counties, and about London; and there is but too much reason to believe that the numerous complaints that were heard about our ships being infected with what was called, improperly enough, *dry rot*, were owing to the introduction of this species of oak into the naval dock-yards, where, we understand, the distinction was not even suspected. It may thus be discriminated from the true old English oak:—The acorn stalks of the *robur* are *long*, and its leaves *short*; whereas the *sessiliflora* has the acorn stalks *short*, and the leaves *long*; the acorns of the former grow singly, or seldom two on the same footstalk; those of the latter, in clusters of 2 or 3 close to the stem of the branch. We believe the Russian ships of the Baltic, that are not of larch or fir, are built of this species of oak; but if this were not the case, their exposure on the stocks, without cover, to the heat of summer, which, though short, is excessive, and the rifts and chinks which fill up with ice and snow in the long winter, are enough to destroy the stoutest oak, and quite sufficient to account for their short-lived duration."

A great deal of inquiry and discussion has taken place at different periods as to the supply and consumption of oak timber; but the results have not been very satisfactory. In a *Report of the Commissioners of Land Revenue*, printed in 1812, it is stated that, taking the tonnage of the navy in 1806 at 776,087 tons, it would require, at 1½ load to a ton, 1,164,085 loads to build such a navy; and supposing the average duration of a ship to be 14 years, the annual quantity of timber required would be 83,148 loads, exclusive of repairs, which they calculate would be about 27,000 loads; making the whole about 110,000 loads: of which, however, the commissioners reckon may be furnished 21,341 loads by the annual average of the prizes; and of the remaining 88,659 loads, they think it not unreasonable to calculate on 28,659 from other sources than British oak. "This," they observe, "leaves 60,000 loads of such oak, as the quantity which would be sufficient annually to support, at its present unexampled magnitude, the whole British navy, including ships of war of all sorts; but which may be taken as equivalent together to 20 74-gun ships, each of which, one with another, contains about 2,000 tons, or would require, at the rate of 1½ load to the ton, 3,000 loads; making just 60,000 loads for 20 such ships."

Now, it has been supposed that not more than 40 oak trees can stand on an acre of ground, so as to grow to a full size fit for ships of the line, or to contain each 1½ load of timber: 50 acres, therefore, would be required to produce a sufficient quantity of timber to build a 74-gun ship, and 1,000 acres for 20 such ships; and as the oak requires at least 100 years to arrive at maturity, 100,000 acres would be required to keep up a successive supply, for maintaining a navy of 700,000 or 800,000 tons. The commissioners further observe, that as there are 20,000,000 acres of waste lands in the kingdom, a tenth part set aside for planting would at once furnish the whole quantity wanted for the use of the navy.

According to Mr. Barrow, this calculation is over-rated by about a half. "In the first place," says he, "it is supposed a state of perpetual war, during which the tonnage of the whole navy is considered as more than double of what it now actually is: and, in the second place, it reckons the average duration of the navy at 14 years only; which, from the improvements that have taken place in the construction and preservation of ships of war, with the resources of teak ships built in India, we should not hesitate in assuming at an average of twice that number of years; and if so, the quantity of timber required for the navy will be nothing like that which the commissioners have stated.

"The fact, however, is certain, that long before the conclusion of the late war, a scarcity began to be felt, especially of the larger kind of timber fit for ships of the line; and so great was this scarcity that if Sir Robert Seppings had not contrived the means of substituting straight timber for that of different forms and dimensions, before considered to be indispensable, the building of new ships must entirely have ceased.

"If, however, the growth of oak for ship timber was greatly diminished during the war, so as to threaten an alarming scarcity, there is little doubt that, from the increased attention paid by individuals to their young plantations, and their great extension, as well as from the measure of allotting portions of the royal forests to those who had claims on them, and inclosing the remainder for the use of the public, this country will, in future times, be fully adequate to the production of oak timber equal to the demand for the naval and mercantile marine."—(*Supp. Ency. Brit.* art. *Navy.*)

The bark of the oak tree is very valuable. It is preferred to all other substances for the purpose of tanning, and brings a high price.—(See BARK.)

The foreign oak timber imported into Great Britain is principally derived from Canada and Prussia. The latter is the most valuable—its price being to the former in the proportion of about 9 to 6; but

of a load of Prussian oak timber brought 9*l.*, a load of Canada ditto would not bring more than about 4*l.* The quantity imported varies; but may, at an average, amount to about 10,000 loads, of 50 cubic feet each; the greater part from Quebec. Oak plank is almost wholly imported from Prussia. The quantities imported during the 6 years ending the 5th of January, 1833, were—

Years.	Loads.	Years.	Loads.	Years.	Loads.
1827	5,470	1829	1,434	1831	2,525
1828	2,449	1830	1,542	1832	1,789

For further details with respect to the importation of oak, its price, duty on, &c., see WOOD,—See also, *Tredgold's Principles of Carpentry*; art. *Navy, Supplement to Ency. Brit.*; the very interesting work on *Timber, Trees and Fruits*, in the *Library of Entertaining Knowledge*; *Rees's Cyclopædia*, &c.

OATS (Ger. *Hafer*; Du. *Havre*; Da. *Havre*; Sw. *Hafre*; Fr. *Avoine*; It. *Vena*, *Avena*; Sp. *Avena*; Port. *Avea*; Russ. *Owes*; Pol. *Owies*), a species of grain, the *Avena sativa* of botanists. There are innumerable varieties of this grain, some of which are said to be indigenous to Britain. It is the hardiest of all the cereal grasses, growing luxuriantly in cold northern climates, and in coarse mountainous districts, where neither wheat nor barley can be advantageously cultivated. It thrives best, and is, indeed, chiefly raised, in latitudes north of Paris; being but little [illegible] south of France, Spain, or Portugal. It is, however, cultivated in Bengal, so far as the [illegible] degree of latitude, and, it [illegible], with considerable success. In Scotland, where it has long formed a principal part of the food of the people, it is far more generally cultivated than any other species of grain. It is also very extensively cultivated in Ireland. In England it is grown principally in the northern counties, and in the fens of Lincoln, Huntingdon, Cambridge, and Norfolk; but the oats of Northumberland and Scotland are reckoned superior to those raised farther south.

There are 4 leading varieties of this grain, cultivated in England, viz. white, black, grey, and brown or red oats. The sub-varieties of the white are numerous. That denominated the potato oat is at present almost the only one raised on land in a good state of cultivation in the north of England and the south of Scotland, and usually brings a higher price in the London market than any other variety. It was accidentally discovered growing in a field of potatoes in Cumberland in 1788; and from the produce of that single stalk has been produced the stock now in general cultivation. Black and grey oats are little cultivated, except in some places in the north of Scotland. The red oat is chiefly confined to Cheshire, Derbyshire, and Staffordshire. A species of naked oats, provincially called *pillar*, is raised in Cornwall.—(*Loudon's Encyc. of Agriculture*; *Brown's Rural Economy*, vol. ii. pp. 47—52.)

In 1765, Mr. Charles Smith estimated the number of consumers of oats in England and Wales at 623,000.—(*Tracts on the Corn Trade*, 2d edit. p. 140.); but at present we believe they are very considerably fewer. The feeding of horses has at all times occasioned the greatest consumption of oats in this part of the kingdom; and as the number of horses kept for business and pleasure has been vastly increased within the last 30 or 40 years, the culture of oats has been considerably extended, notwithstanding the increasing imports from Ireland. Perhaps the produce of no species of grain varies more than that of oats. Where the ground is foul and exhausted, not more than 20 bushels an acre are obtained; but on rich soils, well managed, 64, 72, and sometimes 80 bushels and upwards have been reaped. Oats yield, at an average, 8 lbs. meal for 14 lbs. corn.

For information as to the laws regulating the importation and exportation of oats, their prices, the quantities imported and exported, &c., see CORN LAWS AND CORN TRADE.

ODESSA, a flourishing sea-port of Southern Russia, on the north-west coast of the Black Sea, between the rivers Dniester and Bug, in lat. 46° 28′ 54″ N., lon. 30° 43′ 22″ E. Population said to amount to 40,000. The foundations of Odessa were laid so lately as 1792, by order of the Empress Catharine, after the peace of Jassy. It was intended to serve as an *entrepot* for the commerce of the Russian dominions on the Black Sea and the sea of Azoff, and has in a great measure answered the expectations of its founders. By an Imperial ukase, dated the 7th of February, 1817, it was declared a free port, and the inhabitants exempted from taxation for 30 years; since which period its increase has been extremely rapid. The bay or roadstead of Odessa is extensive, the water deep, and the anchorage good, the bottom being fine sand and gravel; it is, however, exposed to the south-easterly wind, which renders it less safe in winter. The port, which is artificial, being formed by 2 moles, one of which projects to a considerable distance into the sea, is calculated to contain about 300 ships. It has also the advantage of deep water. There is a convenient lazaretto, on the model of that of Marseilles. The want of fresh water used to be the greatest disadvantage under which the inhabitants laboured; but this has been obviated by the construction of a canal which conveys an abundant supply of water into the town. There are no trees in the vicinity, which has, in consequence, a bleak and arid appearance.

Light-houses.—A light-house has been erected on Cape Fontan, about 6¼ nautical miles S. of Odessa. The light, which formerly revolved, is now *fixed*, and is about 203 (Russian) feet above the level of the sea. At the distance of 11 leagues E.S.E. ¼ S. from Odessa, on the north end of the long, narrow, low island of Tendra, a light-house has been erected, of great use to ships approaching Odessa from the S. or W. The lantern, elevated 92½ (Russian) feet above the level of the sea, was lighted, for the first time, on the 15th of September, 1827. It consists of 3 reflecting lights, suspended in the form of a triangle, revolving in the space of 4 minutes, so that each lamp arrives at its maximum of brilliancy after an interval of 1 min. 20 sec. Being also of a *red* colour, this light is readily distinguished from Fontan light, and the other lights in the Black Sea. In foggy weather, a bell is kept ringing.—(*Coulier sur les Phares*, 2d ed.; *Norrie's Sailing Directions for the Mediterranean and Black Seas, &c.*)

For several years after Odessa was founded, wheat formed almost the only, as it still forms the principal, article of export.—(For details which respect to the corn trade of Odessa, see vol. i. p. 513.) But tallow is now of almost equal importance, and considerable quantities of wool, iron, hides, copper, wax, caviare, potash, salt beef, furs, cordage, sail-cloth, tar, butter, isinglass, &c. are also exported. The tallow of Odessa is of a bright yellow straw colour, and is said to be superior to that of Petersburgh. The following account of the quantity (since 1824) and value of the tallow exported from Odessa from 1817, sets the rapid increase in the trade in this article, and its importance in a very striking point of view:—

Years.	Value of Tallow exported.	Years.	Value of Tallow exported.	Quantity.	Years.	Value of Tallow exported.	Quantity.
	Rubles.		*Rubles.*	*Poods.*		*Rubles.*	*Pouds.*
1817	90,318	1823	2,184,762		1829	1,132,311	160,084
1818	185,110	1824	1,674,566	209,118	1830	2,190,802	245,028
1819	368,792	1825	2,687,334	316,157	1831	2,963,125	287,340
1820	1,137,461	1826	2,900,000	231,873	1832	3,160,000	291,172
1821	1,591,540	1827	1,661,112	195,425	1833	5,299,327	400,148
1822	991,323	1828	166,701	13,686	1834	9,000,000 ?	788,851

This Table serves to give some idea of the vast means which the south of Russia possesses for carrying on commerce. The exports of tallow have increased twenty-fold in 10 years; materially augmenting the value of the herds, and enriching vast countries, which must have remained comparatively poor, had not this outlet been found for their produce.

The increase in the exportation of wool is also very considerable. Within the last 20 years, the Merino breed of sheep has been extensively introduced into the governments of Taurida, Cherson, and Ekaterinoslov; so that there has been not only a great increase in the quantity, but also a very decided improvement in the quality, of the wool exported.

The iron shipped at Odessa is principally brought from Siberia, partly by the Wolga, and partly by the Don to Taganrog, whence it is conveyed to Odessa. A good deal of it is in a manufactured state, from the founderies at Tula; but the demand for it both in Europe and Asia has been perceptibly diminishing for some years past, and the exports are now comparatively small. Timber for ship-building, and pitch, and tar, are also brought from Taganrog. In fact, from its not being at the mouth of any great river, nor having any considerable manufactures, Odessa is not a port for the exportation of what may be termed articles of native growth: but in consequence of its convenient situation, and the privileges which it enjoys, it is, as already remarked, the emporium where most of the produce of Southern Russia, destined for foreign countries, is collected previously to its being exported, and where most of the foreign articles required for home consumption are primarily imported. The shallowness of the water at Taganrog, and the short period during which the Sea of Azoff is navigable, hinder foreign vessels of considerable burden from visiting her port, and occasion the shipment of a considerable part of the produce brought down the Wolga and the Don in lighters to Caffa and Odessa, particularly the latter. A good deal is, however, exported direct from Taganrog to the Mediterranean. All the products brought down the Dniester, the Bug, and the Dnieper, are exported from Odessa; but, owing to the difficult navigation of the first and last mentioned rivers, most part of the corn brought to Odessa from Podolia, the Ukraine, &c. is conveyed in waggons drawn by oxen.—(See vol. i. p. 513.)

Corn Trade.—The principal trade of Odessa is with Constantinople, Smyrna, and other towns in the Levant, Naples, Leghorn, Genoa, Marseilles, &c. "It is generally stated," says Mr. Jacob (*Memoir on the Trade of the Black Sea*, in the *Appendix* to the 8vo edition of *Tracts on the Corn Trade*), "that the supply of Constantinople requires annually 100,000 quarters of Black Sea wheat. The Greek islands scarcely, on the average of years, produce sufficient wheat for their own consumption, and, in some years, require a large supply, which is furnished partly from the neighbouring continent, and partly from the Black Sea.

"The Asiatic coasts of the Turkish empire, especially in Anatolia, are nearly in the same predicament. At times the market of Smyrna is very favourable for the sale of the corn of Southern Russia. The islands of Malta and Gozo produce only about half as much corn as the 120,000 inhabitants require.

"Sicily, though it has greatly declined from its ancient productiveness, has still a quantity of grain to spare for the less fruitful parts of Italy, in most years; and its wheat enters into competition with that of the Black Sea, in the ports of Naples, Genoa, and Leghorn.

"There are few years in which Tuscany grows a sufficiency of wheat; and its chief port, Leghorn, being one of those in which ships can unload their cargoes of corn, without being detained to perform quarantine, has been at all times a place of deposit for the wheat of the Black Sea. A market at some price may always be found there, as the capitalists are disposed to purchase; relying on the uncertain productiveness of some adjacent country, in which they may realise a profit at no great distance.

"Genoa, like Leghorn, is a port where wheat can be unloaded within the bounds of the lazaretto. The country around it yields but little wheat; and, at some periods, it enjoys a trade in that article even as far as Sunderland. This internal demand, and the chance of advantageous re-exportation, induces much trade in corn. There is said to be seldom less than 100,000 quarters in store at the two ports of Genoa and Leghorn; and at some periods, a far greater quantity.

"Nice, though not having the same advantageous quarantine regulations, and, consequently, not being a *dépôt* for corn beyond its own demand, from the sterile soil that surrounds it, requires every year a large importation of wheat. That of Sicily and Odessa create a competition in its port; and the government draws a revenue, by imposing a heavy duty on both.

"Though the corn laws of France have kept the ports closed against the introduction of foreign corn for domestic use, yet it is allowed to be bonded for re-exportation. From the frequent local and partial

scarcities which occur on the eastern coast of Spain, at which periods wheat is allowed to be lawfully imported, and, it is said, from the facility of its introduction by contraband, when not legally allowed, Marseilles has been a great *depôt* for the wheat of the Black Sea.

"From thence, as also from Gibraltar, where there is generally some in store, it can easily be transported to Spain, to Sardinia, to Corsica, to Tunis, to Tripoli, or wherever scarcity has created a beneficial market.

"The coasts of Barbary, though often having a surplus of wheat, much of which occasionally assists to feed Portugal, in some seasons have been affected with most deficient harvests. This was recently the case in a remarkable degree. Tripoli and Tunis experienced, in the year 1820, a harvest most miserably short, and were supplied from other countries."

Charges on Shipping Corn.—In 1816, the expense of delivering a chetwert of wheat free on board, including commission, warehouse rent, and shipping charges, amounted to upwards of 5 roubles; but at present (1836) it does not exceed 3 roubles. The duties per chetwert are as follow:—

	Wheat.	Other grain.
Export duty	21 3-5ths. cop.	11 cop.
Quarantine	1-4 —	1-4 —
Town and harbour duties	7 1-4 —	2 —
Lycenm duty	5 —	9 —
	36 1-2	24 1-4

The warehouse rent of corn at Odessa is from 8 to 10 copecks per chetwert per month. M. De Hagemeister supposes that Turkey, and the different ports of the Mediterranean require, at an average, an annual supply of 1,400,000 chetwerts, or about 1,050,000 quarters, of which 1,000,000 chetwerts, or 750,000 quarters, are furnished by Southern Russia, and principally shipped from Odessa. Wallachia and Moldavia are both very fertile in corn; and were tranquillity and good order introduced into them, and the free navigation of the Danube secured, Galacz and Brailoff would be two of the principal European grain shipping ports. (See the excellent report of Hagemeister on the Trade of the Black Sea, pp. 98—114. Eng. Trans.)

Tallow exported from Odessa pays an export duty of 8 roubles per 10 poods.

Exclusive of corn, the other articles mentioned as being exported from Odessa, find their way to the different markets in the Mediterranean. Those shipped for Turkey are iron, tallow, sail-cloth, cordage, anchors for ships of war, butter, &c. The exports to Italy and other European countries are similar.

The importation of all foreign articles into the Russian dominions on the Black Sea and the Sea of Azoff is confined to Odessa, Theodosia or Kaffa, and Taganrog. The import trade is, however, of inferior importance when compared with the export trade. The principal articles are sugar and coffee, dye woods, wine and brandy, cotton stuffs and yarn, woollen and silk manufactures, spices, cutlery; oranges, lemons, figs, and other fruit; lemon juice oil, tin and tin plates, dried fruits, paper, silk, specie, &c.

Principal Articles imported into Odessa in the following Years:—

Articles.	1824.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.
Coffee . poods	2,882	2,815	2,747	3,034	3,684	3,642	3,045	5,014
Sugar, raw . —	2,183	2,746	663	3,744	4,262	6,733	5,362	10,357
refined . —	.	.	.	12,159	12,280	11,234	22,125	21,188
Olive oil . —	27,017	27,649	25,797	18,327	7,030	18,308	50,987	68,626
Cotton, raw . —	6,410	3,801	6,478	3,436	1,110	1,403	6,269	6,194
twist . —	11,916	5,892	6,650	5,005	2,360	340	3,575	3,121
Silk . —	747	643	2,968	2,755	1,039	107	2,146	1,658
Tea . —	.	.	.	345	522	606	120	600
Pepper . —	.	.	.	.	4,630	2,387	7,643	5,971
Tin plates . —	.	.	.	.	1,131	1,973	1,160	2,632
Incense . —	.	.	.	.	5,906	6,027	7,750	14,403
Okra . —	.	.	.	.	15,879	4,544	18,779	16,504
Tobacco . —	.	.	.	.	13,901	5,901	13,022	12,828
Wine . eimers	2,485	2,498	2,126	13,434	12,524	5,094	21,823	13,861
bottles	6,341	8,138	11,995	31,055	12 691	24,040	53,413	27,353
Fruit, for . Rou.	1,178,016	1,217,034	1,138,806	946,102	570,143	1,067,152	1,180,354	1,965,558
Cotton manufactures . —	66,160	118,674	259,446	611,419	369,677	492,321	744,.84	
Woollen do. . —	42,647	154,936	152,068	226,973	226,719	246,468	354,476	
cloth . —	.	.	.	326,061	152,617	207,070	311,799	1,536,908
Silk manufactures . —	287,954	237,987	255,741	494,428	324,202	248,953	256,830	
Dye woods and colours . —	473,620	164,706	55,847	102,856	8,867	55,641	125,123	181,561

Principal Articles exported from Odessa in the following Years:—

Articles.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.
Wheat . chetwerts	1,200,826	23,960	317,683	1,215,189	457,382	807,903	465,559	69,217 In 1833 there was an almost total failure of the harvest in Southern Russia.
Rye . —	30,040	2,050	.	3,278	14,249	17,185	2,043	
Barley . —	6,852	277	2,507	62,543	15,029	5,277	2,291	
Oats . —	5	707	3,030	29,244	33,600	33,182	12,363	
Wheat flour —	.	10,282	22,155	15,356	40	17	355	
Linseed . —	231	.	.	6,327	12,356	28,765	58,923	16,525
Tallow . poods	195,425	13,686	160,024	245,038	287,240	291,173	400,146	788,851
Hides, raw —	80,966	3,032	15,246	23,705	41,050	26,079	80,906	
tanned —	56,430	6,045	30,944	3,452	.	4,075	9,964	No returns.
yuft in —	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	
Potashes . —	3,118	.	3,019	.	3,347	8,900	14,642	16,912
Cordage . —	71,330	11,317	12,886	63,901	94,360	77,916	49,842	29,989
Flax . —	1,489	.	.	.	7	1,352	16,962	8,709
Wax . —	4,152	49	598	4,379	5,741	12,468	8,376	1,307
Hemp . —	13,040	.	751	14,806	822	3,626	19,609	20,598
Copper . —	2,915	194	.	.	19,000	12,920	5,568	5,533
Iron . —	73,413	3,452	2,524	17,364	.	14,417	32,519	19,954
Salt butter —	1,200	1,304	10,257	5,911	5,037	4,545	5,655	No returns.
Caviare —	2,800	2,089	4,942	5,393	1,629	3,204	2,420	
Wool —	30,000	5,115	5,403	21,361	35,058	41,558	66,457	66,901
Total value of exports by sea . Rou.	18,479,632	1,248,543	7,240,325	27,031,900	20,063,953	29,108,259	24,552,205	17,855,896
Ditto of imports —	10,186,347	5,735,224	7,810,806	15,337,481	12,923,056	14,983,929	14,387,806	14,425,516

Movement of Shipping at the Port of Odessa in the following Years.

Vessels.	1826.		1827.		1828.		1829.		1830.		1831.	
	Arrived.	Sailed.	Arrived.	Sailed.	Arrived.	Sailed.	Arrived.	Sailed.	Arrived.	Sailed.	Arrived.	Sailed.
Russian	164	111	167	122	50	38	24	30	173	194	155	130
Austrian	189	195	262	276	56	41	81	80	219	217	114	107
Sardinian	113	116	226	235	14	11	48	35	244	231	48	42
English*	106	105	155	143	4	8	62	42	147	149	91	85
French	1	. .	1	1	. .	. .	4	2	2	1	2	2
Swedish	. .	. .	2	2	. .	. .	. .	. .	2	2	1	1
Dutch	. .	. .	. .	. .	1	. .	. .	. .	2	2		
Spanish	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	1	1	5	5	2	2
Neapolitan	. .	. .	. .	. .	3	. .	2	2	16	14	4	3
Turkish	8	10	9	7	1	1	1	. .	11	11	3	3
American	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2	2		4
Greek	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	54	54	27	24
Tuscan	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	3	3		
Total	587	539	822	786	130	99	224	193	872	900	432	411

The previous statements, for which we are indebted partly to the Report of M. De Hagemeister, and partly to official and private sources, show the effect of the war between Russia and Turkey on the trade of Odessa; but it has again resumed its former activity; and will, doubtless, continue progressively to increase with the improvement of the vast countries of which it is the principal *entrepôt*. Several American merchantmen appeared, for the first time, in the Black Sea, in 1830.

A tribunal of commerce was established at Odessa in 1824, the jurisdiction of which extends over all disputes connected with trade. There is no appeal from its decision, except to the senate. Its institution is said to have been productive of considerable advantage.

There are 12 sworn brokers, approved and licensed by the Tribunal of Commerce, who have deputies appointed by themselves. They receive ½ per cent. from each party as commission. They are bound to register the various transactions in which they are employed.

A discount or loan bank was established at Odessa in 1828, which discounts bills, not having more than 4 months to run, at the rate of 6 per cent. interest; and makes advances upon the security of goods. Two institutions for marine insurance, and one for fire insurance, have been established within the last 4 or 5 years.

Most articles of provision are very cheap. Beef may be bought for ½*d.* or 1*d.* per lb.; a quarter of lamb for 5*d.*; and poultry at proportionally low prices. Fish costs almost nothing, and is excellent. Water is an expensive article; and firewood is for the most part scarce and dear. Latterly, however, the inhabitants have begun to supply themselves with coal from Bakhmoute, in the government of Ekaterinoslov. A good deal of English coal has been taken to Odessa as ballast, and sold at a fair price.—(*Morton's Travels in Russia*, p. 262. &c.)

Monies, Weights, and Measures, same as at Petersburg; which see.

Odessa has a considerable and increasing trade with Redout-kalé, at the mouth of the Phasis, and with Trebisond and several ports on the south coast of the Black Sea. Georgian and Armenian merchants are already considerable purchasers at the Leipsic and other German fairs; and civilisation is beginning to strike its roots throughout all the extensive countries between the Black Sea and the Caspian. It is probable that, at no very remote period, the Phasis will be frequented by British ships; and that our merchants, without any enchantress to aid them, and depending only on the superior cheapness and excellence of their goods, will be hospitably received in the ancient Colchis, and bear away a richer prize than fell to the lot of Jason and his Argonauts.

Account of Imports at Redout-kalé from Odessa, from 1825 to 1830, both inclusive.

Articles.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.
	Roubles.	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*
Wine	4,600	20,695	40,700	11,590	20,675	2,600
Sugar, refined	91,000	194,800	100,000	28,500	129,610	71,000
Cotton goods	70,285	456,685	255,775	1,434,660	711,945	91,40
Silk do.	10,130	20,830	32,485	60,435	104,270	4,725
Cloth	111,750	328,125	182,500	136,700	333,980	
Woollen goods	35,785	164,235	110,000	280,545	337,100	1,041
Tea	1,900	30,600	44,000	7,400	43,100	1,600
Hardware, earthenware, glass, tobacco, &c.	71,875	56,301	103,587	29,660	108,185	19,93
Total	397,325	1,262,231	918,947	2,001,390	1,968,565	191,63

For some further details as to the trade of the Black Sea, see the article SINOPE.

Epochs in the Trade of the Black Sea. Depth of Water. Difficulty of Navigation, &c.—The trade of the Black or Euxine Sea was of great importance in antiquity. The shores of the Crimea, or Taurica Chersonesus, were settled by Milesian adventurers, who founded Panticapæum and Theodosia. The exports thence to Athens were nearly the same as those which are now sent from Odessa and Taganrog to Constantinople, Leghorn, &c.; viz. corn, timber, and naval stores, leather, wax, honey, salt fish, caviare, &c., with great number of slaves, the best and most serviceable that were anywhere to be met with. The Athenians set a very high value upon this trade, which supplied them annually with about 400,000 medimni of corn; and to preserve it, they carefully cultivated the alliance of the Thracian princes, and kept a garrison at Sestus, on the Hellespont.—(See the authorities in *Anacharsis's Travels*, c. 55.; and in *Clarke's Connexion of the Saxon and English Coins*, pp. 54–64.) During the middle ages, the Genoese acquired an ascendancy on this sea, and laboured

* Maltese and Ionians included

with pretty considerable success to monopolise its trade. Their principal establishment was at Caffa, which was the centre of a considerable commerce. But the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, in 1453, was soon after followed by the conquest of Caffa, and the total exclusion of European vessels from the Black Sea, which became in a great measure unknown. This exclusion was maintained for about 300 years, or till it was opened to the ships of Russia by the treaty of Kainardgi in 1774. The Austrians obtained a similar equality of privileges in 1784; and British, French, &c. ships were admitted by the treaty of Amiens. There were, however, some restraints still kept up; but these have been abolished by the late treaty between the Turks and Russians in 1829; and, for commercial purposes at least, the Black Sea is now as free as the Mediterranean.

Notwithstanding the number of English and other European ships that have visited this sea within the last 20 years, its geography is still very imperfectly known. A notion seems to have been long prevalent, that it was not only stormy, but also infested with numerous shoals. Polybius, indeed, contends, that, owing to the vast quantities of alluvial deposits brought down by the Danube and other large rivers that fall into the Black Sea, it was gradually filling up, and would become, at no very remote period, an immense morass! Dr Clarke seems to have espoused the same theory. But, how probable soever it may appear extremely little progress has hitherto been made towards the consummation described by Polybius. Instead of being shallow, the water is for the most part remarkably deep; with a bottom, where soundings have been obtained, of gravel, sand, and shells. A strong current sets from the Black Sea, through the Bosphorus, or Canal of Constantinople, into the Sea of Marmara, and from the latter through the Dardanelles, which it requires a fresh breeze to stem. This current is said to be sensibly felt in the Black Sea, 10 or 12 miles from the Bosphorus; and it may probably carry off some of the mud brought down by the rivers.—(See *Tournefort's Voyage du Levant*, Lett. 15, 16.; Art. 9. in No. I. of the *Journal of the Geographical Society*; *Macgill's Travels in Turkey*, vol. i. p. 245., &c.)

The navigation of the Black Sea has been represented, by most modern and all ancient writers, as exceedingly dangerous. We believe, however, that there is a good deal of exaggeration in the greater number of the statements on this subject. It is said to be particularly subject to dense fogs, and to currents; but the former are prevalent only at particular seasons, and the influence of the latter is not greater than in many other seas which are not reputed dangerous. Tournefort, one of the best and most accurate of travellers, considers the navigation of the Black Sea as safe as that of the Mediterranean:—"*Il n'a rien de noir, pour ainsi dire, que le nom: les vents n'y souffient pas avec plus de furie, et les orages ne sont guères plus frequens que sur les autres mers.*—(Tome ii. p. 164. 4to ed.) Dr. Clarke (*Travels*, vol. ii. p. 387. 8vo ed.) affects to doubt this; but he assigns no grounds for his opinion; and who would think of putting his authority in competition with that of Tournefort? The truth is, that any sea would be dangerous to the Greek and Turkish pilots, by whom the Black Sea is principally navigated. If the progress of navigation were to be estimated by its state amongst them, we should have to conclude that it had been stationary from the era of the Argonauts. They seldom venture to get out of sight of the coasts; they have neither charts nor quadrants; and hardly even know that one of the points of the needle turns towards the North!—(*Tournefort, in loc. cit.*) There is not, certainly, much room for wonder at shipwrecks being frequent among vessels so navigated. On leaving the Black Sea, the greatest difficulty is in making the Bosphorus. "The mountains," says Mr. Macgill, "are all so much alike, that it is difficult to determine which of them is at the entrance, until you are within a very few miles of the coast: then, with a fair wind, you are on a lee shore with a lee current; and if you make a mistake, destruction is almost inevitable. The Turks have two light-houses at the entrance; but unless you see them before sunset, they are of little use: in the forests, on its borders, great quantities of charcoal are made, and the lights from it bewilder, and often mislead, the unhappy mariner."—(Vol. i. p. 245.)

From the vast quantity of fresh water poured into the Black Sea, the saline particles are so much diluted, that, with a slight frost, the surface becomes covered with ice; hence, during a great part of the year, hardly any navigation is attempted. The vessels that resort to Odessa seldom arrive at that port before the latter end of May; and those whose cargoes are not completed before the end of October, more frequently wait the return of spring, than adventure to encounter the dangers of an autumnal or winter voyage.

At Taganrog the frost commences earlier, and continues longer, than at Odessa; so that there are scarcely more than 4 or 5 months in the year, during which the Sea of Azoff can be safely navigated.

OIL (Fr. *Huile*; Ger. *Oel*; It. *Olie*; Lat. *Oleum*; Rus. *Maslo*; Sp. *Aceite*.) The term *oil* is applied to designate a number of unctuous liquors, which, when dropped upon paper, sink into it and make it semi-transparent, or give it what is called a greasy stain. These bodies are very numerous, and have been in common use from time immemorial. Chemists have divided them into two classes; namely, *volatile* and *fixed* oils. We borrow from Dr. Thomas Thomson the following statement with respect to these bodies:—

1. VOLATILE OILS, called also *essential oils*, are distinguished by the following properties:—1. Liquid, often almost as liquid as water, sometimes viscid; 2. Very combustible; 3. An acrid taste and a strong

fragrant odour; 4. Volatilised at a temperature not higher than 212°; 5. Soluble in alcohol, and imperfectly in water; 6. Evaporate without leaving any stain on paper.

By this last test it is easy to discover whether they have been adulterated with any of the fixed oils. Let a drop of the volatile oil fall upon a sheet of writing paper, and then apply a gentle heat to it; if it evaporates without leaving any stain upon the paper, the oil is pure; but if it leaves a stain upon the paper, it has been contaminated with some fixed oil or other.

Volatile oils are almost all obtained from vegetables, and they exist in every part of plants,—the root, the bark, the wood, the leaves, the flower, and even the fruit; though they are never found in the substance of the cotyledons; whereas the fixed oils, on the contrary, are almost always contained in these bodies.

When the volatile oils are contained in great abundance in plants, they are sometimes obtained by simple expression. This is the case with oil of oranges, of lemons, and bergamotte; but in general they can only be obtained by distillation. The part of the plant containing the oil is put into a still with a quantity of water, which is distilled off by the application of a moderate heat. The oil comes over along with the water, and swims upon its surface in the receiver. By this process are obtained the oil of peppermint, thyme, lavender, and a great many others, which are prepared and employed by the perfumer: others are procured by the distillation of resinous bodies. This is the case in particular with oil of turpentine, which is obtained by distilling a kind of resinous juice, called turpentine, that exudes from the juniper.

Volatile oils are exceedingly numerous. They have been long known; but as their use in chemistry is but limited, they have not, hitherto, been subjected to an accurate chemical investigation. They differ greatly in their properties from each other; but it is impossible at present to give a detailed account of each.

1. The greater number of volatile oils are *liquid*; many, indeed, are as limpid as water, and have none of that appearance which we usually consider oily. This is the case with the following; namely, oil of turpentine, oranges, lemons, bergamotte, roses.—Others have the oily viscidity. It varies in them in all degrees. This is the case with the oils of mace, cardamon, sassafras, cloves, cinnamon.—Others have the property of becoming solid. This is the case with the oils of parsley, fennel, aniseed, balm.—Others crystallise by slow evaporation. This is the case with oil of thyme, peppermint, marjoram.—The oil of nutmegs has usually the consistence of butter. This is the case also with the oils of hops and of pepper.

2. The colour of the volatile oils is as various as their other properties. A great number are limpid and colourless; as oil of turpentine, lavender, rosemary, savine, aniseed: some are yellow; as spike, bergamotte: some are brown; as thyme, savory, wormwood: others blue; as camomile, motherwort; others green; as milfoil, pepper, hops, parsley, wormwood, cajeput, juniper, sage, valerian: others, though at first colourless, become yellow or brown by age; as cloves, cinnamon, sassafras.

3. The odours are so various as to defy all description. It is sufficient to say, that all the fragrance of the vegetable kingdom resides in volatile oils. Their taste is acrid, hot, and exceedingly unpleasant.

4. Their specific gravity varies very considerably, not only in different oils, but even in the same oil in different circumstances. The following are the specific gravities of several of the volatile oils, as ascertained by Dr. Lewis:—

Oil of Sassafras	1·094	Oil of Tansy	·948
Cinnamon	1·035	Caraway seeds	·943
Cloves	1·034	Origanum	·940
Fennel	·997	Spike	·936
Dill	·994	Rosemary	·934
Pennyroyal	·978	Juniper berries	·911
Cummin	·975	Orange	·886
Mint	·975	Turpentine	·792
Nutmegs	·948		

When the volatile oils are heated in the open air, they evaporate readily, and without alteration diffuse their peculiar odours all around; but there is a considerable difference between the different oils in this respect. When distilled in close vessels they do not so readily assume the form of vapour. Hence they lose their odour, become darker in colour, and are partly decomposed. Oils do not seem very susceptible of assuming the gaseous form, unless some other substance, as water, be present.

II. FIXED OILS are distinguished by the following characters:—1. Liquid, or easily become so when exposed to a gentle heat; 2. An unctuous feel; 3. Very combustible; 4. A mild taste; 5. Boiling point not under 600°; 6. Insoluble in water, and nearly so in alcohol; 7. Leave a greasy stain upon paper.

These oils, which are called fat or expressed oils, are numerous, and are obtained partly from animals and partly from vegetables, by simple expression. As instances, may be mentioned whale oil or train oil, obtained from the blubber of the whale and from cod; olive oil, obtained from the fruit of the olive; linseed oil and almond oil, obtained from linseed and almond kernels. Fixed oils may also be extracted from poppy seeds, hemp seeds, beech mast, and many other vegetable substances.

All these oils differ from each other in several particulars, but have also many particulars in common.

1. Fixed oil is usually a liquid with a certain degree of viscidity, adhering to the sides of the glass vessels in which it is contained, and forming streaks. It is never perfectly transparent; has always a certain degree of colour, most usually yellowish or greenish; its taste is sweet, or nearly insipid. When fresh, it has little or no smell.

There exist also in the vegetable kingdom a considerable number of bodies which, at the ordinary temperature of the atmosphere, are solid, and have hitherto been considered as fixed oils. Palm oil may be mentioned as an example. The various substances used in India and Africa as substitutes for butter, and as unguents, may likewise be mentioned.

2. All the fixed oils hitherto examined are lighter than water: but they differ greatly from one another in specific gravity. The same difference is observable in different samples of the same oil. The following Table contains the specific gravity of such oils as have been examined:—

Oil of Palm	·968	Oil of Beech nuts	·923
Hazel nuts	·941	Ben	·917
Poppies	·930	Olives	·913
Linseed	·932	Rape-seed	·913
Almonds	·932	Cacao	·892
Walnuts	·923 to ·947		

Fixed oil, when in the state of vapour, takes fire on the approach of an ignited body, and burns with a yellowish white flame. It is upon this principle that candles and lamps burn. The tallow or oil is first converted into a state of vapour in the wick; it then takes fire, and supplies a sufficient quantity of heat to convert more oil into vapour; and this process goes on while any oil remains. The wick is necessary, to present a sufficiently small quantity of oil at once for the heat to act upon. If the heat were great enough to keep the whole oil at the temperature of 600°, no wick would be necessary, as is obvious from oil catching fire spontaneously when it has been raised to that temperature. When oil is used in this manner, either in the open air or in contact with oxygen gas, the only new products obtained are *water* and *carbonic* acid.

The drying oils are used as the vehicle of paints and varnishes. Linseed, nut, poppy, and hempseed oils, belong to this class. These oils in their natural state possess the property of drying oils, but

imperfectly. To prepare them for the use of the painter and varnish-maker, they are boiled for some time in an iron pot, and sometimes burnt till they become viscid. When they burn for some time, their unctuous quality is much more completely destroyed than by any method that has been practised. Hence it is followed frequently in preparing the drying oils for varnishes, and always for printers' ink, which requires to be as free as possible from all unctuosity.

Nut oil has been found preferable to all other oils for printers' ink; though the dark colour which it acquires during boiling renders it not so proper for red ink as for black. Linseed oil is considered as next after nut oil in this respect. Other oils cannot be employed, because they cannot be sufficiently freed from their unctuosity. Ink made with them would be apt to come off and smear the paper while in the hands of the bookbinder, or even to spread beyond the mark of the types and stain the paper yellow.

For the regulations with respect to the importation and exportation of train oil, see p. 134.

OLIBANUM (Fr. *Encens*; Ger. *Weiranch*; It. *Olibano*; Arab. *Looban*), a gum-resin, the produce of a large tree (*Libanus thurifera*) growing in Arabia and India. It is imported in chests, containing each about 1 cwt. from the Levant and India; the best comes from the former, and is the produce of Arabia. Good olibanum is in semi-transparent tears, of a pink colour, brittle, and adhesive when warm; when burnt, the odour is very agreeable; its taste is bitterish, and somewhat pungent and aromatic; it flames for a long time with a steady clear light, which is not easily extinguished, leaving behind a *black* (not, as has been said, a whitish) ash. Olibanum is the frankincense (*thus*) of the ancients; and was extensively used by them in sacrifices.—(*Plin. Hist. Nat.* lib. xii. c. 14.) It has also been used in the ceremonies of the Greek and Roman churches.—(*Ainslie's Mat. Indica*; *Thomson's Chemistry*; *Kippingii Antiq. Rom.* lib. i. c. 11.)

OLIVE, OLIVES (Ger. *Oliven*; Fr. *Olives*; It. *Ulive, Olive*; Sp. *Aceitunas*; Port. *Azeitonas*; Lat. *Olivæ*), a fruit yielding a large quantity of oil, the produce of the *Olea*, or olive tree. The wild olive is indigenous to Syria, Greece, and Africa, on the lower slopes of Mount Atlas. The cultivated species grows spontaneously in Syria, and is easily reared in Spain, Italy, and the south of France. It has even been raised in the open air in England, but its fruit is said not to have ripened. The fruit is a smooth oval plum, about ¾ of an inch in length, and ½ an inch in diameter, of a deep violet colour when ripe, whitish and fleshy within, bitter and nauseous, but replete with a bland oil; covering an oblong, pointed, rough nut. Olives intended for preservation are gathered before they are ripe. In pickling, the object is to remove their bitterness, and to preserve them green, by impregnating them with a brine of aromatised sea salt; for this purpose various methods are employed. The wood of the olive tree is beautifully veined, and has an agreeable smell. It is in great esteem with cabinet-makers, on account of the fine polish of which it is susceptible.

OLIVE OIL (Ger. *Baumöl*; Fr. *Huile d'olives*; It. *Olio d'uliva*; Sp. *Aceite de aceitunas*; Lat. *Oleum olivarum*). The olive tree is principally cultivated for the sake of its oil. This is an insipid, inodorous, pale greenish yellow coloured, viscid fluid, unctuous to the feel, inflammable, incapable of combining with water, and nearly insoluble in alcohol. It is the lightest of all the fixed oils; and is largely used, particularly in Greece, Italy, Spain, and France, as an article of food, and in medicine, and the arts. It is also very extensively used in this country, particularly in the woollen manufacture.

The ripe fruit is gathered in November, and immediately bruised in a mill, the stones of which are set so wide as not to crush the kernel. The pulp is then subjected to the press in bags made of rushes; and by means of gentle pressure, the best, or *virgin* oil, flows first; a second, and afterwards a third, quality of oil is obtained by moistening the residuum, breaking the kernel, &c., and increasing the pressure. When the fruit is not sufficiently ripe, the recent oil has a bitterish taste; and when too ripe, it is fatty. After the oil has been drawn, it deposits a white, fibrous, and albuminous matter; but when this deposition has taken place, if it be put into clean glass flasks, it undergoes no further alteration; the common oil cannot, however, be preserved in casks above 1½ or 2 years. It is sometimes adulterated by the admixture of poppy oil.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

The best olive oil is said to be made in the vicinity of Aix, in France. That which is brought from Leghorn, in chests containing 30 bottles, or 4 English gallons, is also very superior; it is known in our markets by the name of Florence oil, and is used mostly for culinary purposes. Olive oil is the principal article of export from the kingdom of Naples.—(See NAPLES.) Apulia and Calabria are the provinces most celebrated for its production. The Apulian is the best, and is preferred by the woollen manufacturers, by whom it is extensively used. By far the largest portion of the olive oil brought to England is imported from Italy; principally from Gallipoli, on the east coast of the Gulf of Taranto, in lat. 40° 3′ N., lon. 18° 25′ 55″ E., whence it is commonly known by the name of Gallipoli oil. But, besides Italy, Spain sends us a large quantity; and we derive smaller supplies from Malta, Turkey, the Ionian Islands, &c. Thus, of 2,791,057 gallons of olive oil imported in 1830, 2,034,237 were from Italy; 639,468 do. from Spain; 52,004 do. from Malta, partly at second hand; 21,467 from Turkey; 11,300 do from the Ionian Islands; about 30,000 do., at second hand, from the Netherlands and Germany.

The price of olive oil, duty paid, in London, in January, 1834, was as follows:—

		L.	*s.*	*L.*	*s.*			*L.*	*s.*	*L.*	*s.*
Gallipoli	tun (252 gals.)	50	0	to 60	0	Barbary	tun (252 gals.)	53	0	to 54	0
Spanish Calabria	—	55	0	— 0	0	Lucca, in jars	—	6	15	— 0	0
Calcis, Genoa, and Provence, lst	—	75	0	— 80	0	Florence	1-2 chest	1	1	— 0	0

The duty of 8*l.* 8*s.* a tun (252 wine gallons) amounts to about 20 per cent., or 1-5th of the price. But as olive oil is an article much used in the household economy, and of essential importance in the arts, particularly the woollen manufacture, such a duty seems to be quite oppressive. Were it reduced to 2*l.* 2*s.* a tun, we believe it would be very little, if at all, less productive than at present, while the fall of price consequent upon such a reduction would have many beneficial consequences. Nothing can

be more absurd than to elevate duties till they become less productive than they would be were they lower; but when the articles so overtaxed are of great utility, the mischievousness of the practice exceeds its irrationality. Olive oil is necessary to the preparation of the best species of soap; but the high duty prevents it from being so employed in this country, and, consequently, obliges us to make use of an inferior article.

An Account of the Quantity of Olive Oil entered for Home Consumption in each Year since 1820; distinguishing the Rate of Duty, and stating the amount of Duty received in each Year.

Years.	Quantities entered for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom.	Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty charged.	Years.	Quantities entered for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom.	Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty charged.
			Per Imp. Tun.				*Per Imp. Tun.*
	Imp. Tuns.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*		*Imp. Tuns.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
1821	2,373	44,708 17 7	18 15 7 in British ships. 19 19 7 in for. ships.	1829	6,960	58,580 5 1	9 9 0 in ships of Naples and Sicily. 8 8 0 in other ships.
1822	3,161	59,164 10 5	—				10 10 0 in ships of Naples and Sicily.
1823	3,629	60,652 12 10	—				8 8 0 in other ships.
1824	3,629	66,295 2 11	—	1829	3,290	45,250 12 0	
1825	3,996	44,388 4 9	8 8 0 in any ship, from 5th July	1830	8,524	71,878 11 9	—
1826	3,376	28,366 9 6	—	1831	7,575	64,343 0 0	—
1827	4,349	35,577 18 10	8 8 0 —	1832	5 095	43,350 0 0	—

Olive oil, the produce of Europe, may not be imported into the United Kingdom for home consumption, except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which it is the produce, or from which it is imported, on forfeiture of the same and 100*l.* by the master of the ship.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 54 §§ 2. 22.)

It is ordered by a Customs Minute of the 23d of July, 1828, that when the actual tare is not taken, 1-3d for tare on each jar, and 1-7th for foot, may be allowed.

Oil Trade of Naples.—The oils of the kingdom of Naples are produced in Apulia, from Bari to its southern extremity, the Capo di Leuca; a district comprising the territories which export from Gallipoli and Taranto; and in Calabria, from Rossano, on the gulf of Taranto, across to Gioja. The whole coast from Gioja as far as Gaeta is covered with olive trees. They are also abundant in the Abruzzi and the Terra di Lavoro; but Apulia and Calabria furnish by far the greatest quantity of oil.

The principal magazines, or *caricatori*, for oil, are at Gallipoli and Gioja.

Gallipoli supplies England, Holland, the north of Europe, and, in short, all those countries that require the most perfectly purified oil. It is clarified to the highest degree, by merely keeping it in cisterns hollowed out of the rock on which the town is built. The voyages it has to perform being long, it is put into casks so well constructed, that it frequently arrives at Petersburgh, in the heat of summer, without the least waste or leakage,—an advantage attributed to the seasoning of the staves, which, before they are put together, are well soaked in sea water.

We borrow the following details with respect to the preparation of oil at Gallipoli, from a very interesting paper, communicated by an English gentleman who had resided in the town, in the volume entitled *Vegetable Substances Materials of Manufactures*, published by the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge.

"The rock on which the town is built is easily excavated; and in caverns thus constructed oil clarifies sooner, and keeps without rancidity much longer, than in any other place. Hence numerous oil-houses are established at Gallipoli, and a very considerable portion of the rock is cut into cisterns. A Gallipolitan oil warehouse generally occupies the ground floor of a dwelling-house, and has a low arched roof. Some are more extensive, but on an average they are about 30 feet square. In the stone floor you see 4, 6, or more holes, which are circular, about 2 feet in diameter, and like the mouths of wells. Each of these holes gives access to a separate cistern beneath your feet; and when the oil is poured into them, care is taken not to mix different qualities, or oils at different stages, in the same reservoir. One cistern is set apart for *oglio mosto*, or oil that is not clarified, another for pure oil of the season, another for old oil, &c. I have seen oil that had thus been preserved for seven years in a perfect state, or, as the Gallipoli merchants have it, *chiaro, giallo, e lampante*,—words which, during some months, I have heard at least 100 times a day. I also many times verified the fact: the *mosto*, or oil in its turbid state, which arrived almost as black and thick as pitch, soon became bright and yellow in these excellent reservoirs, without any help from man.

"All the oil, whatever may be its quality, is brought to the magazine in sheep or goat skins, which are generally carried on mules—there being but few *strade rotabile*, or roads fit for wheeled carriages, in these parts. In a good year, and at the proper season, I have counted, in the course of an afternoon's ride, as many as 100 mules returning from Gallipoli, where they had been to deposit their unctuous burdens, to different towns and villages in the Terra d'Otranto, or the more distant province of Bari. The quantity of oil required may be conceived, when I state, that at one time (in the year 1816) I saw 9 English, 3 American, 2 French, and 6 Genoese vessels, (not to mention some small craft from the Adriatic,) all waiting in the port of Gallipoli for entire or partial cargoes of it. When the oil is to be shipped, it is drawn off the cistern, into *utari*, or skins, and so carried on men's shoulders down to a small house on the sea shore. In that house there is a large open basin, capable of containing a given quantity, and of measuring the oil; and into that the porters empty their skins as they arrive. A tube communicates from the basin to a large cock at the outside of the house. When the basin is full, well-made casks, of various sizes for the convenience of stowage, are placed under the cock, which is then turned, and the casks are filled. As the casks are closed up by the cooper, the porters roll them down to the brink of the sea, where the sailors secure several of them together with a rope, and taking the end of the cord into the boat, they row off to the vessel, towing the oil casks through the water after them.

"I first became acquainted with the Gallipolitans shortly after the fall of Napoleon, whose system, whatever good parts of it may have done in the rest of Italy, was certainly most ruinous to the provinces of Lecce and Bari. Unable to export, or find any market for their produce, the proprietors in many parts of those provinces let the olives lie and rot upon the ground. For some years, indeed, the price of oil scarcely paid the cost of its preparation, to say nothing of transport and other necessary expenses. During the Continental system, the best *chiaro, giallo, e lampante* oil was sold at Gallipoli for 8 Neapolitan ducats the salma; in 1816 and 1817, it found a ready market at from 60 to 70 ducats per salma!

"Those who, during the evil time, had penetration enough to foresee better days, and that a system opposed to the general commercial prosperity of Europe could not last; and who had, at the same time, money enough for such objects; by annually making their oil as usual, and buying up the oil of others at the low current prices of the day, realised enormous profits when peace threw open the port of Gallipoli, and ships of all nations flocked thither as before.

"The olives of which the Gallipoli oil is made, are never gathered, but allowed to drop in their ma-

tirely from the tree on the ground, where they are picked up chiefly by women and children, and carried to the mill.

"The machinery employed in expressing the oil is of the rudest kind, and, no doubt, numerous improvements might be introduced, not only into this branch, but into that of cultivating the olive tree. The peasantry, however, and, in the kingdom of Naples, those who stand higher in the scale of fortune and rank, are too often but boors in intellect, are obstinate in their attachment to old practices, and are apt, when any of these are reprehended, to stop discussion by saying—*Faccio come faceva la buon' anima di mio padre, e cio basta.* (I do as my father of blessed memory did before me, and that's enough.)

"The poor people of the country make culinary uses of the same oil that is exported, and which in England is only used in manufactures or burnt in lamps; but in the houses of the gentry I have often tasted oil prepared with more care, which was truly delicious, being equal to that of Sorrento, Vico, and Massa, or even to the best oils of Tuscany or Provence."—(Pp. 200—204.)

The *caricatori* of Bari and Monopoli furnish oils for the consumption of Upper Italy and Germany, through the medium of Venice and Trieste. They also draw supplies from Brindisi and Otranto.

The *caricatori* of Taranto, of Eastern Calabria or Retromarina, and of Western Calabria, the principal of which is Gioja, furnish supplies for Marseilles, &c. But the *caricatori* now mentioned, having no conveniences for clarification, produce only the thick oils used for soap-making.

The oils of Sicily, like those of Tunis, are too thin to be used singly in the making of soap; and being used only for mixing, are less valuable than most others.

The oil trade in the provinces is in the hands of respectable houses, which purchase by retail of the several planters. The oil thus collected is sold in Naples at a profit equal to the difference between the size of the measures by which it is bought and those by which it is sold. To facilitate transactions, orders or *cedules* are circulated, representing quantities of oil deposited in the provincial *caricatori*. These orders are negotiable, like bills of exchange, and are endorsed by the intermediate holder, who receives their value in cash, without, however, becoming liable for their due satisfaction. The only responsible parties are the drawer and drawee. The latter is obliged to deliver the oil at sight of the order, or to hold it, at the bearer's disposal, till the 10th of November for the *caricatori* of Apulia, and till the 31st of December for those of Calabria. If the contract be for time, that is, from one year to another, the oil is usually placed at the purchaser's command on the 1st of March. Purchases for time are effected by means of a contract, wherein the vendor undertakes to deliver the oil by the end of January, on receiving payment of the money; but the oil, as observed above, is not really at the purchaser's disposal before the beginning of March. Hence, in time bargains, the payment of the money precedes the delivery of the oil more than a month: scarce an instance is on record of an engagement of this sort having been broken, and the order is as readily negotiable as any other security.

In purchases of oil at command, payment likewise precedes the delivery of the article; but in this case the advance is confined to the 5 days necessary to transmit the order to the *caricatore* where the oil is kept for delivery.

The oil remains in the *caricatore* under the care and responsibility of the vendor, to be delivered on demand to the bearer of the order, free of all costs and charges whatever for the first year; but for every successive year from 25 to 30 grains per salma are charged for keeping, and for renewal of warranty.—(We are indebted for these details to a *brochure* of M. Millenet, entitled *Coup d'Œil sur le Royaume de Naples.* Naples, 1832.)

(In consequence of petitions and representations from the woollen manufacturers, setting forth the serious injury they sustained from the oppressive duty of 8*l.* 8*s.* a tun laid on olive oil (p. 253.), it has been reduced 50 per cent., or to 4*l.* 4*s.* a tun.—(4 & 5 *Will.* 4. c. 89. § 15.) The reduction does not, however, extend to oil brought from Naples or Sicily; but her Majesty is empowered, if she see cause, to reduce the duty on such oil to 4*l.* 4*s.* a tun, by an order in council. This exception is understood to have been made in the view of facilitating the negotiation now in progress with the King of Naples for a reduction of the exorbitant duties laid on pilchards and other British articles imported into his dominions. It is to be hoped that these negotiations may be speedily brought to a satisfactory conclusion; for the largest portion by far of the olive oil made use of here being brought from Naples (Gallipoli, see p. 254.), the continuance of the high duties on it goes far to nullify the measure. Those who take into view the importance of olive oil in the arts, particularly in the woollen manufacture, and are aware that the revenue derived from it has not exceeded 50,000*l.* a year, will probably join with us in opinion, that the duty should either be repealed, or reduced to, at most, 2*l.* 2*s.* a tun.—*Sup.*)

OMNIUM, a term used at the Stock Exchange to express the aggregate value of the different stocks in which a loan is now usually funded.

Thus, in the loan of 36,000,000*l.* contracted for in June, 1815, the omnium consisted of 130*l.* 3 per cent. reduced annuities, 44*l.* 3 per cent. consols, and 10*l.* 4 per cent. annuities, for each 100*l.* subscribed. The loan was contracted for on the 14th of June, when the prices of the above stocks were—3 per cent. reduced, 54; 3 per cent. consols, 55; 4 per cents., 70: hence the parcels of stock given for 100*l.* advanced, were worth—

	£	*s.*	*d.*
130*l.* reduced, at 54	70	4	0
44*l.* consols, at 55	24	4	0
10*l.* 4 per cents., at 70	7	0	0
Together,	£101	8	0

which would be the value of the omnium, or 1*l.* 8*s.* per cent. premium, independently of any discount for prompt payment.

ONION (Ger. *Zwiebel*; Fr. *Oignon*; It. *Cipolla*; Sp. *Cebolla*; Rus. *Luk*), a well known bulbous plant (*Allium Cepa* Lin.) cultivated all over Europe for culinary purposes. The Strasburgh, Spanish, and Portuguese varieties are the most esteemed.

ONYX (Ger. *Onyx*; Fr. *Onix, Onice*; Sp. *Onique*; Lat. *Onyx*). "Any stone exhibiting layers of 2 or more colours strongly contrasted is called an *onyx*; as banded jasper, chalcedony, &c., but more particularly the latter, when it is marked with white, and stratified with opaque and translucent lines. But the Oriental onyx is considered a substance consisting of 2 or more layers or bands of distinct and different colours. A sard, or sardoine, hav

ing a layer of white upon it, would be called an onyx; and according to the number of layers it would be distinguished as an onyx with 3 or more bands. Some of the antique engravings are upon onyxes of 4 bands."—(*Mawe's Treatise on Diamonds, &c.*)

OPAL (Ger. *Opal*; Fr. *Opale*; It. *Opalo*; Sp. *Opalo, Piedra iris*; Port. *Opala*; Lat. *Opalus*), a stone, of which there are several varieties, found in different parts of Europe, particularly in Hungary, and in the East Indies, &c. When first dug out of the earth it is soft, but it hardens and diminishes in bulk by exposure to the air. The opal is always amorphous; fracture conchoidal; commonly somewhat transparent. Hardness varies considerably. Specific gravity from 1·958 to 2·54. The lowness of its specific gravity in some cases is to be ascribed to accidental cavities which the stone contains. These are sometimes filled with drops of water. Some specimens of opal have the property of emitting various coloured rays, with a particular effulgency, when placed between the eye and the light. The opals which possess this property are distinguished by lapidaries by the epithet *Oriental*; and often, by mineralogists, by the epithet *nobilis*. This property rendered the stone much esteemed by the ancients.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*; see also *Plin. Hist. Nat.* lib. xxxvii. c. 6., where there are some very curious details as to this stone.)

Mr. Mawe gives the following statement with respect to the precious opal, or opal *nobilis*:—"The colour of the opal is white or pearl grey, and when held between the eye and the light is pale red, or wine yellow, with a milky transiucency. By reflected light it exhibits, as its position is varied, elegant and most beautiful iridescent colours, particularly emerald green, golden yellow, flame and fire red, violet, purple, and celestial blue, so beautifully blended, and so fascinating, as to captivate the admirer. When the colour is arranged in small spangles, it takes the name of the harlequin opal. Sometimes it exhibits only 1 of the above colours, and of these the most esteemed are the vivid emerald green and the orange yellow. When the stone possesses the latter of these colours, it is called the golden opal.

"The precious opal is not quite so hard as rock crystal: it is frequently full of flaws; which greatly contribute to its beauty, as the vivid iridescent colours which it displays are occasioned by the reflection and refraction of light, which is decomposed at these fissures. It is never cut in facets, but always hemispherical. It is generally small, rarely so large as an almond or hazel nut, though I have seen some specimens the size of a small walnut, for which several hundred pounds were demanded. At present, a pretty opal may be bought at from 1 to 3 or 5 guineas, sufficiently large for a pin or ring stone. It requires great care and judgment in the cutting, as it is fragile and easily spoiled.

"The opal, in all ages, has been highly esteemed: the history of the Roman senator, who preferred death rather than give up his opal ring to the Emperor Nero, is familiar to every one. Among the Eastern nations, the opal ranks higher than in Europe.

"A spurious substance is sometimes sold for black and green opal, and often set in jewellery: it occurs of the size of a small almond, but more commonly not larger than a lentil or pea. This *precious gem* is nothing more than the cartilage of the hinge of a large shell. Glass, and even scoria, having an iridescent appearance, have also often been sold for opal."—(*Treatise on Diamonds, &c.* 2d ed. pp. 123—125.)

OPIUM (Ger. *Mohnsaft*; Fr. *Opium*; It. *Oppio*; Sp. and Port. *Opio*; Lat. *Opium*; Arab. *Ufyoon*; Hind. *Ufeem*; Turk. *Madjoon*), the concrete juice of the white poppy (*Papaver somniferum*), which is most probably a native of Asia, though now found growing wild in the southern parts of Europe, and even in England. Opium is chiefly prepared in India, Turkey, and Persia; but the white poppy is extensively cultivated in France, and other parts of Europe, on account of its capsules, and of the useful bland oil obtained from its seeds. It has also been cultivated, and opium made, in England; but there is very little probability of its ever being raised here to any considerable extent.

The poppy is an annual plant, with a stalk rising to the height of 3 or 4 feet; its leaves resemble those of the lettuce, and its flower has the appearance of a tulip. When at its full growth, an incision is made in the top of the plant, from which there issues a white milky juice, which soon hardens, and is scraped off the plants, and wrought into cakes. In India, these are covered with the petals of the plant to prevent their sticking together, and in this situation are dried, and packed in chests lined with hides and covered with gunny, each containing 40 cakes, and weighing 2 maunds or 149½ lbs.; they are exported in this state to the places where the opium is consumed. Turkey opium is in flat pieces, covered with leaves, and the reddish capsules of some species of *rumex*; which is considered an indication of its goodness, as the inferior kinds have none of these capsules adhering to them.

According to Dr. A. T. Thomson, Turkey opium has a peculiar, strong, heavy, narcotic odour, and a bitter taste, accompanied by a sensation of acrid heat, or biting, on the tongue and lips, if it be well chewed. Its colour when good is a reddish brown, or fawn colour; its texture compact and uniform. Its specific gravity is 1·336. When soft, it is tenacious; but when long exposed to the air, it becomes hard, breaks with a uniform shining fracture, is pulverulent, and affords a yellowish brown powder.

East Indian opium has a strong empyreumatic smell; but not much of the peculiar narcotic, heavy odour of the Turkey opium; the taste is more bitter, and equally nauseous, but it has less acrimony. It agrees with the Turkey opium in other sensible qualities, except that its colour is blacker, and its texture less plastic, although it is as tenacious. Good Turkey opium has been found to yield nearly 3 times the quantity of *morphia*, or of the peculiar principle of the drug, that is yielded by East Indian opium.

Opium is regarded as bad, when it is very soft, greasy, light, friable, or of an intensely black colour, or mixed with many impurities. A weak or empyreumatic odour, a slightly

bitter or acrid, or a sweetish taste, or the power of marking a brown or black continuous streak when drawn across paper, are all symptoms of inferior opium.—(*Dispensatory.*)

The raising of opium is a very hazardous business; the poppy being a delicate plant, peculiarly liable to injury from insects, wind, hail, or unseasonable rain. The product seldom agrees with the true average, but commonly runs in extremes; while one cultivator is disappointed, another reaps immense gain; one season does not pay the labour of the culture; another, peculiarly fortunate, enriches all the cultivators. This circumstance is well suited to allure man, ever confident of good fortune.—(*Colec. ooke's Husbandry of Bengal*, p. 119.)

In England, opium is little used, except as a medicine. In 1831 and 1832, the quantity entered for home consumption amounted, at an average, to 28,097 lbs. a year. The principal part of our supply is brought from Turkey. Opium from the latter was worth, in the London market, in December, 1833, 16*s.* to 17*s.* per lb. The duty is 4*s.*

Consumption and Trade of Opium in China.—Opium is pretty extensively used, both as a masticatory and in smoking, in Turkey and India; but its great consumption is in China and the surrounding countries, where the habit of smoking it has become almost universal. The Chinese boil or seethe the crude opium; and by this process the impurities, resinous and gummy matter, are separated, and the remaining extract only is reserved for use. Thus prepared, the drug loses its ordinary strong and offensive aromatic odour, and has even a fragrant and agreeable perfume. A small ball of it inserted in a large wooden pipe with some combustible matter, is lighted, and the amateur proceeds to inhale four or five whiffs, when he lies down and resigns himself to his dreams, which are said to have no inconsiderable resemblance to the sensations produced by inhaling the oxide of azote. Those who do not carry the indulgence to excess, do not, it is said, experience any bad effects from it.

The supplies for the Chinese market are derived from India and Turkey, but principally from the former. The government of China has issued edict upon edict, forbidding the importation and consumption of the drug, but without effect. Most part of the authorities openly connive at the proceedings of the smugglers, while the few who might be desirous to enforce the law are wholly without the power; so that the trade is conducted with the greatest facility, and almost perfect security. It was at first carried on at Whampoa, about 15 miles below Canton; next at Macao, whence it was driven by the exactions of the Portuguese; and now the principal *entrepôt* is in the bay of Linton. The opium is kept on board ships, commonly called receiving ships, of which there are often 10 or 12 lying together at anchor. The sales are mostly effected by the English and American agents in Canton, who give orders for the delivery of the opium; which, on producing the order, is handed over to the Chinese smuggler, who comes alongside at night to receive it. Frequently, however, the smuggler purchases the opium on his own account, paying for it on the spot in silver; it being a rule of the trade, never departed from, to receive the money before the drug is delivered. When it is landed, the laws are equally set at defiance in its conveyance throughout the country; and public smoking houses are said to be every where established!

The consumption of opium in China is rapidly extending. During the first 10 years of the present century, the exports from India to China were about 2,500 chests (of 149½ lbs. each). In 1821-22, after the introduction of Malwa opium into the markets of Calcutta and Bombay, the exports increased to 4,618 chests; and, owing, no doubt, to the greatly increased supply and lower price of the article, the exports in 1831-32 exceeded 20,000 chests, worth above 13,000,000 dollars!—(See vol. i. p. 299.) The whole of this immense trade is in the hands of private individuals; the Company not choosing to engage in a business prohibited by the Chinese government. The imports of Turkey opium into China are believed to amount at present to about 1,000 chests. Smyrna is the principal Turkish port for the export of opium.—(See SMYRNA.)

Cultivation of Opium in India. Monopoly.—The cultivation of opium in India is a government monopoly, and is confined to the provinces of Bahar* and Benares, and Malwa in Central India. Every one within the prescribed limits may engage in the opium cultivation; but the drug, when prepared, must all be sold at a fixed price to the Company's agents. The price is very far below the price at which it is afterwards sold for exportation; and the circumstance of its being fixed and inadequate deprives the cultivators of most part of the favourable chances in the lottery previously alluded to by Mr. Colebrooke. Indeed, Mr. C. distinctly tells us (*Husb. Bengal*, p. 118.) that, except in a few situations that are peculiarly favourable, its cultivation is unprofitable. The peasants engage in it with reluctance; and are tempted only by the immediate advances the government agents are obliged to make to enable them to carry on the business.

The monopoly has sometimes produced a net revenue of about 1,600,000*l.* a year. Latterly, however, this revenue has been materially diminished. This has been occasioned, partly by the conquest of Malwa, and the impossibility of extending the same sort of monopoly into that province that was established in Bahar and Benares, and partly to the introduction of Turkey opium into the Chinese market by the Americans.

The system under which the Indian opium trade has been conducted, has been the theme of much eulogy, and has been supposed to afford the only example of an *unexceptionable monopoly!* By confining the cultivation of the plant to particular districts, and taking care that the whole produce raised in them shall be exported, we prevent, it is said, the use of this deleterious drug from gaining ground in India; while the high price at which it is sold produces a large revenue to the Company's treasury. It is affirmed, too, that even the interests of the Chinese are consulted by the system; that they obtain the drug in a state of purity, which would otherwise be adulterated; and that the high price they are obliged to pay for it merely acts as a wholesome restraint on their vicious propensity to indulge in what is so very injurious. We doubt, however, whether there be much foundation for these eulogies. There can be no question that opium is a very excellent subject for taxation; and the higher the duty can be raised on it, without encouraging smuggling, the better. It is not, however, so clear, that the monopoly system is the best way of accomplishing this; and, though the system had been originally a good one, it is no longer possible to enforce it. To imagine, indeed, that the illicit cultivation of, and traffic in, opium can be prevented, now that it is raised in most parts of the extensive country of Malwa, is altogether ludicrous. As to the supposed influence of the monopoly in insuring the purity of the drug, it is sufficient to observe that Malwa opium, which is produced under a comparatively free system, has been rapidly improving in its quality, and now very often fetches a higher price than the opium of Bahar and Benares, where the strictest *surveillance* is kept up. The latter, indeed, has sometimes been nearly unsaleable, from the careless way in which it has been prepared, and the extent to which it was adulterated.—(*Crawfurd on the Monopoly of the East India Company*, p. 55.) It is needless, however, to say more on this point, than that Turkish opium maintains, in respect of purity and careful preparation, a decidedly higher reputation than any produced in India.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

* The opium of Bahar is known in commerce by the name of Patna opium.

We doubt, too, whether the use of opium, when taken in moderate quantities, be really so injurious as has been represented. That it may, like spirits and wine, be abused, is abundantly certain; but it has not been shown that it is more liable to abuse than either of these articles. No one doubts that the Chinese, by whom it is principally consumed, are a highly industrious, sober, frugal people; but though it were otherwise, we really do not see that the East India Company are warranted in subjecting a profitable article of cultivation in India to the fetters of monopoly, that the morals of the Chinese may be preserved! It is unnecessary, however, to dwell upon this view of the matter. The Turks and Americans have no scruples of this sort; and the only effect of the Company's attempting to force up the price of opium to an extravagant height, would be to throw a still greater proportion of the trade into the hands of their active competitors, to the great injury of the Indian cultivators.

Neither must the interests of the cultivators in India be lost sight of, who are materially injured by the existing system. Even were it in other respects proper, their allowances are far too small.

Upon the whole, therefore, we do not see any solid grounds for supposing that this monopoly forms an exception to the common rule; and we agree with those who think that the better way would be to establish the same system, as to the trade in opium, that is established with respect to the spirit trade in this country; that is, to allow every one to cultivate it upon taking out a license, and to lay an excise duty on the prepared article. Such a plan would put an end to some most oppressive regulations; and while it would open a new source of wealth to the cultivators, the revenue derived by government would be materially augmented.

Besides the works previously referred to, we have consulted, in compiling this article, *Ainslie's Mat. Indica*; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*; *Bell's Review of the Commerce of Bengal*; *Evidence on East Indian affairs, before the Parliamentary Committee*, in 1830 and 1831, *&c. &c.*

(Account of the Quantity and Value of the different Sorts of Indian Opium imported into China during the Nine Years ending with 1835-36.

	Patna.		Benares.		Malwa.		Total.	
	Chests.	Value.	Chests.	Value.	Chests.	Value.	Chests.	Value.
		Dol.		*Dol.*		*Dol.*		*Dol.*
Season 1827-28	4,006	4,012,350	1,123	1,10[illegible],805	4,401	5,399,970	9,535	10,425,975
— 1828-29	4,831	4,574,650	1,[illegible]0	1,029,585	7,171	6,428,880	13,132	12,033,115
— 1829-30	5,564	4,820,448	1,5[illegible]0	1,329,129	6,857	5,907,580	14,000	12,057,157
— 1830-31	5,085	4,454,809	1,576	1,353,395	12,100	7,114,059	18,760	12,[illegible]04,33
— 1831-32	4,462	4,324,815	1,5[illegible]3	1,468,194	8,285	5,918,574	14,225	11,[illegible]01,584
— 1832-33	6,410	6,115,128	1,880	1,455,603	15,403½	5,781,700	23,693½	13,[illegible]52,43[illegible]
— 1833-34	7,993	5,023,175	1,642	1,066,459	11,715	7,916,971	21,350	14,006,605
— 1834-35	7,558	4,368,246	2,549	1,437,604	9,962	5,962,930	20,069	11,[illegible]68,78
— 1835-36	9,011	6,713,195	2,006	1,407,510	15,002	8,968,198	26,018	17,[illegible]08,903

Sup.

[In March, 1839, a special commissioner was appointed by the Emperor to cause the laws prohibiting the importation of opium into China to be rigidly enforced. By means of stopping for a time the whole commerce of Canton with foreigners, as well as by imposing restraints on the personal liberty of the foreign merchants then in that city, the latter were obliged to deliver up to the commissioner, it is said, no less than 20,283 chests of opium, valued at £3,000,000, or near $15,000,000. And the opium trade has, in consequence, been entirely discontinued.

Much stress has been laid by the Chinese government on the injurious and even destructive effects on the human system of the use of opium, in justification of the course which has been pursued by it in relation to this article. But

"The export of sycee silver," we quote the words of a petition of certain British merchants resident at Calcutta, in the East Indies, to the Queen's Privy Council in England, "is also contraband in China, and as bullion was always received in payment for opium, it is to this fact that the recent violent proceedings of that government may be chiefly attributed. The export of silver, by the law of China, is death. Like other half civilized nations, which understand not the principles of political economy, the Chinese consider the export of bullion as injurious to their well-being, and thunder edicts against the 'leakage of sycee' and 'the oozing out of dollars,' as though such exports were actually a loss to the State. It is necessary to say but little in proof of this fallacy. China possesses silver mines of immense value, but which are worked only to a limited extent, and the circulation of whose products the government would fain restrict exclusively to the imperial domains. These mines are exhaustless, save in the fear of their governors, whose proceedings in prohibiting the export of bullion are truly lamentable. As reasonable would it be for the British government to prohibit railroads and steam vans, because the one might exhaust the iron, and the other the coal mines, of Great Britain. The export of opium from India, which has thus defeated the restrictive policy of the Chinese government, and which has caused the mines of that empire to be wrought far more extensively than would otherwise have been the case, in order to replace the vacuum in circulation created by the continued export of sycee from China, has thus been of essential benefit to commerce; for it has drawn forth the resources of the most fertile and populous empire in the world, and the bullion thus brought back in exchange for opium, has covered vast tracts of British India with smiling fields and flourishing population; it has enormously extended the import of British manufactures throughout Hindoostan; has increased largely the shipping and general commerce of these seas; has brought into the British Indian Treasury a revenue exceeding the land revenue of an entire Presidency—that of Bombay; and has thus paid in London the dividends of the proprietors of India Stock, amounting to 630,000*l.* per annum, if not indeed the whole surplus of 2,000,000*l.* sterling, required for the expenses of the home government of India."

"The extent to which the trade had been carried on will be understood from the undermentioned extract from the custom-house books of Calcutta, where the proportion of opium shipped to China direct, and that sent to all other places whatever, is separately specified.

Years.	China.	All other places.	Total.
1832-33	7,598	1,810	9,408
1833-34	10,216	1,700	12,096
1834-35	9,465	1,530	10,995
1835-36	13,094	1,757	14,851
1836-37	10,393	2,213	12,606
1837-38	16,297	3,303	19,600
Total	67,083	12,303	79,446

It appears from this table, that of an aggregate of 79,446 chests actually despatched from Calcutta in 6 years, 67,083 chests were exported to China direct."

The following Table is from the New York Journal of Commerce :—

Value of Opium delivered at *Lintin* in China during the Seasons from 1816 to 1838, ending 31st March of each year; exclusive of Turkey.

Season.	Patna and Benares.			Malwa.			Total.	
April 31st to 31st March.	Chests.	Price.	Value.	Chests.	Price.	Value.	Chests.	Value in Dollars.
1816 to 1817	2,610	1,200	$3,132,000	600	875	$525,000	3,210	3,657,000
1817 to 1818	2,530	1,265	3,200,450	1,150	612	703,800	3,680	3,904,250
1818 to 1819	3,050	1,000	3,050,000	1,530	725	1,109,250	4,580	4,159,250
1819 to 1820	2,970	1,235	3,667,950	1,630	1,175	1,915,250	4,600	5,583,200
1820 to 1821	3,050	1,900	5,795,000	1,720	1,515	1,605,800	4,770	8,400,800
1821 to 1822	2,910	2,075	6,038,250	1,718	1,325	2,276,350	4,628	8,314,600
1822 to 1823	1,822	1,552	2,828,930	4,000	1,390	5,160,000	5,822	7,988,930
1823 to 1824	2,910	1,600	4,656,000	4,172	925	3,859,100	7,082	8,515,100
1824 to 1825	2,655	1,175	3,119,625	6,000	750	4,500,000	8,655	7,629,625
1825 to 1826	3,442	913	3,141,755	6,179	730	4,466,450	9,621	7,608,205
1826 to 1827	3,661	1,002	3,668,568	6,308	942	5,941,520	9,969	9,610,085
1827 to 1828	5,134	998	5,125,155	4,401	1,304	5,299,920	9,535	10,425,075
1828 to 1829	5,965	940	5,604,235	7,771	968	6,928,880	13,132	12,535,115
1829 to 1830	7,143	860	6,149,577	6,857	862	5,907,550	14,000	12,057,157
1830 to 1831	6,660	870	5,790,204	12,100	588	7,114,059	18,760	11,904,263
1831 to 1832	5,672	967	5,484,340	7,831	695	5,447,355	13,503	10,931,695
1832 to 1833	8,267	792	6,551,059	15,403	570	8,781,700	23,670	15,332,759
1833 to 1834	8,672	639	5,545,845	11,114	676	7,510,695	19,786	13,056,540
1834 to 1835	7,767	572	4,431,845	8,747	595	5,223,125	16,514	9,655,010
1835 to 1836	6,173	696	4,292,900	10,612	580	6,146,975	16,785	10,539,875
1836 to 1837	8,078	724	5,848,236	13,430	626	8,439,694	21,509	14,287,330
1837 to 1838	6,165	633	3,903,129	13,875	503	6,980,028	20,040	10,883,157

The opium trade upon the coast of China east of Canton began to be of importance in the years 1823-3, since then it has rapidly increased, and bids fair to exceed that carried on at the Lintin station. Fractions of chests and of dollars in fine are rejected, which would make the table appear incorrect if critically examined.—*Am. Ed.*]

OPOBALSAM. See BALSAM.

OPOPONAX (Ger. *Opoponax*; Fr. *Opopanax*; It. *Opoponasso*; Sp. *Opoponaca*; Arab. *Jawesheer*), a gum-resin, obtained from the *Pastinaca Opoponax*, a species of parsnep. It is a native of the south of Europe and Asia Minor. The stem rises to the height of 4 or 5 feet, with a thick branched yellow-coloured root. The roots being wounded, a milky juice flows from them, which, being dried in the sun, is the opoponax of the shops. It is in lumps of a reddish yellow colour, and white within. Smell peculiar. Taste bitter and acrid. Specific gravity 1·629. It is imported from Turkey. Being used only to a small extent in medicine, the consumption is inconsiderable.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*; *Ainslie's Mat. Indica.*)

OPORTO, or PORTO, a large city and sea-port of Portugal, situated on the north bank of the river Douro, about 2 miles from its mouth, in lat. 41° 10′ 30″ N., lon. 8° 37′ 18″ W. It is a beautifully situated, well-built city; and is supposed to have contained, before the late hostilities, 70,000 inhabitants.

Harbour.—The harbour of Oporto is a bar harbour, and can only be entered, at least by vessels of considerable burden, at high water; and it is seldom at any time practicable for vessels drawing more than 16 feet. On the north side of the entrance is the castle of St. Joao de Foz, whence a ledge of rocks, some of which are at all times above water, extends in a south-west direction. The outermost of these rocks, named Filgueira, which is always visible, is left on the left or larboard side on enter ing. Cabedelo Point, forming the southern extremity of the entrance, is low and sandy. The bar being liable, from the action of the tides, and of sudden swellings or *freshes* in the river, to perpetual alterations, it is exceedingly dangerous for any vessel to attempt crossing it without a pilot. Pilots are always on the alert, and ready to offer their services when a vessel comes in sight, unless the weather be so bad that they cannot go off. On some few occasions of this sort, vessels have been detained for 3 weeks off the port, without having an opportunity of entering. The chapel of St. Catharine in a line with that of St. Michael leads over the bar. The ordinary rise of spring tides is from 10 to 12 feet, and of neaps from 6 to 8 feet. A light-house with a fixed light is erected on a hill about 600 yards N. N. W. of St. Joao de Foz.

The swellings of the river, or *freshes*, as they are called, most commonly occur in spring, and are caused by heavy rains, and by the melting of the snow on the mountains. The rise of water at such times is frequently as much as 40 feet; and the rapidity and force of the current are so very great, that no dependence can be placed on anchors in the stream. Fortunately, a *fresh* never occurs without previous warning; and it is then the practice to moor with a cable made fast to trees, or stone pillars erected on the shore for that purpose.—(For further information as to the harbour of Oporto, see Mr. Purdy's valuable *Sailing Directions for the Bay of Biscay.*)

Trade.—Oporto is the emporium of a large portion of the kingdom of Portugal, and enjoys a pretty considerable foreign commerce. The well known red wine, denominated port, from its being exclusively shipped at that city, forms by far the largest article of export. The exports vary in different years, from about 16,500 to above 40,000 pipes. England is much the largest consumer of port. The high discriminating duties on French wine originally obtained for it a preference in the British market, to which, though an excellent wine, it had no natural claim; and its long continued use has so confirmed the taste for it, that it is probable it will maintain its ascendancy notwithstanding the late equalisation of the duties. At an average of the 10 years ending with 1833, there were shipped from Oporto for England 22,121 pipes a year; but exclusive of the port shipped from Oporto, a considerable quantity of red wine is now brought from Figueira. Next to England, Brazil, Russia, and

the north of Europe in general, are the principal consumers of port. The other exports are oil, oranges, and other fruits, wool, refined sugar, cream of tartar, shumac, leather, cork, &c. The imports are corn, rice, beef, salt fish, and other articles of provision; sugar, coffee, &c. from Brazil; cotton, and woollen goods, hardware, tin plates, &c. from England; hemp, flax, and deals, from the Baltic, &c.

Besides the British manufactured goods imported into Portugal for the use of the natives, a considerable quantity is destined for the consumption of Spain; being smuggled into that country through Braganza and other towns on the frontier.

Monies, Weights, and *Measures* same as those of Lisbon; which see.

We subjoin an account, obtained from the Portuguese Custom-house, of the wine shipped from Oporto during the 10 years ending with 1833.

Account of the Quantities of Wine exported from Oporto during the Ten Years down to 1833 inclusive, specifying the Countries to which they were sent, and the Quantities sent to each.

Countries.	1833.	1832.	1831.	1830.	1829.	1828.	1827.	1826.	1825.	1824.
Brasil . . pipes	131	434	324	3,569	6,212	2,585	7,410	61	26	
Denmark . .	29	100	63	63	88	57	53	11	15	6
U. S. of America .	418									
Gibraltar and Spain .	37	. .	. .	2	10	5	16	. .	. .	4
Hamburgh . .	248	771	1,446	375	286	1,600	1,525	12	30	11
Holland . .	51	43	54	12	33	31	123	9	41	19
The Azores . .	1	4	2	1	1	26	2	3	1	
Great Britain . .	18,482	13,579	20,171	19,233	17,832	27,932	24,207	18,310	40,277	3,901
Italy . . .	3	1	5	4	. .	42	13	4	5	2
Ports in Portugal .	3	206								
Russia . .	54	209	145	96	22	129	62	. .	1	139
Newfoundland . .	54	13	85	76	170	150	21	1	32	7
Sweden . . .	. .	226	453	311	300	225	231	. .	9	23
Ports in the Baltic .	. .	6	3	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	11
India . . .	. .	1	1	. .	. .	. .	. .	2	. .	100
Cape Verd Islands .	. .	. .	2	. .	. .	1	30			
France . . .	. .	. .	1	2	4	7	5	. .	. .	28
Angola . . .	. .	. .	. .	. .	2	13	71			
South America . .	. .	866	206	227	361	1,367	227	143	5	4,500
Guernsey and Jersey .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	75	99	58	. .	14
Bremen . . .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	81			
Ships' stores . .	5	. .	. .	. .	. .	4	2	3	5	
Total . .	20,495	16,550	23,439	24,165	25,871	41,227	34,297	18,597	40,447	28,117

N. B.—It was not till 1826, that the exclusive privilege possessed by the Oporto Wine Company, of shipping wine for Brazil, was put an end to, previously to which period the shipments for that country were not given.

It is hardly possible to form any estimate of the value of the wine shipped from Oporto; the price varying from 5*l.* to 50*l.* per hogshead. The export duty on wine approved for exportation, (*vinho d'embarque*), is about 6⊕ 500*rs.* per pipe, or, at the present (January 1834) rate of exchange, 1*l.* 9*s.* a pipe. Separated wine (*vinho separado*) is not generally allowed to be exported; but at present it may be shipped on paying 18⊕ 500*rs.* more, or 5*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.* a pipe. The other expenses are trifling. Freight to this country varies from 1*l.* to 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.* per pipe.—(For an account of the Oporto Wine Company, see WINE.)

Sometimes wine is purchased from the farmer in the wine country. In this case, the casks are sent about 60 miles up the river, in boats, to be filled. Owing to the miserable state of the roads, the expense of carriage is very considerable; the cartage from and to the river side frequently costing from 1*l.* to 2*l.* per pipe. The freight from the upper country down the river to Oporto is about equal to that from the latter to England. There is also an internal duty of about 1*l.* 2*s.* per pipe on all wine brought down the river. Inasmuch, however, as these charges are perpetually varying, it is not possible to lay before the reader any *pro formâ* account of the cost of wine bought in the Upper Douro.

The Oporto Wine Company have the monopoly of the brandy as well as of the wine trade of the Douro. The consequence is, that brandy costs at this moment, at Oporto, about 36*l.* per pipe; while equally good brandy may be bought in Lisbon, and much better in Cognac, for about 18*l.* per pipe. The abolition of this company would certainly be one of the most desirable reforms that could be accomplished, even in Portugal.—(*Private information.*)

ORANGES (Ger. *Pomeranzen*; Du. *Orangen*; Fr. *Oranges*; It. *Melarance*; Sp. *Naranjas*; Rus. *Pomeranezii*; Hind. *Narunge*; Malay, *Simao-manis*), the fruit of the orange tree. The common, or sweet orange (*Citrus sinensis*, or *Citrus nobilis*), and the Seville, or bitter orange (*Citrus aurantium*), are natives of China; and the Portuguese are entitled to the honour of having transferred the plant to other countries. Particular species of *Citrus* seem to be indigenous to various Eastern countries; but the birth-place of the proper orange may be distinctly traced to China. It is now to be found in our green-houses. Oranges are imported in chests and boxes, packed separately in paper. The best come from the Azores and Spain; very good ones are also brought from Portugal, Italy, Malta, and other places.

The orange trade carried on by this country is of considerable value and importance. Oranges are not much more expensive than most of our superior domestic fruits, while they are, perhaps, the most refreshing and wholesome of those of warmer climates. The entries for home consumption in 1831 and 1832 amounted, at an average, to 270,606 boxes a year; and assuming each box to contain 700 oranges and lemons, the number entered for consumption will have been 189,424,000! The duty produced, at an average of the above years, 61,036*l.* a year. The number of persons employed in the importation and sale of oranges must be very considerable. The policy of charging any duty on oranges seems questionable. They are very apt to spoil; and as no abatement is made from the duty on account of any damage, its influence on their price is much more considerable than might at first be supposed.

ORCHILLA WEED, ORCHELLA, OR ARCHIL (Ger. *Orseille*; Fr. *Orseille*; It. *Oricello, Orcella*; Sp. *Orchilla*), a whitish lichen (*Lichen orecella*) found in the Isle of Portland; but that which is used, is imported from the Canary and Cape de Verd Islands, Barbary, and the Levant. From it is obtained the archil, or orchal, of commerce, which

yields a rich purple tincture, fugitive, indeed, but extremely beautiful. The preparation of orchilla was long a secret, known only to the Florentines and Hollanders; but it is now extensively manufactured in this country. Archil is generally sold in the form of cakes, but sometimes in that of moist pulp; it is extensively used by dyers; and in times of scarcity, the weed or lichen has sold as high as 1,000*l.* per ton!—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*) At this moment (January, 1834), Canary orchilla fetches, in the London market, 320*l.* a ton, while that which is brought from Madeira fetches only 200*l.*, and Barbary not more than from 10*l.* to 25*l.* The total quantity imported in 1829 amounted to 1,813 cwt., or 90½ tons.

ORGOL. See ARGOL.

ORPIMENT (Ger. *Operment*; Fr. *Orpiment*; It. *Orpimento*; Sp. *Oropimente*; Lat. *Auripigmentum*), the name usually given to sulphuret of arsenic. When artificially prepared, it is in the form of a fine yellow-coloured powder; but it is found native in many parts of the world, particularly in Bohemia, Turkey, China, and Ava. It is exported from the last two in considerable quantities; and is know in the East by the name of hartal. Native orpiment is composed of thin plates of a lively gold colour, intermixed with pieces of a vermilion red, of a shattery foliaceous texture, flexible, soft to the touch like talc, and sparkling when broken. Specific gravity 3·45. The inferior kinds are of a dead yellow, inclining to green, and want the bright appearance of the best specimens. Its principal use is as a colouring drug among painters, bookbinders, &c.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

ORSEDEW, ORSIDUE, MANHEIM OR DUTCH GOLD (Ger. *Flittergold*; Du. *Klatergoud*; Fr. *Oripeau*, *Oliquant*; It. *Orpello*; Sp. *Oropel*), an inferior sort of gold leaf, prepared of copper and zinc. It is sometimes called *leaf* brass. It is principally manufactured in Manheim.

OSTRICH FEATHERS. See FEATHERS.

OWNERS OF SHIPS. Property in ships is acquired, like other personal property, by fabricating them, or by inheritance, purchase, &c.

No ship is entitled to any of the privileges of a British ship until she be duly registered as such, and all the provisions in the Registry Act (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55.) be complied with.—(See REGISTRY.)

A British ship may belong either to one individual or to several individuals. It is ordered by the act just cited, that the property of every vessel of which there are more owners than one, shall be divided into 64th shares; and that no person shall be entitled to be registered as an owner who does not, at least, hold one 64th share. It is further provided by the same statute, that not more than *thirty-two* persons shall be owners of any one ship at any one time. Companies or associations holding property in ships, may choose *three* of their members to act as trustees for them.

Neither the property of an entire ship, nor any share or shares in such ship, can be transferred from one individual to another, except by bill of sale or other instrument in writing; and before the sale is valid, such bill or instrument must be produced to the collector and comptroller, who are to enter the names, residences, &c. of the seller and buyer, the number of shares sold, &c. in the book of registry of such vessel, and to indorse the particulars on the certificate of registry.—(See the clause in the statute, art. REGISTRY.)

But, though compliance with the directions in the statute accomplishes a complete transference of the property, when the transaction is not in its nature illegal, it gives no sort of security to a transference that is otherwise bad. The purchaser should in all cases endeavour to get *possession* of the ship, or of his share in her, as soon as his title to her or it is acquired, by the registration of the particulars of the bill of sale; for though all the formalities of sale have been completed, yet, if the sellers continue as apparent owners in possession of the ship, their creditors may, in the event of their becoming bankrupt, acquire a right to it, to the exclusion of the purchasers. In the case of a sale or agreement for a part only, it is enough if, the sale being completed, the seller ceases to act as a part owner.—(*Lord Tenterden on the Law of Shipping*, part i. c. 1.)

Property in ships is sometimes acquired by capture. During war, his Majesty's ships, and private ships having letters of marque, are entitled to make prizes. But before the captors acquire a legal title to such prizes, it is necessary that they should be condemned in the Admiralty or other court constituted for that purpose. When this is done, the captors are considered to be in the same situation, with respect to them, as if they had built or purchased them.

The act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55. has ruled, that no person having the transfer of a ship, or a share of a ship, made over to him as a security for a debt, shall be deemed an owner, or part owner, of such ship. And when such transfer has been duly registered according to the provisions of the act, the right and interest of the mortgagee are not to be affected by the bankruptcy of the mortgagor, though he be the reputed owner, or part owner, of such ship.—(See REGISTRY.)

In the article MASTERS OF SHIPS is given an account of the liabilities incurred by the

owners of ships for the acts of the masters. But it has been attempted to encourage navigation by limiting the responsibility of the owners, without, however, depriving the freighter of a ship of an adequate security for the faithful performance of the contract. To effect this desirable object, it has been enacted, that the owner or owners shall not be liable to make good any loss or damage happening *without their fault or privity*, to any goods put on board any ship or vessel belonging to such owner or owners, further than the value of such ship or vessel, with all its appurtenances, and the freight due, or growing due, during the voyage that may be in prosecution, or contracted for, at the time when the loss or damage has taken place.—(53 *Geo.* 3. c. 159.)

This limitation was first introduced into our law by the 7 Geo. 2. c. 15. But it had previously been adopted in the law of Holland, and in the justly celebrated French Ordinance of 1681. In the Ordinance of Rotterdam, issued in 1721, it is expressly declared, that "the owners shall not be answerable for any act of the master, done without their order, any further than their part of the ship amounts to." Independently, however, of this general agreement, the expediency of the limitation appears, for the reasons already stated, sufficiently obvious.

It was also enacted in 1786 (26 Geo. 3. c. 60.), that neither the master nor owners of any ship or vessel shall be liable to answer for or make good any gold or silver, diamonds, watches, jewels, or precious stones, lost or embezzled during the course of the voyage, unless the shipper thereof insert in his bill of lading, or declare in writing to the master or owners, the true nature, quality, and value of such articles.

The responsibility, at common law, of a *master* or *mariner* is not affected by the first mentioned limitation, even though such master or mariner be owner or part owner of the vessel; neither does the limitation extend to the owner or owners of any lighter, barge, boat, &c. used solely in rivers or inland navigation, nor to any ship or vessel not duly registered according to law.

When several freighters sustain losses exceeding in the whole the value of the ship and freight, they are to receive compensation thereout in proportion to their respective losses: and any one freighter, on behalf of himself and the other freighters, or any part owner, on behalf of himself and the other part owners, may file a bill in a court of equity for the discovery of the total amount of the losses, and of the value of the ship, and for an equal distribution and payment. If the bill be filed by or on behalf of the part owners, the plaintiff must make affidavit that he does not collude with the defendants, and must offer to pay the value of the ship and freight, as the court shall direct.

It is usual in most countries, where the part owners of a ship disagree as to her employment, to give those possessed of the greater number of shares power to bind the whole. But in this country, while the majority of the owners in value have authority to employ the ship as they please, the interests of the minority are secured from being prejudiced by having their property engaged in an adventure of which they disapprove. For this purpose the Court of Admiralty has been in the practice of taking a stipulation from those who desire to send the ship on a voyage, in a sum equal to the value of the shares of those who object to it, either to bring back and restore to them the ship, or to pay them the value of their shares. When this is done, the dissentient part owners bear no portion of the expenses of the outfit, are not entitled to a share in the profits of the voyage; the ship sails wholly at the charge and risk and for the profit, of the others.—(*Abbott*, part i. c. 3.)

For the statutory enactments as to the sale and transfer of ships, see REGISTER.

OYSTER, OYSTERS (Ger. *Austern*; Fr. *Huitres*; It. *Ostriche*; Sp. *Ostras*; Lat. *Ostreæ*). This well known shell-fish is very generally diffused, and is particularly plentiful on the British coasts, which were ransacked for the supply of ancient Rome with oysters. They differ in quality according to the different nature of the soil or bed. The best British oysters are found at Purfleet; the worst, near Liverpool. The nursing and feeding of oysters is almost exclusively carried on at Colchester, and other places in Essex. The oysters are brought from the coast of Hampshire, Dorset, and other maritime counties, even as far as Scotland, and laid on beds or layings in creeks along the shore, where they grow, in 2 or 3 years, to a considerable size, and have their flavour improved. There are said to be about 200 vessels, from 12 to 40 or 50 tons burden, immediately employed in dredging for oysters, having from 400 to 500 men and boys attached to them. The quantity of oysters bred and taken in Essex, and consumed mostly in London, is supposed to amount to 14,000 or 15,000 bushels a year.—(*Supp. to Ency. Brit.* art. *Fisheries.*)

The imports of oysters fluctuate very much. From 1824 to 1828, both inclusive, none were imported. But, at an average of 1831 and 1832, the imports amounted to 63,005 bushels a year.

The stealing of oysters, or oyster brood, from any oyster bed, laying, or fishery, is larceny, and the offender, being convicted thereof, shall be punished accordingly; and if any person shall unlawfully and wilfully use any dredge, net, &c. for the purpose of taking oysters, or oyster brood, within the limits of an oyster bed or fishery, every such person shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, upon being convicted thereof, shall be punished by fine or imprisonment, or both, as the court may award; such fine not to exceed 20*l.*, and such imprisonment not to exceed 3 calendar months. It is provided, that nothing in the act shall be construed as preventing any one from catching *floating fish* within the limits of any oyster fishery, with any net, instrument, or engine adapted to the catching of such fish.—(7 & 8 *Geo.* 4. c. 29. § 36.)

P.

PACKAGE, SCAVAGE, BAILLAGE, AND PORTAGE, were duties charged in the port of London, on the goods imported and exported by aliens, or by denizens being the sons of aliens.

During the dark ages, it was usual to lay higher duties upon the goods imported or exported by aliens, whether in British or foreign ships, than were laid on similar goods when imported or exported by natives. But according as sounder and more enlarged principles prevailed, this illiberal distinction was gradually modified, and was at length wholly abolished, in so far at least as it was of a public character, by the 24 Geo. 3. c. 16. This act, after reciting that "the several duties and restrictions imposed by various acts of parliament upon merchandise are, by the alterations of the trade now carried on between this kingdom and foreign states, in some cases become an unnecessary burden upon commerce, without producing any real advantage to the public revenue, and that it is expedient they should no longer continue," enacts, that the duty commonly called "the petty customs," imposed by the 12 Car. 2., and all other additional duties imposed by any act upon the goods of aliens above those payable by natural-born subjects, should be no longer payable. The act then goes on to provide, that nothing contained in it shall "alter the duties due and payable upon goods imported into or exported from this kingdom in any *foreign* ship, nor the duties of *package*, and *scavage*, or any duties granted by charter to the city of London;" and then follow provisions to prevent the city being defrauded of such duties by false entries of aliens' goods in the name of a British subject.—(*Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. i. p. 160.)

The duties thus preserved to the city were not very heavy: but the principle on which they were imposed was exceedingly objectionable, and their collection was attended with a great deal of trouble and inconvenience. Not being levied in other places, they operated to the prejudice of the trade of the metropolis. For these reasons, we observed, in the former edition of this work, that "if the funds of the corporation will not admit of their following the liberal example of the legislature, by voluntarily abandoning this vexatious impost, it would be good policy to give them a compensation for relinquishing it." And we are glad to have to state this suggestion has since been carried into effect. The act 3 & 4 Will. 4, c. 66. authorised the Lords of the Treasury to purchase up the duties in question from the city. This has been done, at an expense of about 140,000*l.*, and the duties are now abolished. There is a Table of the duties in the former edition of this work.

PACKETS. See NEW YORK, PASSENGERS, and POST-OFFICE.

PALERMO (anciently PANORMUS), a large city and sea-port, the capital of the noble island of Sicily, on the north coast of which it is situated, the light-house being in lat. 38° 8′ 15″ N., lon. 13° 21′ 56″ E. Population, 170,000.

The bay of Palermo is about 5 miles in depth, the city being situated on its south-west shore. A fine mole, fully ½ of a mile in length, having a light-house and battery at its extremity, projects in a southerly direction from the arsenal into 9 or 10 fathoms water, forming a convenient port, capable of containing a great number of vessels. This immense work cost about 1,000,000*l.* sterling in its construction; but the light-house, though a splendid structure, is said to be very ill lighted. There is an inner port, which is reserved for the use of the arsenal. Ships that do not mean to go within the mole may anchor about ½ a mile from it, in from 16 to 23 fathoms, the mole light bearing N.W. ½ W. A heavy sea sometimes rolls into the bay, but no danger need be apprehended by ships properly found in anchors and chain cables. In going into the bay, it is necessary to keep clear of the nets of the tunny fishery, for these are so strong and well moored, as to be capable of arresting a ship under sail.—(*Smyth's Sicily*, p. 70. and *Appen.* p. 4.)

Money.—Since 1818, the coins of Sicily have been the same as those of Naples, their names only differing.—(See NAPLES.) The ducat, = 3*s.* 5·2*d.* sterling, is subdivided into 100 *bajocchi* and 10 *piccioli*: but accounts are still generally kept in *oncie*, *tari*, and *grani*: 20 grani = 1 taro; 30 tari = 1 oncia. The oncia = 3 ducats; and 1 carlino of Naples = 1 taro of Sicily. The Spanish dollar is current at 12 tari 6 grani.

Weights.—These are the *cantaro grosso*, subdivided into 100 *rottoli grossi* of 33 onzie, or into 110 rottoli sottili of 30 oncie; and the *cantaro sottile*, subdivided into 100 rottoli sottili of 30 oncie, or 250 lbs. of 12 oncie. The rottolo of 33 ounces = 1·93 lbs. avoirdupois = 2·34 lbs. Troy = 8·73 hectogrammes = 1·77 lbs. of Amsterdam = 1·8 lbs. of Hamburgh. The rottolo of 30 ounces = 1·75 lbs. avoirdupois = 2·13 lbs. Troy = 7·94 hectogrammes = 1·6 lbs. of Amsterdam = 1·64 lbs. of Hamburgh.

100 Sicilian pounds of 12 ounces = 70 lbs. avoirdupois = 85·11 lbs. Troy = 31·76 kilog. = 64·23 lbs. of Amsterdam = 65·58 lbs. of Hamburgh.

Measures.—The *salma grossa* = 9·48 Winch. bush.: the *salma generale* = 7·62 Winch. bush.

The principal liquid measure is the tonna, divided into 4 barili, each equivalent to 9¾ wine gallons. 1 barile = 2 quartare; 1 quartara = 20 quartucci. The caffiso of oil = 4¾ Eng. gallons.

The yard or *canna* = 8 *palmi*; 2½ palms = 1 yard Eng.—(*Nelkenbrecher*; *Smyth*, p. 62 App.)

Tares.—Coffee, indigo, pepper, and dye woods, 2 per cent. and weight of package. Cinnamon, 6 rottoli per seron, with 1 wrapper, or 8 rottoli, with 2 wrappers; cocoa, 2 per cent., weight of package, and 3 per cent. for dust; cod-fish, 3 per cent.; herrings, 12 per cent.; tin, 13 rottoli per barrel; wax, weight of package, and 3 to 4 per cent. extra allowance; Havannah sugars, 16 per cent.; Brazil do., in short cases, 18 per cent., and in long cases, 20 per cent.; crushed sugar, weight of cask, and 5 per cent., or 13 per cent. in all, at the option of the buyer; East India do., in bags, 8 rot. to 10 rot. per bag. 1 rotolo taken as weight of bag, for coffee and cocoa in bags.

Charges on Goods.—The regular charges on the sale of goods consigned to Palermo, are—commission, 3 per cent.; brokerage, ½ per cent.; warehouse rent, ½ per cent.; and porterage and boat hire; with 2 per cent. *del credere*,—imports being almost always sold on credit. The charges may occasion-

ally very ¼ to 1 per cent., and imports are frequently sold duty paid; the prices, however, so obtained, fully compensate for the trifling increase of charges.

The charges on goods exported are—3 per cent. commission; brokerage, so much per *cantaro salmo*, &c., generally amounting to about ¼ per cent., except on fruit, on which it is equivalent to from 2 to 3 per cent.

Imports and Exports.—The great articles of export from Sicily are—grain, particularly wheat and barley; beans, wine, brandy, oil, barilla, lemons and oranges, lemon juice, almonds, salt, shumac, salt-fish, cheese, with brimstone, argol, manna, liquorice, pumice stone, rags, skins, honey, cotton wool, nuts, linseed, saffron, &c. Wheat is largely exported. It is of a mixed quality, hard, and is generally sold from the public magazines, or *caricatori* (see *post*), by measure, without weight. But the best hard wheat, grown in the neighbourhood of Palermo, is sold by the salma of 272 rotoli = 476lbs. Eng.; the difference between weight and measure being made good by the seller or buyer, as the case may be. Wine is principally shipped from Marsala; lemons, oranges, and lemon juice, from Messina; salt, from Trapani; and barilla, from the southern coast. But all the articles to be found on the coast may, for the most part, be had at Palermo; unless, however, the quantity required be small, it is usually best to ship them from the outports, the expense of their conveyance to Palermo being very heavy. The crops of barilla and shumac come to market in August; but brimstone, salt, oil, wine, rags, &c. may generally be had all the year round. The first shipments of lemons and oranges may be made in the beginning of November. Purchases of produce are always paid for in cash, generally ¼ on making the purchase, and the other ¾ on delivery, when in Palermo, and on receiving order for delivery, on the coast.

The imports consist of sugar, coffee, cocoa, indigo, dye woods, spices, iron, tin, hides, Newfoundland cod, cotton and woollen stuffs, timber for building, &c. We have no means of forming any estimate either of the quantity or the value of the principal articles of import and export. Silk is a staple produce of the island; but its exportation in an unwrought state, except to Naples, is prohibited.—(We have gleaned these details principally from *private communications*. The best account of the trade of Sicily, though now a little antiquated, that we have met with in any English work, is contained in *Swinburne's Travels in the Two Sicilies*, 4to ed. vol. ii. pp. 401—413. See also the article NAPLES in this work.)

Remarks on the Trade, &c. of Sicily.—This noble island contains about 10,500 square miles, being the largest in the Mediterranean, and one of the most fertile and best situated in the world. Its population is about 1,900,000. In ancient times, Sicily was celebrated for the number, magnitude, and opulence of its cities; and, notwithstanding its population was then, at least, treble its present amount, it obtained, from its furnishing vast supplies of corn and other articles of provision for the use of Rome, the appropriate epithet of *horreum Romanorum*. When the Roman power had been overthrown, Sicily was occupied, first by the Saracens, then by the Normans, and after them by the French. The Sicilian Vespers put a fatal period to the dominion of the latter; and a prince of the house of Aragon having been called to the Sicilian throne, the island became, in course of time, a dependency, first of the crown of Spain, and more recently of that of Naples.

It is to this dependence that we are induced to ascribe the backward state of Sicily. The multiplied abuses which grew up in Spain, under Ferdinand the Catholic, and his successors of the Austrian line, flourished with equal luxuriance in Sicily, and have produced no less destructive of the industry and civilisation of its inhabitants than of those of Spain. The Bourbon or Neapolitan régime has been equally pernicious. "The government of this island," says a recent and most intelligent observer, "seems to unite in itself nearly all the defects, both theoretical and practical, of which political institutions are susceptible. It is a model in its way. We find here a system of laws quite barbarous, and the administration of them notoriously corrupt; high taxes, levied arbitrarily and unequally; the land generally held on such a tenure as makes it unalienable, so that few can ever be proprietors; and farming leases, for church land at least, are binding on the farmer only, and not on his landlord. For want of roads, produce cannot be exported from one part of the island to another; the consequence of which is, that a scarcity and a glut may and frequently do exist at the same time in different parts of the island, without the means of timely and effectual communication."—(*Simond's Italy and Sicily*, p. 529.) But the grand curse of Sicilian, as well as of Sardinian, industry—(see CAGLIARI)—is the restriction on the exportation of corn. It is true that the difficulties in this respect are not so great now as formerly, but they are still such as to oppose an invincible obstacle to the spread of improvement, and to the development of the national resources. No exportation of corn can take place without leave of the *real patrimonio*,—a tribunal that pretends to take a yearly account of the crop, and of the supply required to meet the home demand. When this body has determined that an exportation may take place, it issues (or rather, we believe, sells) its licences to export certain specific quantities, to a few favoured individuals*, who, in consequence, are able to regulate the price; so that they, and not the corn growers, reap all the advantage! Thus, says M. Simond, "neither scanty nor plentiful crops affording a chance of gain, farmers are discouraged, and corn is frequently scarce in a country once the granary of Imperial Rome, although its own population be now reduced to 1-6th of what it was at that period.† Such is the system of minute and vexatious regulations, that a man cannot go in or out of town with a loaf of bread or a joint of meat without special permission. The revenue laws in England are sufficiently vexatious, but they at least answer their fiscal purpose. Here the

* The late Queen is said to have been a great dealer in corn on her own account!

† We cannot help looking upon this as an exaggeration. There do not seem to be any good grounds for thinking that Sicily ever contained more than 6,000,000 inhabitants,—that is, a little more than three times as many as at present.

vexation is gratuitous; for little or nothing comes of it ultimately, drained as the little sources of revenue are, in their way to the treasury, by malpractices of all sorts."—(p. 530.)

There are only certain ports from which corn can be exported. This limitation has given rise to the establishment of public magazines or *caricatori*, where the corn may be deposited till an opportunity occurs of shipping it off. Provided it be of good quality (*mercantibile* or *recttibile*), and provided it be brought in immediately after harvest, or, at farthest, in August, it is warehoused free of expense; what it gains in bulk after that period (about 5 per cent.) being sufficient to defray all expenses. The receipt of the *caricator*, or keeper of the magazine, is negotiable like a bill of exchange, and is the object of speculative purchases on the exchange at Palermo, Messina, &c. according to the expected rise or fall in the price of corn. The depositor of a quantity sells it in such portions as he pleases, the whole being faithfully accounted for. The public magazines, in some parts of the island, are either excavations into calcareous rocks, or holes in the ground shaped like a bottle, walled up, and made waterproof, containing each about 200 salme of corn, or about 1,600 English bushels. The neck of the bottle is hermetically closed with a stone fastened with gypsum. Corn may be thus preserved for an indefinite length of time; at least, it has been found in perfectly good order after the lapse of a century.—(*Simond*, p. 540.; *Swinburne*, vol. ii. p. 405. For an account of the oil *caricatori* of Naples, see Olive Oil.)

Hemp grows very well in Sicily; and when the English were there, their ships were abundantly supplied with that article; but its exportation being no longer permitted, its culture is now, of course, neglected!—(*Simond*, p. 539.) Sugar canes were, at one time, pretty extensively cultivated in Sicily; but their culture has been long declining, and is now nearly extinct.

Were the bounty of nature towards Sicily not counteracted by vicious laws and institutions, she would undoubtedly be one of the richest and finest of European countries. All that she requires is security of property and freedom of industry. Let but these be given to her, and a few years will develope her gigantic resources, and elevate Girgenti, Termini, and Sciacca, to a very high rank among corn-shipping ports.

PALM OIL (Ger. *Palmol*; Fr. *Huile de palme, Huile de Senegal*; It. *Olio di palma*; Sp. *Aceite de palma*) is obtained from the fruit of several species of palms, but especially from that of the *Elais Guineensis*, growing on the west coast of Africa, to the south of Fernando Po, and in Brazil. When imported, the oil is about the consistence of butter, of a yellowish colour, and scarcely any particular taste: by long keeping it becomes rancid; loses its colour, which fades to a dirty white; and in this state is to be rejected. It is sometimes imitated with hog's lard, coloured with turmeric, and scented with Florentine iris root. The inhabitants of the coast of Guinea employ palm oil for the same purposes that we do butter. —(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

Account of the Quantities of Palm Oil entered for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom, the Amount of Duty received thereon, and the Rate of Duty, each Year since 1821.

Years.	Quantities entered for Home Consumption.	Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty charged.	Years.	Quantities entered for Home Consumption.	Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty charged.
	Cwt.	*L.* *s.* *d.*	*Per Cwt.*		*Cwt.*	*L.* *s.* *d.*	*Per Cwt.*
1821	100,059	12,289 11 6	2*s.* 6*d.*	1827	98,070	12,256 10 4	2*s.* 6*d.*
1822	69,817	8,429 9 6	ditto	1828	120,599	15,074 15 8	ditto
1823	73,668	9,045 5 1	ditto	1829	176,393	21,962 0 6	ditto
1824	74,624	9,373 2 0	ditto	1830	179,658	22,468 5 1	ditto
1825	84,996	10,632 17 4	ditto	1831	175,452	21,932 0 0	ditto
1826	94,256	11,783 10 8	ditto	1832	220,328	27,542 0 0	ditto

The price of palm oil (duty paid) varies from 33*l.* to 34*l.* a ton.

Almost all the palm oil made use of in this country is brought from the western coast of Africa, south of the Rio Volta.

PAMPHLET, a small book, usually printed in the octavo form, and stitched.

It is enacted by 10 Ann. c. 19. § 113., that no person shall sell, or expose to sale, any pamphlet, without the name and place of abode of some known person, by or for whom it was printed or published, written or printed thereon, under penalty of 20*l.* and costs.

It is enacted by the 55 Geo. 3. c. 185., that every book containing 1 whole sheet, and not exceeding 8 sheets, in 8vo, or any lesser size; or not exceeding 12 sheets in 4to, or 20 sheets in folio, shall be deemed a pamphlet. The same act imposed a duty of 3*s.* upon each sheet of *one* copy of all pamphlets published. This duty, which was at once vexatious and unproductive, hardly ever yielding more than 1,000*l.* or 1,100*l.* a year, was repealed in 1833.

PAPER (Ger. and Du. *Papier*; Fr. *Papier*; It. *Carta*; Sp. *Papel*; Rus. *Bumaga*; Lat. *Charta*; Arab. *Kurtas*; Pers. *Kaghas*). This highly useful substance is, as every one knows, thin, flexible, of different colours, but most commonly white, being used for writing and printing upon, and for various other purposes. It is manufactured of vegetable matter reduced to a sort of pulp. The term paper is derived from the Greek *παπῦρος* (*papyrus*, see *post*), the leaves of a plant on which the ancients used to write. Paper is made up into *sheets*, *quires*, and *reams*; each quire consisting of 24 sheets, and each ream of 20 quires.

Historical Sketch of Paper. Difference between ancient and modern Paper.—It has often been a subject of wonder with those learned and ingenious persons who have written

concerning the arts of the ancient world, that the Greeks and Romans, although they possessed a prodigious number of books, and approached very near to printing in the stamping words and letters, and similar devices, should not have fallen upon the art: the first rude attempts at typography being sufficiently obvious, though much time and contrivance have been required to bring the process to the perfection in which it now prevails. They ought rather, perhaps, to have wondered that the more civilised nations of antiquity did not invent paper, which must precede the invention of printing, as may be easily shown. The rocks, pillars of stone or of marble, and especially the walls of edifices, supply fixed surfaces, upon which, were we unprovided with more convenient tablets, much valuable information might be preserved; and were all our public and many of our private buildings thickly covered with inscriptions, the memory of divers historical facts, and other matters of importance, might be handed down to posterity. Men wrote thus in very remote ages; and the old usage is still retained in many instances, particularly in our churches and cemeteries. In very remote ages, also, we read that they were accustomed to write upon portable surfaces of various kinds: and if it were possible to deprive us of our ordinary means of fixing and communicating our thoughts, modern ingenuity would speedily reinvent numerous expedients which have long been superseded; and we should have recourse to plates of metal of various dimensions, sometimes, probably, as thin as foil; to slices of soft, light wood, not thicker than those of which band-boxes are sometimes made; to cloth, leather, and the like. These materials would often be primed like the canvass of painters, that they might more readily receive, and more plainly show, the ink or paint that formed the characters. It is evident that, in the course of time, large libraries might be gradually composed of books constructed in this manner; and the whole amount of human learning might still be very considerable. The substances which we have enumerated are all somewhat costly: it would be desirable, therefore, to find one that was cheaper; and we should doubtless direct our attention very early to that which has served the office of paper in all times, and is used as such in some countries of the East at this day,—we mean the leaves of trees. Some of the palms, and other vegetables, that are natives of hot countries, furnish the Orientals with books that are not incommodious: the leaves of the indigenous plants of Great Britain are not so well suited for the purpose; but by care in the selection and skill in the preparation, some might certainly be chosen, which would, in some degree, be fit to receive writing. Leaves, when they are dry, are apt to split in the direction of the fibres; it has commonly been found expedient, therefore, to glue others at the back in an opposite direction; and by thus crossing the fibres at right angles, the texture is strengthened;[a] and when it has been pressed and polished, the page is less unseemly and inconvenient than might have been supposed. Such, in the main, was the structure of the ancient paper. In Sicily, and in other countries on the shores of the Mediterranean Sea, but principally in Egypt and in the Nile, or rather in the ponds and ditches that communicate with that river, grows, in the nineteenth century after the death of the last of the Ptolemies, as of old under that illustrious dynasty, and under their predecessors the Pharaohs, a lofty and most stately reed or rush, the *Cyperus Papyrus* of modern botanists. It has been introduced into the hot-houses of some of our botanical gardens, where it may be seen conspicuous with its long, drooping, and graceful plume. A description of the various purposes to which the ancients applied this useful plant, would fill a volume; we shall speak of that only from which it has earned an immortality of renown. The inner bark was divided with a needle into very thin coats; these were placed side by side longitudinally, and the edges were glued together; similar layers were glued across these behind, at right angles, to give the page the requisite strength; and the sheets were pressed, dried, polished, and otherwise prepared for use. Ancient writers have described the process, and especially Pliny, (*Hist. Nat.* lib. xiii. c. 11, 12, 13.). From that naturalist, and the notes of Hardouin and his other commentators, it may be fully traced; and Mr. Bruce has collected the authorities, and has added his own observations, in the 7th vol. of the 8vo edition of his *Travels*. That remarkable person even attempted to make paper from the papyrus; in which, however, he was not very successful; and he imputes his failure to the erroneous directions of Pliny; for it seems not to have occurred to him, that, had he endeavoured, trusting to written directions, without experience and traditional art, to make modern paper, or even a pair of shoes, he would, most probably, have been equally infelicitous. Alexandria was the chief seat of this valuable manufacture; but in later periods much was also made at Rome, where an article of superior beauty was produced. Pliny enumerates the various kinds of paper that were composed, from the coarsest, which was used, like our brown paper, for packing, to the most expensive and finest. The consumption of paper was very considerable; it seems to have been tolerably cheap; and since the principal part was made at Alexandria, it was an important article in the commerce of that city—furnishing employment for many workmen and much capital. Flavius Vopiscus relates, that in the 3d century, the tyrant Firmus used to say there was so much paper there, and so large a quantity of the glue or size used in preparing it, that he could maintain an army with it:—"*Tantum habuisse de chartis, ut publicè sæpe diceret, exercitum se alere posse papyro et glutino.*" We may doubt whether the value of the paper which any single city now contains would de

[a] We are indebted f
ter-at-law. The read
on it in *Rees's Cyclopa*

the like. Learned men have discussed the antiquity of this manufacture. It is not improbable that an earlier date ought to be assigned to it than is commonly given: nor ought we readily to conclude that it was unknown at a particular period, because it is not mentioned in a poem of that time; for the poet sought to celebrate the achievements of gods and heroes, and not to compose an Encyclopædia, or a Dictionary of the Arts and Sciences. Ancient paper was white, smooth, durable, and well adapted in all respects for writing; but it was not suited for the printer: by reason of the closeness of the grain, it would not receive the ink from the types more kindly than shavings of wood, &c.; and so brittle was its texture, that it would have shivered into pieces under the press. Nor did it resemble modern paper in its structure: it was, in truth, an inartificial mass; leaves, or rather strips of bark ("*cortex niveæ virentium herbarum*"), being pasted together by the edges, others were laid across them behind; whereas the paper which we now use is, perhaps, the most subtle and extraordinary of human inventions. If a cistern or other vessel be filled with water turbid with lime or clay, and the earth allowed to subside slowly, the water being evaporated, or drawn off gently, and the sediment left to dry, the calcareous or argillaceous deposit will represent faithfully the formation of paper; and it will be smooth, and of an equal thickness throughout; for an equal portion of the earth of which it is formed was suspended in the troubled water over each point in the bottom where it finally lodged. In making paper, the water is turbid with the pulp or paste of triturated rags, and the suspended pulp is not suffered to subside slowly; but a sieve or frame of wire gauze is dipped equally into the cistern, and is raised gently to the surface, and agitated in a level position, which facilitates the passage of the water through the wires, while the fibres of rag are in some degree interwoven by it, and, remaining on the surface of the sieve, form the sheet of paper. This is pressed between felts, to exclude the water, and to render its texture closer; it is dried and sized, and undergoes various operations, which it is unnecessary to enumerate, as we seek only to show that the result of this wonderful invention is as much an aqueous deposit as the earthy sediment at the bottom of a cistern, although it is obtained more rapidly. Modern paper has nothing in common with the ancient, save the vegetable fibre which is the basis of both. The application of rotary motion has effected wonders in many of the arts; nor have the results been less astonishing in the paper-mill: instead of dipping the sieves or frames into the cistern of turbid water, a circular web, a round towel of woven wire, revolves under the vessel, receives the deposit, conveys it away, and, by an adjustment of marvellous delicacy, transfers it uninjured, although as frail as a wet cobweb, to a similar revolving towel of felt: thus an endless web of paper is spun, as long as the machine continues to move, and the water charged with pulp is supplied. We are unable to pursue the process, however interesting; for we desire merely to explain the general principle according to which our paper is constructed. It is to this admirable material that we owe the invention of printing, which could not subsist without it: its pervious and spongy texture imbibes and retains the ink, and its toughness resists the most violent pressure; and, in a well-bound book, under favourable circumstances, its duration is indefinite, and, for all practical purposes, eternal! It is true that legal documents are sometimes printed on parchment, which is less liable to be torn, or injured by rubbing; and the luxury of typography occasionally exhibits a few impressions of a splendid work upon vellum; and that these two substances were known to the ancients: but they are necessarily expensive, and the cost of either far exceeds the price of the best penmanship; so that it would be altogether unprofitable to cast types, to construct presses, and to incur the various and heavy charges of an establishment for printing, unless we possessed a cheaper material.

We owe the introduction of paper into Europe to the Arabians or Moors. There is some uncertainty as to the precise era of its first appearance; and we are unable to trace the origin of the precious invention, or even to imagine by what steps men were led to it. We cannot conceive how any one could be tempted to pound wet rags in a mortar, to stir the paste into a large body of water, to receive the deposit upon a sieve, to press and to dry it. The labour of beating rags into pulp by the hand would be as hopeless as it would be tedious and severe. It is true that paper was originally made of cotton,—a substance less obstinate than linen rags, which are now commonly used. At present, the fresh rags are torn in pieces by a powerful mill: formerly, it was the practice to suffer them to rot; to place them in large heaps in a warm and damp situation, and to allow them to heat and ferment, and to remain undisturbed until mushrooms began to grow upon them; so that, being partially decayed, it might be less difficult to triturate them. Nevertheless, the invention of paper is a mystery. The Chinese possess the arts of making paper and of printing; but we know not how long they have had them, nor whether the Mohammedans learned the former from them. The illiterate inhabitants of some of the islands in the South Seas were able to compose a species of paper, which they used in fine weather for raiment, of the bark of trees The basis of paper being the vegetable fibre, it has been made of various substances, as straw, as well as of rags.*

* We are indebted for this valuable historical sketch to our learned friend, T. J. Hogg, Esq., barrister-at-law. The reader may resort, for further information as to the history of paper, to the article on it in *Rees's Cyclopædia*.

Manufacture of Paper in England.—The application of paper to the purposes of writing and printing, and the fact of its being indispensable to the prosecution of the latter, render its manufacture of the highest utility and importance. But, even in a commercial point of view, its value is very considerable. France, Holland, and Genoa had, for a lengthened period, a decided superiority in this department. The finest and best paper being made of linen rags, its quality may be supposed to depend, in a considerable degree, on the sort of linen usually worn in the country where it is manufactured; and this circumstance is said to account for the greater whiteness of the Dutch and Belgian papers, as compared with those of the French and Italians, and still more the Germans. The rags used in the manufacture of writing paper in Great Britain, are collected at home; but those used in the manufacture of the best printing paper are imported, principally, from Italy, Hamburgh, and the Austrian States, by way of Trieste.—(See Rags.) We believe, however, that it was owing rather to the want of skill, than, as has sometimes been supposed, to the inferior quality of the linen of this country, that the manufacture of paper was not carried on with much success in England till a comparatively recent period. During the 17th century, most part of our supply was imported from the Continent, especially from France. The manufacture is said to have been considerably improved by the French Refugees who fled to this country in 1685. But it is distinctly stated in *The British Merchant* (vol. ii. p. 266.), that hardly any sort of paper, except brown, was made here previously to the Revolution. In 1690, however, the manufacture of white paper was attempted; and within a few years, most branches were much improved. In 1721, it is supposed that there were about 300,000 reams of paper annually produced in Great Britain, which was equal to about two thirds of the whole consumption. In 1783, the value of the paper annually manufactured was estimated at 780,000*l.* At present, besides making a sufficient quantity of most sorts of paper for our own use, we annually export about 100,000*l.* worth of books. We still, however, continue to import certain descriptions of paper for engraving from France, and a small supply of paper hangings. The duty on both amounts to about 2,800*l.* a year.

In 1813, Dr. Colquhoun estimated the value of paper annually produced in Great Britain at 2,000,000*l.*; but Mr. Stevenson, an incomparably better authority upon such subjects, estimated it at only half this sum. From information obtained from those engaged in the trade, we incline to think that the total annual value of the paper manufacture in the United Kingdom, exclusive of the duty, may at present amount to about 1,200,000*l.* or 1,300,000*l.* There are about 700 paper-mills in England, and from 70 to 80 in Scotland. The number in Ireland is but inconsiderable. Of these mills, we believe very few have lately been unemployed. About 27,000 individuals are supposed to be directly engaged in the trade: and, besides the workmen employed in the mills, the paper manufacture creates a considerable demand for the labour of millwrights, machinists, smiths, carpenters, iron and brass founders, wire-workers, woollen manufacturers, and others, in the machinery and apparatus of the mills. Some parts of these are very powerful, and subject to severe strain; and other parts are complicated and delicate, and require continual renovation. Owing to this, the manufacture is much greater in importance, as a source of employment, than might at first be supposed, or than it would seem to be considered by government, who have loaded it with an excise duty amounting to more than *three times as much as the total wages of the work-people employed!*

The modern discoveries in chemical science have not only materially facilitated the manufacture, but have greatly enlarged the supply of materials from which paper may be made. Until within these few years, the sweepings of cotton mills, owing to the grease and dirt with which they are mixed up, were of no value whatever, except as manure. But means having been discovered of rendering them white, they are now made into very good paper; and the neighbourhood of Manchester has, in consequence, become a principal seat of the manufacture.

During the present century, so remarkable for improvements in the arts, this manufacture has been signally promoted, notwithstanding the excise regulations, by the application of machinery to the conversion of pulp into paper. The first idea of this originated in France: a model of the machinery was brought to this country by a M. Didot, which, though very far from giving assurance of success, was yet sufficient to induce English capitalists and engineers, particularly Mr. Donkin, to follow up the scheme; and in the course of a few years they have brought it to a high degree of perfection. Mr. Dickinson, of Hertfordshire, one of the most intelligent mechanists and extensive paper manufacturers in England, has invented a machine of a different construction for the same purpose, and has also introduced various subsidiary improvements into the manufacture. The result is all but miraculous. By the agency of a great deal of complicated machinery, so admirably contrived as to produce the intended effect with unerring precision and in the very best manner, a process, which in the old system of paper-making occupied about *three* weeks, is performed in as many minutes! A continuous stream of fluid pulp is, within this brief space of time, and the short distance of 30 feet, not only made into paper, but actually dried, polished, and every separate sheet cut round the edges, and rendered completely ready for use! The paper manufactured by

this wonderful combination of intelligence and power is, at once, moderate in price, and for most purposes superior in quality to that which was formerly made by hand. The sample before the reader, though not the finest that is made, will warrant what is now stated. Mr. Dickinson has very recently made an important improvement in the paper manufacture, on the principle of veneering in cabinet work. He makes two webs of paper, each by a separate process; and by laying them together while in an early stage, they are rendered inseparable by the pressure to which they are subjected. This paper is used in copperplate printing; and by adopting a peculiar method of preparing the pulp, and selecting a finer rag for the web which forms the face of the paper, it is much better calculated for taking a fine impression. This admirable invention has put nearly a total stop to the importation of French paper, which was formerly used in considerable quantities by copperplate printers.

Duty on Paper. Excise Regulations.—It is difficult to say whether the duty on paper, or the regulations under which that duty is collected, be the more objectionable. All writing, coloured, or wrapping paper, card-boards, and pasteboards, are denominated 1st class paper, and pay 3*d.* per lb. duty (28*s.* a cwt.); unless *manufactured wholly of tarred ropes, without the tar being previously extracted*, in which case the paper is denominated 2d class, and pays 1½*d.* per lb. (14*s.* a cwt.). Millboards and scaleboards, made of the same materials as 2d class paper, pay 2¼*d.* per lb. (21*s.* a cwt.) duty.

The duty on the various descriptions of 1st class paper varies from about 25 or 30 per cent. on the finest, to about 200 per cent. on the coarsest! A duty so oppressive has led to the commission of very great frauds, which all the vigilance of the officers, and the endless multiplication of checks and penalties, have been unable to prevent; the real effect of such miserable devices being to injure the honest manufacturer, and to give those of a different character greater facilities for carrying on their fraudulent schemes. But, laying out of view for a moment the oppressiveness of the duty, can any thing be more preposterously absurd, than to interdict the manufacturer of wrapping paper (for it is to him that the regulation applies) from using any other material than *tarred ropes!* If there must be a duty on paper, let it be assessed upon the finished article on an *ad valorem* principle; but do not let the plans and combinations of the manufacturer be interfered with. Were it not for the existing regulation, wrapping paper of equal strength and better appearance than what is now manufactured, might be made of much less costly materials. Since the peace, and the very general introduction of iron cables, tarred ropes have advanced considerably in price; but as the use of *any other material whatever* would occasion an increase of 14*s.* a cwt. of duty, advantage cannot be taken of this circumstance; so that the excise regulation, without putting one sixpence into the pockets of government, obliges the public to pay an increased price for an inferior article! Neither is this its only effect: a good deal of the refuse thrown out in sorting rags, which might be used in the manufacture of coarse wrapping paper, is at present sold by the manufacturers for about 3*s.* a cwt.; while a good deal that might be used in the same way cannot be sold at all, but is absolutely lost. It is plain, therefore, that this regulation has a two-fold operation: first, in adding to the cost of wrapping paper, by compelling it to be made from a comparatively expensive article; and, secondly, in adding to the expense of fine paper, by preventing the refuse of the rags used in its manufacture from being beneficially employed.

The other regulations in the excise acts (43 Geo. 3. c. 20. and 42 Geo. 3. c. 94.) as to paper, are of a piece with that now brought under the reader's notice. Every step of the manufacture must be conducted under the *surveillance* of the excise; and the provisions as to entries, folding, weighing, sorting, labelling, removing, &c. are not only exceedingly numerous, but are in the last degree vexatious, at the same time that compliance with them is enforced under ruinous penalties. That this is not an exaggerated statement will be obvious from the following extracts from the statements of manufacturers, given in Mr. Poulett Thomson's admirable speech on the taxation of the empire, 26th of March, 1850.

"We are bound," says a manufacturer on whose accuracy and honour I (Mr. P. Thomson) can rely, "to give 24 or 48 hours' notice (according to the distance the exciseman lives), before we can change any paper, and to keep it in our mills for 24 hours afterwards before we send it to market, unless it has been reweighed by the supervisor; to have the different rooms in our manufactories lettered; to have our engines, vats, chests, and presses numbered; and labels pasted on each ream: should we lose one label, the penalty is 200*l.* I generally write a request for 500 labels to the excise at one time; and should any person get into my mill, and steal or destroy them, the penalty would be 100,000*l.* I believe there is not any kind of paper pays more than 20*s.* per ream duty. If the penalty were 40*s.* it would be quite sufficient to answer every purpose for the security of the revenue. We are obliged, also, to take out a yearly licence; and a mill with 1 vat pays as much as one that has 10."

Another says,—"It is no slight aggravation of the evil, that the laws are so scattered and confused as to render it almost impossible for any body to have a knowledge of them; and frequently, what is a great annoyance to an honest man, is no check to a rogue. It is true, the excise laws are seldom, or perhaps never, acted upon to their utmost rigour; but still they confer almost unlimited power on those who have the administering of them, over the property of all who come under their influence; and I am persuaded that they never could have existed, if they had effected the whole of the community."

It is singular that nothing should hitherto have been done to amend regulations so justly complained of. In point of fact, they are good for nothing but the oppression of the trade. It has not been shown that their maintenance is indispensable to enable the duty to be assessed and collected; but if such be the case, it is, of itself, a sufficient ground for the repeal of the duty. Our condition is not, fortunately, such as to require that one of the most important manufactures carried on in the empire should be subjected to a system of oppressive regulations for the sake of 700,000*l.* a year.

But, though it were possible to assess and collect the duty so as to prevent fraud, without interfering with the manufacture, we should very much doubt, considering the purposes to which paper is applied, the policy of subjecting it to any duty whatever. Printers, stationers, bookbinders, typefounders, artists, copperplate and lithographic printers, card-makers, paper-stainers and paperhangers, &c. are all injured by the duty on paper. But the greatest evil of all is its influence in increasing the price, and hindering the publication of books. "This places a great obstacle in the way of the progress of knowledge, of useful and necessary arts, and of sober, industrious habits. Books carry the production of the human mind over the whole world, and may be truly called the raw materials of every kind of science and art, and of all social improvement."—(See the admirable work of *Sir H. Parnell*, on *Financial Reform*, 3d ed. p. 30.)

At all events, the existing duties, varying as they do from 30 to 200 per cent. *ad valorem*, are quite exorbitant; nor can there be a doubt that they would be more productive were they adequately reduced, and assessed on reasonable principles. But, as we have shown in the art. Books, it is not possible to lay a duty on the paper intended to be used in printing, without committing injustice. No one can foretell, with any thing approaching to certainty, whether a new book, or even a new edition of an old book, will sell; and the fact is, that *one third* of the books, and *nineteen twentieths* of the pam

phlets published, do not pay their expenses. Now, we ask whether, under such circumstances, any thing can be more obviously unjust, more utterly subversive of every fair principle, than the imposition of the same heavy taxes upon *all* publications,—upon those that do not sell, as well as upon those that do? Upon a successful work, the duty may only be a reasonable deduction from the profits of the author and publisher; but when (as is the case with 1 out of 3 books, and 19 out of 20 pamphlets) the work does not sell, there are no profits from which to defray the duty, which has, of course, to be paid entirely out of the capital of the author or publisher! Such is the encouragement given to literature, such the facilities afforded to the diffusion of useful information, by the popular government of England! All other businesses meet with very different treatment. Deniers in gin or brandy, for example, may lodge their goods in bonded warehouses, and are not obliged to pay any duty upon them until they are sold for home consumption; but such privilege is denied to the bookseller, though the article in which he deals be a thousand times more capricious. He must pay the duty on the whole impression of every book, before bringing a single copy of it to market; so that he not unfrequently pays duty upon 1,000 volumes, though unable to sell above 150 or 200, except as waste paper! Even this is not the whole injury done him: for upon an advertisement announcing the sale of a 6*d.* pamphlet, as heavy a duty is charged as if it announced the sale of an estate worth 100,000*l.*!

There are but two ways of putting an end to this scandalous injustice; viz. either by entirely repealing the paper duty, or by putting publishers under the *surveillance* of the excise, and assessing the duty on works according to the number sold at the publication price. The former would be the simple method; but if the state of the finances will not allow of the sacrifice of the paper duty, there are no insuperable difficulties in the way of the latter alternative. And were it adopted, and the duties reduced and simplified, *justice* would be done to authors and publishers, and a very great stimulus given to the paper manufacture, without any loss of revenue.

An Account of the Quantities of the different Sorts of Paper charged with Duties in each of the 3 Years ended the 5th of January, 1833; the Rates of Duty on such Paper; the Gross and Nett Produce of the Duties; the Drawbacks on Paper exported, and the Cost per Cent. at which the Nett Revenue is collected, separating the Accounts of England, Scotland, and Ireland.

	Quantities charged with Duty.								Gross Produce.	Nett Produce.	Drawbacks on Paper exported.	Allowances to the Universities, King's Printer, Hot Presses, &c.
	First Class Paper.	Rate per Lb.	Second Class Paper.	Rate per Lb.	Millbrd., Glazed Paper, &c.	Rate p. Cwt.	Pasteboard.	Rate p. Cwt.				
	Lbs.	*d.*	*Lbs.*	*d.*	*Cwt.*	*s.*	*Cwt.*	*s.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
England	38,520,561	3	12,908,470	1½	1,887 27,633	28 21	2,018 2,208 1,716 2,020 50 1	28 14 28 14 28 14	620,508 10 9	1539 4 8	21,832 0 9	14,127 5 4
Scotland	7,130,121		1,463,362		4,236	21			106,568 15 5	98,589 17 9	6,513 3 11	1,665 13 8
Ireland	1,287,344		566,972		314				20,037 8 3	19,720 17 2	1,193 5 0	183 6 1
Year ended 5th Jan. 1831.	47,938,026		14,913,804		34,070		15,008		747,114 14 5	701,849 19 7	29,468 9 1	15,796 5 2
England	38,629,254	3	13,288,757	1½	1,788 24,037	28 21	8,776 2,233	28 14	607,452 18 8	571,040 9 4	22,414 12 5	13,997 6 11
Scotland	6,775,032		1,579,476		3,876	21	1,418 1,835	28 14	101,903 12 3	92,853 5 9	7,031 10 3	2,018 16 3
Ireland	1,302,185		469,642		252		20	28	19,506 15 6	18,814 3 5	579 15 10	112 16 3
Year ended 5th Jan. 1832.	46,706,471		15,317,875		30,013		14,182		728,862 16 5	682,707 18 6	30,025 18 6	16,128 19 5
England	40,492,151	3	13,457,333	1½	1,377 22,247	28 21	8,887 2,383 1,913 1,939 25 1	28 14 28 14 28 14	629,938 6 0	591,569 10 11	25,290 3 5	13,078 11 8
Scotland	7,203,033		1,603,745		4,031	21			108,331 9 0	99,778 2 7	6,068 12 8	2,484 13 9
Ireland	1,709,222		470,081		470				24,834 8 11	24,395 11 10	383 1 4	55 15 9
Year ended 5th Jan. 1833.	49,404,406		15,531,069		28,325		15,148		763,104 3 11	715,743 5 4	31,741 17 5	15,619 1 2

Note.—The cost per cent. at which the duty on paper is collected, cannot be stated with any degree of accuracy, the officers being employed in charging excise duties generally; but the sum which would probably be saved to the revenue, under the head of "Salaries to Officers," if the duties on paper should be repealed, may be estimated at 5,500*l.*; and for stationery supplied by the revenue for purposes connected with the paper duties, a further saving of 750*l.*, making altogether 6,250*l.*, which is about ⅞ per cent. on the nett revenue of the last year.

(In the edition of this Supplement issued in October, 1835, we stated, "The Commissioners of Excise Inquiry have made a very important suggestion with respect to the duty on paper. They recommend that the existing distinction between first class and second class paper should be put an end to; and that a duty of 1½*d.* per lb. be charged indiscriminately on all descriptions of paper. Were this recommendation adopted, *a half* would be deducted from the duty now charged on all paper used for writing and printing; and the manufacturer of inferior or wrapping paper, would be allowed to make use of whatever materials he pleased. This judicious suggestion will, no doubt, be adopted. The stimulus to consumption that would be given by the fall in the price of paper consequent to a reduction of this sort, makes it abundantly certain that the revenue would lose little or nothing by the change; at the same time that the manufacturer would be relieved from several vexatious regulations, and that the gross injustice inflicted on authors and publishers by the paper duties (see vol. i. p. 197.) would be materially mitigated. To suppose that, under such circumstances, the duty should not be reduced, would be to suppose that government was not anxious to encourage, but to discourage, the manufacture; and that it preferred dealing unjustly by authors and publishers!"—(See 14*th Report of Commissioners of Excise Inquiry.*)

We are glad to be able to say, that we have not been disappointed in this anticipation. The duty on all writing and printing paper has been reduced a half or from 3*d.* to 1½*d.* per lb, which is now the rate charged on all paper, millboard, pasteboard, &c. The oppressive

duty of 1½*d.* the square yard, charged on paper, when printed or stained, over and above the ordinary duty on such paper, has been wholly repealed. The effect of this wise and judicious measure, in reducing the price of paper used in printing, has already been very sensibly felt. The abolition of the discriminating duty on stained or printed paper promises, also, to be of very material importance. The reduction of price it has occasioned, has enabled a much larger class of persons to get their apartments papered; and it will in this way be productive, not only of a great additional demand for paper, but of a great increase of comfort and cleanliness.—(*Sup.*)

PARCEL, a term indifferently applied to small packages of wares, and to large lots of goods. In this latter sense, 20 hogsheads of sugar or more, if bought at one price, or in a single lot, are denominated "a parcel of sugar."

PARCELS, BILL OF, an account of the items composing a parcel.

PARCHMENT (Ger. *Pergament*; Fr. *Parchemin*; It. *Cartapecora*; Sp. *Pergamino*), the skin of sheep or goats prepared in such a manner as to render it proper for writing upon, covering books, &c. It is an important article in French commerce: besides being largely exported, the home consumption is very considerable. The name is derived from Pergamus, the city where it is said to have been first manufactured.

PARTIAL LOSS. See INSURANCE (MARINE).

PARTNERSHIP, the association of two or more individuals for carrying on some business or undertaking in common; each deriving a certain share of the profits, and bearing a corresponding share of the loss arising therefrom.

The term partnership is usually applied to those smaller associations in which the partners personally conduct their joint affairs: the term company being applied to those great associations conducted by directors and servants appointed by the body of the partners to act for them; the latter having no direct concern in the management of the affairs of the company.—(See COMPANIES.)

The advantages of partnerships are obvious. Many businesses could not be successfully carried on without a larger command of capital than usually belongs to an individual; and most of them require the combination of various species of talent. An individual may have capital sufficient to undertake a particular business; but he may not be thoroughly versed in any of its details, or he may be familiar with certain parts of it and not with others; so that it might be for his advantage to assume one or more individuals as his partners, supposing them to be without capital, provided they possessed the skill and other qualifications required in prosecuting the business. Associations of this sort enable capital and talent to derive all the assistance that each is capable of lending to the other. And as the gains of each partner usually consist of a certain *proportion* of the total profits made by the company, each has the most powerful motive to exert himself for the benefit of the concern. It is not, indeed, to be denied, that associations of this sort are occasionally productive of mischievous consequences. The public interest requires that the whole partners in a firm should be bound by the acts of any one of their number; so that the folly or fraud of a single partner may detail very serious consequences upon those associated with him. Generally, however, this is not an evil of frequent occurrence; and there can be no question that, both in a private and public point of view, partnerships are highly beneficial.

To enter into any thing like a full discussion of the law of partnership would very far exceed our limits. We shall, therefore, merely state a few of those leading principles with respect to it, as to which it is of importance that mercantile men, and the public generally, should be well acquainted.

Formation of Partnerships.—The mere consent of the partners, fixed and certified by acts or contracts, is quite sufficient to constitute a private copartnership, so that if two or more merchants, or other persons, join together in trade, or in any sort of business, with a mutual, though it may be unequal, participation in the profit and loss of the concern, they are in every respect to be considered as partners. No particular form or words of proceeding is necessary to constitute a partnership. It may be entered into either by an express written agreement, or by a merely verbal one. The former ought in almost all cases to be preferred. The contract of copartnery should state the parties to it, the business to be carried on, the space of time the partnership is to continue, the capital each is to bring into the business, the proportion in which the profit and loss are to be divided, the manner in which the business is to be conducted, the mode agreed upon for settling accounts at the dissolution of the partnership, together with the special covenants adapted to the circumstances of each particular case.

To constitute a partnership, there must be a participation in uncertain profits and losses: and the true criterion to determine, when money is advanced to a trader, whether the individual making the advance is to be looked upon as a partner or not, is to ascertain whether the *premium or profit be certain and defined, or casual, indefinite, and depending upon the accidents of trade.* In the former case he is a lender merely; in the latter he is a partner. The mere participation in the profits of any business or adventure, without a participation in the losses, constitutes a partnership, so far as to render the individual so participating

liable to third parties for the engagements of the concern, though as between the parties themselves it may be no partnership. Thus, if a clerk or other servant stipulate for a share of the profits of any business as *a reward for his labour*, he becomes responsible to third parties as a partner, and no private arrangement can cancel his liability.

If an individual, by his own act or inadvertence, allow himself *to appear to the world as a partner*, he is precluded from disputing the fact, even though he have no interest in the profits. A partner who withdraws from a firm is liable on account of the remaining partners continuing his name in the firm, though without his consent, unless he take the necessary precautions—(see *post*)—to show that he has ceased to belong to it.

If there be no express stipulation as to the management of partnership property, the majority decide as to the disposition and management of the joint affairs of the firm; or, if there be but two parties in a firm, one may manage the concern as he thinks fit, provided it be within the rules of good faith, and warranted by the circumstances of the case. The general duty of a partner is to keep in view, at all times, and in all transactions, the interest and welfare of the partnership, by acting honestly and uprightly, and as a prudent man would conduct his own affairs.

Liability of Partners as to third parties.—It may be laid down as a general rule, that partners, whether actual, ostensible, or dormant, are bound by the act of their partner, made in the course of and with reference to the partnership business, and in the regular course of dealing by the firm; and though the general rule of law be, that no one is liable upon any contract, except such as are privy to it, yet this is not contravened by the liability of partners, as they are supposed virtually present at and sanctioning the proceedings they singly enter into in the course of trade, or as being each vested with a power enabling them to act at once as principals and as the authorised agent of their copartners. It is for the advantage of partners that they are thus held liable; for the credit of their firm is in consequence greatly enhanced, and facility is given to all their dealings, even when they reside in different parts of the country, or of the world. A due regard to the interest of strangers is at the same time observed; for where an individual deals with one of several partners, he relies upon the credit of the entire firm, and therefore, ought to have his remedy against all the individuals who compose it.

Unless, however, the act of one partner relate to and be connected with the partnership trade, and in the *course of dealing by the firm*, such acting partner only will be bound: for it is only by acting in the course of their particular trade or line of business that an implied authority is delegated by partners to each other; and it is only in such transactions that third parties have a right to rely upon the partnership funds. To bind a partnership, credit must be given to the firm itself, and not to one merely of its partners. One of them may even, in furtherance of the objects of the firm, enter into a contract with some third party; but if such contract be made *exclusively and solely upon the credit of the individual partner*, it will only bind him, and not the firm. The presumption of the law, however, always is, that a contract with one of the partners in reference to the business of the firm has been entered into upon the credit of the whole; and this presumption is not to be rebutted, except by very clear evidence. One partner cannot, as such, except in bankruptcy, bind another by *deed*.

The authority of a partner is revocable; and it is now fully established that a *disclaimer* of the authority of the partners in any particular transaction will preclude him from binding his copartners. Even during the subsistence of the partnership, one partner may to a certain degree limit his responsibility; and if there be any particular speculation or bargain proposed, which he disapproves of, he may, by giving distinct notice to those with whom his partners are about to contract that he will not be concerned in it, relieve himself from all consequences. Such notice would rebut his *prima facie* liability. The partnership would be suspended *quoad* this transaction. Thus, if a partner draw, accept, or indorse a bill or note, he will, in all ordinary cases, thereby render the firm liable. But, to use the words of Lord Ellenborough, "it is not essential to a partnership that every partner should have such power: they may stipulate among themselves that it shall not be done; and if a third party, *having notice of this*, will take such security from one of the partners, he shall not sue the others upon it in breach of such stipulation, nor in defiance of notice previously given to him by one of them, that he will not be liable for any bill or note signed by the others."—(*Galway* v. *Matthew*, 10 East, 264.); and so in other cases.

However small the share a partner may have in a concern, he is liable for the *whole* of the debts contracted by the firm; and must seek his remedy in a rateable contribution against his partners. Should one party enter into a smuggling or other illegal transaction on the partnership account, the other partners are liable to the duties and the penalty; and the Crown may proceed against the real delinquent alone, or against all the partners. A bookseller, or newspaper proprietor, is answerable for the acts of his agent or copartner, not only civilly, but also *criminally*.

Dissolution of Partnerships.—A partnership may be dissolved by the effluxion or expiration of the time during which it was originally agreed that it should continue. When a

copartnership is formed for a single dealing or transaction, the moment that is completed it is at an end. Partnerships may also be dissolved by death, agreement, bankruptcy, outlawry, &c. A court of equity will interfere to dissolve a partnership, in cases where a partner so misconducts himself as to be injurious to the firm, or to defeat the object for which the partnership was formed; or when a partner becomes insane, or is in such a state of mind as to render him permanently incapable of transacting the peculiar business of the firm; or where a partnership is formed for an impracticable purpose. Indeed, in all cases, where even a partnership may be dissolved without the interference of a court of equity, it may be most prudent, if the dissolution be opposed by one of the partners, to file a bill, praying a dissolution and account, and an injunction against using the partnership name.

When a partnership is dissolved by agreement, or one of the partners withdraws from it, public notice of the dissolution must be given in the *London Gazette*; and *a specific intimation of the circumstance must be sent to* ALL *individuals accustomed to deal with the firm.* Where such intimation has not been sent, the individual withdrawing from the firm may be made liable to third parties after he has ceased to have any thing to do with it. A dormant partner, whose name has never been announced, may withdraw from a firm without making the dissolution of partnership publicly known.

When the joint debts of the firm are paid, and the property duly distributed among the partners, the dissolution may be said, in a general sense, to be accomplished. If any one of the firm be guilty of a breach of duty, in misapplying the effects before the concern is finally wound up, the proper course is to apply to the Court of Chancery to appoint a manager.

Within a reasonable time after the death of one partner, the survivors must account to the representatives of the deceased; and if not willing to do so, a court of equity will compel them. In taking partnership accounts at the death of a partner, they must commence with the last stated account; or, if there be none such, with the commencement of the partnership; and they must end with the state of the stock at the time of the partner's death, and the proceeds thereof until it be got in.

No notice is necessary to third parties of the death of a partner; the partnership is dissolved, and all liabilities for subsequent acts cease. The surviving parties are to be sued alone for the partnership liabilities and obligations, for which they are liable to the full extent. But they are not liable for the separate debts of the deceased partner, unless, after payment of all the joint debts, they have a surplus of the partnership effects in their hands.

Upon a dissolution by death, if the joint effects be insufficient to pay the partnership debts, the separate estate of the deceased partner, if he have any, is liable for the deficiency.

The statements now made will, probably, be sufficient to give our readers a tolerably distinct notion of the formation of partnerships; and of the more important rights, duties, liabilities, &c. arising out of such institutions. Those who wish to go deeper into the subject, may consult the treatises of *Watson* and *Montague* on the *Law of Partnership*; *Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. iii. pp. 225—269.; *Woolrych on Commercial Law*, pp. 298—317., &c.

[See *Kent's Commentaries on American Law*, Lecture 43.—*Am. Ed.*]

PASSENGERS, in commercial navigation, are individuals conveyed for hire from one place to another on board ship. Passage ships are those peculiarly appropriated to the conveyance of passengers.

Regulations as to the Conveyance of Passengers.—The conveyance of passengers between Great Britain and Ireland is regulated by the act 4 Geo. 4. c. 88., which provides, that no vessel employed in the conveyance of passengers, of less than 200 tons burden, shall carry more than 20 persons as passengers, unless a license to that effect has been obtained from the Custom-house. A licensed vessel may not to take, exclusive of the crew, more than 5 adult persons, or 10 children under 14, or 15 children under 7 years of age, for every 4 tons burden; and if such vessel be partly laden with goods or wares, may not to take more than the above proportion of passengers for every 4 tons that remain unladen. The penalty for carrying more than *twenty* without licence, 50*l.*; and for a licensed vessel carrying more than the above proportion for each 4 tons burden, 5*l.* for each passenger. Merchant vessels of not more than 100 tons, not to carry more than 10 persons; or of not more than 200 tons, not more than 15 persons; under a penalty of 5*l.* each person.

The conveyance of passengers to North America is regulated by the 9 Geo. 4. c. 21. This act provides, that no ship shall sail from the United Kingdom for any port or place in his Majesty's possessions on the continent or islands of North America, with more than *three* persons on board for every 5 tons of the registered burden of such ship, the master and crew being included; and no ship to carry passengers, unless of the height of 5½ feet, at least, between decks: 2 children under 14, or 3 under 9, and 1 child under 12 months with its mother, to be reckoned as one person. Good and wholesome provisions to be provided, at the rate of 50 gallons of pure water for every person on board, and 50lbs. of bread, biscuit, oatmeal, or bread-stuffs for every passenger. Ships that have their full complement of passengers are prohibited from carrying any part of their cargo or stores between decks. Before clearing out, the master is to deliver to the collector a list of the passengers, specifying as accurately as may be their names, ages, professions or occupations, and the name of the port or place at which each is contracted to be landed. Masters of ships compelling passengers to land at any other place than that agreed upon, shall forfeit to every such passenger so landed a sum of 20*l.* Masters who take a greater number of passengers than allowed by law, or do not provide the requisite quantity of water and provisions, or stow them or any part of the cargo between decks, or furnish false lists to the collector, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor. A bond for 1,000*l.* with one good and sufficient surety, shall be given by the master of every ship clearing out for British North America with passengers on board, that such ship is seaworthy, and that all and every the rules and regulations of this act will be well and truly performed. Such bond may be without a stamp. This act does not extend to Post-office ships, nor to the Bahama Islands, nor to the West Indies.

It is enacted by the 9 Geo. 4. c. 47., that the master of any packet or vessel employed in carrying passengers from one part of the United Kingdom to another is to be licensed by the commissioners of excise to retail foreign wine, strong beer, cider, perry, spirituous liquors, and tobacco. Such licence to be annually renewed, and to be transferable by endorsement. Duty to be paid by the owners on obtaining such a licence, 1*l*. Penalty for selling wines, &c. without a licence, for every offence, 10*l*.

It is enacted by 9 Geo. 4. c. 76., that every *steam vessel* which is of the registered tonnage of 140 tons, shall be deemed to be a vessel of 200 tons at least.

The act 6 Geo. 4. c. 116., which regulated the conveyance of passengers to foreign parts, was repealed by 7 & 8 Geo. 4. c. 19.

In some respects, passengers may be considered as a portion of the crew. They may be called on by the master or commander of the ship, in case of imminent danger either from tempest or enemies, to lend their assistance for the general safety; and in the event of their declining, may be punished for disobedience. This principle has been recognised in several cases; but, as the authority arises out of the necessity of the case, it must be exercised strictly within the limits of that necessity.—(*Boyce* v. *Bacliffe*, 1 Campbell, 58.) A passenger is not, however, bound to remain on board the ship in the hour of danger, but may quit it if he have an opportunity; and he is not required to take upon himself any responsibility as to the *conduct* of the ship. If he incur any responsibility, and perform extraordinary services in relieving a vessel in distress, he is entitled to a corresponding reward. The goods of passengers contribute to a general average.—(*Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 10.)

Return of the Number of Persons who have emigrated from the United Kingdom to any of the Colonies of Great Britain in each Year since 1820, and to the United States of America since 1825; distinguishing the Colonies to which they have emigrated.—(*Part. Paper*, No. 650. Sess. 1830, and No. 696. Sess. 1833.)

Years.	British North American Colonies.	British West Indies.	Cape of Good Hope.	New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River.	United States.
	No. of Persons.	*No. of Persons.*	*No. of Persons.*	*No. of Persons.*	*No. of Persons.*
1821	12,470	1,772	404	320	
1822	11,282	1,423	102	875	
1823	8,133	1,911	184	543	
1824	7,311	1,353	119	780	
1825	8,741	1,082	114	485	5,551
1826	12,818	1,913	116	903	7,003
1827	12,648	1,156	114	715	14,526
1828	12,084	1,311	135	1,056	12,817
1829	13,307	1,251	197	2,016	15,678
1830	30,574	- -	204	1,342	24,887
1831	58,067	- -	114	1,561	23,418
1832	66 339	- -	196	3,733	32,872

The foregoing statement, founded upon special returns transmitted from the various ports of the United Kingdom by the local officers of customs, exhibits the number of persons of both sexes, and of all ages, who have emigrated to the colonies in each of the last 10 years, so far as the same can be ascertained. The officers report that they have not the means of distinguishing males from females, or adults from children, in these returns; and in some cases they state that the distinction cannot be drawn with accuracy between emigrants and passengers of other descriptions.

For the regulations as to the landing of passengers in New York, see NEW YORK.

PATENT, a privilege from the Crown granted by letters patent (whence the name), conveying to the individual or individuals specified therein, the sole right to make, use, or dispose of some new invention or discovery, for a certain specified period.

The power to grant patents seems to exist at common law; but it is limited and defined by the famous statute 21 Jac. 1. c. 3., which enacts, "That any declaration before-mentioned shall not extend to any letters patent and grants of privilege for the term of 14 years or under, thereafter to be made, of the sole working or making of any manner of new manufactures within this realm, to the *true and first* inventor and inventors of such manufactures, which others at the time of making such letters patent and grants shall not use, so as also they be not contrary to the law, nor mischievous to the state, by raising prices of commodities at home, or hurt of trade, or generally inconvenient. The said 14 years to be accounted from the date of the first letters patent, or grant of such privilege thereafter to be made; but that the same shall be of such force as they should be if that act had never been made, and none other."

Policy of Patents.—The law with respect to patents is unavoidably encumbered with several difficulties. The expediency of granting patents has been disputed; though, as it would seem, without any sufficient reason. Were they refused, the inducement to make discoveries would, in many cases, be very much weakened; at the same time that it would plainly be for the interest of every one who made a discovery, to endeavour, if possible, to conceal it. And notwithstanding the difficulties in the way of concealment, they are not insuperable; and it is believed that several important inventions have been lost, from the secret dying with their authors. On the other hand, it is not easy to decide as to the term for which the patent, or exclusive privilege, should be granted. Some have proposed that it should be made perpetual; but this would be a very great obstacle to the progress of improvement, and would lead to the most pernicious results. Perhaps the term of 14 years, to which the duration of a patent is limited in England, is as proper a one as could be suggested. It may be too short for some inventions, and too long for others; but, on the whole, it seems a pretty fair average.

Specification.—Previously to the reign of Queen Anne, it was customary to grant patents

without any condition, except that they should be for really new inventions. But a condition was then introduced into all patents, and is still retained, declaring that if the inventor do not, by an instrument under his hand and seal, denominated a specification, *particularly describe* and ascertain the nature of his invention, and in what manner the same is to be performed, and also cause the same to be enrolled in Chancery within a certain time (generally a month), the letters patent, and all liberties and advantages whatever thereby granted, shall utterly cease and become void. This was a very judicious regulation. It secures the invention from being lost; and the moment the patent expires, every one is in a situation to profit by it.

Mode of Granting a Patent.—Letters patent are obtained upon petition and affidavit to the Crown, setting forth, that the petitioner has, after great labour and expense, made a certain discovery, which he describes, and which he believes will be of great public utility, and that he is the first inventor. The petition is referred to the attorney or solicitor general, who is separately attended by the applicant and all competitors, if there be any. They explain their projects to him, and he decides on granting or withholding the patent. When the inventions of two or more conflicting applicants coincide, he rejects all the applications. It would seem, that to decide upon such difficult questions in mechanics as are often agitated in applications for patents, a familiar knowledge of the principles and practical application of mechanical science would be indispensable. But by the law, as it now stands, such knowledge is not deemed necessary. The legal officers of the Crown are the sole judges as to what patents should or should not be granted; their award is *final*; and they are subject to no responsibility, other than the common remedies against public officers by impeachment, indictment, &c.—none of which would be entertained, unless a corrupt motive were established. After approval by the law officers, the grant is made out, sealed, and enrolled.

Considering the authority under which patents are granted, can any one wonder at the number that have been overturned in the courts of justice? or at the litigation to which they have given rise?

Expense of Patents.—Separate patents have to be taken out for England, Scotland, and Ireland, if it be intended to secure the privilege in the three kingdoms. The expense of stamps, fees, &c. is in all cases very heavy. It varies according to the intricacy of the invention, the opposition (if any) to the patent being granted, &c. According to Mr. Farey, it may be estimated at 120*l.* for England, 100*l.* for Scotland, and 125*l.* for Ireland.—(See his valuable evidence in the *Commons' Report on Patents*, p. 17.)

Conditions as to Patents.—The *novelty* and *utility* of the invention are essential to the validity of a patent; if it can be shown to have been in use previously to the grant of the patent, or to be of no utility, it will be void. It must also be for something vendible—something "material and useful made by the hands of man."—(*Lord Kenyon*, 8 T. R. 99.) A philosophical principle only, neither organised, nor capable of being so, is no ground for a patent; because it is an element and rudiment of science, and which, till applied to some new production from these elements, cannot, with justice to other inventors, be applied to the exclusive use of any one of them. In all patents there is required, in the words of Lord Tenterden, "something of a *corporeal or substantial nature*, something that *can be made* by man from the matters subjected to his art and skill, or at the least some *new mode of employing practically his art and skill.*"—(*Godson on the Law of Patents*, p. 81.) Previously to Lord Tenterden, it had been ruled that a new process or method was not the subject of a patent. But his Lordship having suggested that "the word manufacture (in the statute) may, perhaps, extend to a *new process* to be carried on by known implements, or elements acting upon known substances, and ultimately producing some other known substance, &c."—(*Godson*, p. 83)—this principle of interpretation has now been adopted.

A patent for a machine, each part of which was in use before, but in which the *combination* of the different parts is *new*, and a *new result* is obtained, is valid. But, in order to its being valid, the specification must clearly express that it is in respect of such new combination or application, and of that only; and not lay claim to original invention in the use of the materials.

A patent may be granted for an addition to an old invention. But the patent must be *confined to the addition* or improvement, that the public may purchase it without being encumbered with other things. If the patent include the whole, it will be void; for the property in the addition or improvement can give no right to the thing that has been improved.—(*Godson*, p. 71.)

A valid patent may be obtained for an invention, "*new in this realm*," though it may have been previously practised in a foreign country.

A patent is void, if it be for several distinct inventions, and *any one of them* fail of originality.

The specification must be prepared with *great care*. It should set forth the invention fully and correctly. The terms used must be clear and unambiguous; no necessary description must be omitted, nor what is unnecessary be introduced; and the invention must be described in the *best and most improved state* known to the inventor. If any one of these conditions be not complied with, the patent will be void. Any inaccurate or defective statement, *even if it were inserted through inadvertency*, will vitiate the whole.

Caveat.—It is not unusual for inventors who have not brought their inventions to perfection, and who are afraid lest they be anticipated by others, to lodge a caveat at the offices of the attorney and solicitor general; that is, an instrument by which notice is requested to be given to the person who enters it, whenever any application is made for a patent for a certain invention therein described in general terms. The entry of a caveat is, therefore, nothing more than giving information that an invention is nearly completed; so that, if any other person should apply for a patent for the same thing, the preference may be given to him who entered it.

An injunction may be obtained for the infringement of a patent, in the same way as for a violation of the copyright acts.

Patents have been sometimes extended by act of parliament beyond the term of 14 years, on the ground that that term was too short properly to reward the inventor.

Account of the Number of Patents granted in the Eight Years ending with 1828.

1821	.	.	108	1824	.	.	181	1827	.	.	118
1822	.	.	113	1825	.	.	249	1828	.	.	136
1823	.	.	130	1826	.	.	131				

Total number of patents in force in May, 1829, 1,855.

The reader will find a great deal of curious and instructive information with respect to patents, in the *Report of the Committee of the House of Commons* on that subject (No. 332. Sess. 1829), particularly in the evidence and papers laid before the Committee by Mr. Farey. The treatise on the *Law of Patents and Copyrights*, by Mr. Godson, is clear and able.

(The reader will find in the article PATENTS, in the *Dictionary*, some remarks on the grounds on which they are granted, and on the difficulty of legislating on the subject. The object in giving a patent is twofold. In the first place, it is intended to stimulate and reward invention; and, in the second place, it is intended to prevent an invention from being lost, by obliging the inventor, when he takes out a patent, to describe it accurately. The difficulty in legislating on the subject is to hinder real *bonâ fide* inventors from being harassed by unfounded actions, and at the same time to prevent quacks and pretenders from appropriating discoveries already made, to the injury of the public. To be useful, any law on such a subject must be drawn up with great care and circumspection. But such certainly has not been the case with the act as to patents (5 & 6 *Will.* 4. c. 77), passed in 1835, of which a copious abstract is subjoined. It is altogether one of the crudest and most bungling attempts at legislation that has ever come under our notice. It gives to the patentee a right to make constant alterations in his specification; so that it will be next to impossible to learn from it what the invention really is for which the patent is granted. Under the old law, a patentee, who made any material improvements on his invention, was entitled to get a new patent for the improvements, so that no injury was done him by obliging him to make his specification quite accurate, at the same time that the public interests were secured. But every one naturally wishes to conceal his inventions; and, instead of counteracting this principle, the new law really offers a bonus on inaccurate specifications, by enabling the patentee to disclaim some parts and to amend others; and he may do this over and over again, provided he obtain leave from the attorney or solicitor general, to whose "good pleasure" the most important interests would thus seem to be left! It is not easy to imagine any thing more absurd. But we have little doubt, that the inconveniences that will result from it will lead to its speedy repeal or amendment. Some of the other clauses seem also to be highly questionable.

Any person having obtained Letters Patent for any Invention may enter a Disclaimer.—Any person who hath obtained or shall hereafter obtain letters patent, for the sole making, exercising, &c. of any invention, may, if he think fit, enter with the clerk of the patents of England, Scotland, or Ireland, respectively, as the case may be, having first obtained the leave of the attorney-general, or solicitor-general in case of an English patent, of the lord advocate or solicitor-general of Scotland in the case of a Scotch patent, or of the attorney-general or solicitor-general for Ireland in the case of an Irish patent, a disclaimer of any part of either the title of the invention or of the specification, stating the reason for such disclaimer, or may, with such leave as aforesaid, enter a memorandum of any alteration in the said title or specification, not being such disclaimer or such alteration as shall extend the exclusive right granted by the said letters patent; and such disclaimer or memorandum of alteration, being filed by the said clerk of the patents, and enrolled with the specification, shall be taken to be part of such letters patent or such specification in all courts whatever: provided that any person may enter a caveat, as caveats are now entered, against such disclaimer or alteration; which caveat shall give the party entering a right to have notice of the application being heard by the attorney-general or solicitor-general or lord advocate respectively; provided also, that no such disclaimer or alteration shall be receivable in evidence in any action or suit (except in any proceeding by scire facias) pending at the time when it was enrolled, but in every such action or suit the original title and specification alone shall be given in evidence, and taken to be the title and specification of the invention for which the letters patent have been granted; provided also, that it shall be lawful for the attorney-general or solicitor-general or lord advocate, before granting such fiat, to require the party applying for the same to advertise his disclaimer or alteration, as to the said attorney-general, &c. shall seem right, and shall, if he require such advertisement, certify in his fiat that the same has been duly made.—(§ 1.)

Mode of Proceeding where Patentee is proved not to be the real Inventor.—If in any suit or action it shall be proved or found by the verdict of a jury that a person who has obtained letters patent for any invention, or supposed invention, was not the first inventor thereof, or of some part thereof, by reason of some other person or persons having invented or used the same, or some part thereof, before the date of such letters patent, or if such patentee or his assigns shall discover that some other person had, unknown to such patentee, invented or used the same, or some part thereof, before the date of such letters patent, it shall be lawful for such patentee or his assigns to petition H. M. in council to confirm the said letters patent or to grant new letters patent, the matter of which petition shall be heard before the judicial committee of the privy council; and such committee, upon examining the said matter, and being satisfied that such patentee believed himself to be the first and original inventor, and being satisfied that such invention or part thereof had not been publicly and generally used before the date of such first letters patent, may report to H. M. their opinion that the prayer of such petition ought to be complied with, whereupon H. M. may, if he thinks fit, grant such prayer; and the said letters patent shall be available to give to such petitioner the sole right of using, making, and vending such invention: provided that any person opposing such petition shall be entitled to be heard before the said judicial committee; provided also, that any person party to any former suit or action touching such first letters patent, shall be entitled to have notice of such petition before presenting the same.—(§ 2.)

If in any Action or Suit a Verdict pass for the Patentee, the Judge may certify, &c.—If any action at law or suit in equity shall be brought in respect of any alleged infringement of such letters patent heretofore or hereafter granted, or any scire facias to repeal such letters patent, and if a verdict pass for the patentee, or if a final decree or order be made for him, upon the merits of the suit, it shall be lawful for the judge who tried such action to certify on the record, or the judge who shall make such order to give a certificate under his hand, that the validity of the patent came in question before him, which record or certificate being given in evidence in any other suit or action touching such patent, if a verdict pass, or order be made, in favour of such patentee, he shall receive treble costs in such cas

or action, to be taxed at three times the taxed costs, unless the judge making such second or other order, or trying such second or other action, certify that he ought not to have treble costs.—(§ 3.)

Mode of Proceeding in case of Application for the Prolongation of the Term.—If any person who hath or shall hereafter obtain letters patent shall advertise in the London Gazette 3 times, and in 3 London papers, and 3 times in some country paper published in the town where or near to which he carried on any manufacture of any thing made according to his specification, or near to or in which he resides in case he carried on no such manufacture, or published in the county where he carries on such manufacture, or where he lives in case there shall not be any paper published in such town, that he intends to apply to H. M. in council for a prolongation of his term of sole using and vending his invention, and shall petition H. M. in council to that effect, it shall be lawful for any person to enter a caveat at the council office; and if H. M. refer such petition to the judicial committee of the privy council, and notice shall first be by him given to any person who has entered such caveats, the petitioner shall be heard by his counsel and witnesses to prove his case, and the persons entering caveats shall likewise be heard by their counsel and witnesses; whereupon the judicial committee may report to H. M. that a further extension of the term in the said letters patent shall be granted, not exceeding 7 years; and H. M. is hereby authorised and empowered, if he think fit, to grant new letters patent for the said invention for a term not exceeding 7 years after the expiration of the first term: provided that no such extension shall be granted if the application by petition be not made and prosecuted with effect before the expiration of the original term in such letters patent.—(§ 4.)

In case of Action, &c., Notice to be given.—In any action brought for infringing any letters patent, the defendant on pleading thereto shall give to the plaintiff, and in any scire facias to repeal such letters patent the plaintiff shall file with his declaration a notice of any objections on which he means to rely at the trial of such action, and no objection shall be allowed to be made in behalf of such defendant or plaintiff at such trial, unless he prove the objections stated in such notice: provided always, that it shall be lawful for any judge at chambers, on summons served by such defendant or plaintiff on such plaintiff or defendant respectively to show cause why he should not be allowed to offer other objections whereof notice shall not have been given, to give leave to offer such objections, on such terms as to him shall seem fit.—(§ 5.)

Costs in Actions for infringing Letters Patent.—In any action brought for infringing any letters patent, in taxing the costs thereof regard shall be had to the part of such case proved at the trial, which shall be certified by the judge, and the costs of each part of the case shall be given according as either party has succeeded or failed therein, regard being had to the notice of objections, as well as the counts in the declaration, and without regard to the general result of the trial.—(§ 6.)

Penalty for using, unauthorised, the Name of a Patentee, &c.—If any person shall write, paint, or print, or mould, cast, or carve, or engrave or stamp upon, any thing made, used, or sold by him, for the sole making or selling of which he hath not obtained letters patent, the name or any imitation of the name of any other person who hath obtained letters patent, for the sole making and vending of such thing, without leave in writing of such patentee or his assigns, or if any person shall upon such thing, not having been purchased from the patentee or some person who purchased it from him, or not having the license in writing of such patentee or his assigns, write, paint, or otherwise mark the word "patent," the words "letters patent," or the words "by the king's patent," or any words of the like kind, meaning, or import, with a view of imitating or counterfeiting the stamp, mark, or other device of the patentee, he shall for every such offence be liable to a penalty of 50*l.*, to be recovered by action of debt, bill, &c. in any court of record at Westminster or in Ireland, or in the court of session in Scotland, one half to H. M. and the other to any person who shall sue for the same: provided, that nothing herein contained shall be construed to extend to subject any person to any penalty in respect of stamping or in any way marking the word "patent" upon any thing made, for the sole making or vending of which a patent before obtained has expired.—(§ 7.)—*Sup.*)

[See *Kent's Commentaries on American Law*, Lecture 34.—*Am. Ed.*]

PATRAS, or PETRASSO, a sea-port in the N. W. corner of the Morea, near the entrance of the Gulf of Lepanto, in lat. 38° 14′ 25″ N., lon. 21° 46′ 20″ E. Population variously estimated, from 5,000 to 10,000.

The port lies a little to the northward of the town; but the part fronting it is unsafe, and exposed to heavy seas, particularly in winter. Vessels, therefore, go a little further up the gulf, where there is a mole or quay, and where they can lie close to the wharf. Patras has a more extensive trade than any other port of Greece. The principal exports are currants, oil, valonia, wine, raw silk, raw cotton, wool, skins, wax, &c. Of these, currants are by far the most important. The fruit is larger, and freer from sand and gravel, than that of the Ionian Islands. They are shipped in casks of various sizes; but, as the weight of the cask is included in that of the fruit, it is said to be, for the most part, made heavier and stronger than necessary. Morea currants are preferred in most countries, except England; but here the currants of Zante are held in equal, or perhaps greater, estimation. The exports of currants from Patras, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1831, amounted to about 50,000 cwt. a year, worth about 33,000*l.* More than half the quantity shipped in 1830 and 1831 was for England. The value of the exports of valonia and oil may, together, amount to from 7,000*l.* to 10,000*l.* a year. The imports at Patras, as at the other Greek ports, consist principally of sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; plain and printed cotton stuffs, woollen goods, salted fish, iron, tin plates, hardware, cordage, hemp, deals, &c. Imported articles are brought principally from the Ionian Islands, Malta, Venice, Leghorn, Marseilles, and Trieste; but, from the unsettled state of the country, it is quite impossible to form any accurate estimate of their amount, either as respects Patras, or any other Greek port:—

Shipping.—The arrivals at Patras in 1830 and 1831 have been

Flags.	1830.		1831.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
British	10	1,417	8	1,105
Greek	254	9,017	301	10,623
Ionian	146	5,291	79	3,148
Austrian	66	3,757	46	2,541
Sardinian	10	469	4	330
Tuscan	2	168	1	97
Neapolitan	6	164	5	164
Papal	3	181	2	177
French	5	499	3	316
Dutch	1	180	1	170
Russian	9	868	11	1,849
Ottoman	4	491	3	355

Port Charges.—Foreign and Greek vessels pay as follows:—

	Greek.		Foreign.	
	Ph. l.	*L. s. d.*	*Ph. l.*	*L. s. d.*
Anchorage, Port dues, Health office	8 29	or 0 5 10	42 74	or 0 9 0
Additional when cargo or ballast is landed or loaded	18 0	— 0 12 9	25 0	— 0 17 8
Total Greek		*L.* 0 18 6	Foreign	*L.* 1 6 8

The Tariff established by the government, in March, 1830, is in force, according to which all articles may be imported and exported on payment of the duties therein fixed, without distinction of foreign or native flag. The rate of duty is 10 per cent. *ad valorem* for imports, and 6 per cent. *ad valorem* for exports.

Money.—Since the revolution, the Greeks have established a system of coinage in imitation of that of France. The phœnix is a silver coin, that should contain 9-10ths of pure metal, and 1-10th of alloy, or 4·029 grammes of the former, and ·448 do. of the latter, being worth about 8½d. sterling. The lepta is a copper coin, being 1-100th part of the phœnix. But the silver coins are already so much debased, that they have been refused even by the officers of government.

Weights and Measures.—The quintal is divided into 44 okes, or 123 lbs. Hence, 100 lbs. of Patras = 88 lbs. avoirdupois. Silk weight is 1-5th heavier.

A sack of currants weighs 240 lbs. of the common weight, or about 123 lbs. avoirdupois.

The staro, corn measure, = 2¾ Winch. bushels.

The long pic, or pik, used in measuring linens and woollens, = 27 English inches. The short pic, used in measuring silks, = 25 ditto.

We have derived these details, partly from the *Answers* made by the Consul at Patras to the *Circular Queries*; partly from the *Archives du Commerce*, tome ii. pp. 236—249.; and partly from other sources.

Commerce of Greece.—Considering the favourable situation of Greece, the number and excellence of her ports, the hardy enterprising character of the people, and the progress they have already made in navigation, nothing seems to be required to insure her rapid advancement in commercial industry, but the establishment of good order and internal tranquillity. We trust that this *sine qua non* of prosperity will now be realised; and that the newly constituted government will be strong enough to curb the factions into which the population has been split, and to put down and punish every species of outrage. If they succeed in this, and abstain from all attempts, by prohibition or otherwise, to force manufactures and commerce, we have no doubt that the progress of Greece will be all that her most sanguine friends could wish. It appears from a report presented to the congress at Napoli, in January, 1832, that Greece was at that time possessed of 2,941 vessels of all sorts, of which 614 were of the 1st class, that is, of more than 150 tons burden. The value of the imports into Greece, in 1831, are estimated in the same document at about 1,100,000*l.* sterling. It must, however, be observed, that a large proportion of these imports is carried to Syra, which has now become an important *entrepôt*, merely that they may be sent at convenient opportunities to the Turkish provinces in Europe, Asia Minor, &c.—(See *Archives du Commerce*, tome ii. p. 239.)

It is deeply to be regretted, that Candia, or Crete, was not either added to the new kingdom of Greece, or made independent. We cannot help considering it as disgraceful to the Christian nations of Europe, that this famous island, where European civilisation first struck its roots, should be consigned to the barbarians by whom it is now laid waste. It is as well entitled to the favourable consideration of England, France, and Russia, as any part of Continental Greece; and we do hope that measures may yet be devised for rescuing it from the atrocious despotism by which it has been so long weighed down.—(See GREECE.)

PATTERNS, are specimens or samples of commodities, transmitted by manufacturers to their correspondents, or carried from town to town by travellers, in search of orders. Patterns, if not exceeding 1 ounce weight, shall be charged with only an additional penny of postage, provided they be sent under cover, open at the sides, and without any letter or writing, except the name of the person sending the same, the place of his abode, and the price of the article or articles.—(52 *Geo.* 3. c. 88.)

PAWNBROKERS AND PAWNBROKING. A pawnbroker is a species of banker, who advances money, at a certain rate of interest, upon security of goods deposited in his hands; having power to sell the goods, if the principal sum, and the interest thereon, be not paid within a specified time.

1. *Advantages and Disadvantages of Pawnbroking.*—The practice of impledging or pawning goods, in order to raise loans, is one that must necessarily always exist in civilised societies, and is, in many cases, productive of advantage to the parties. But it is a practice that is extremely liable to abuse. By far the largest proportion of the *bona fide* borrowers of money on pawn consist of the lowest and most indigent classes; and were the lenders not subjected to any species of regulation, advantage might be taken (as, indeed, it is frequently taken, in spite of every precaution) of their necessities, to subject them to the most grievous extortion. But, besides those whose wants compel them to resort to pawnbrokers, there is another class, who have recourse to them in order to get rid of the property they have unlawfully acquired. Not only, therefore, are pawnbrokers instrumental in relieving the pressing and urgent necessities of the poor, but they may also, even without intending it, become the most efficient allies of thieves and swindlers, by affording them ready and convenient outlets for the disposal of their ill-gotten gains. The policy of giving legislative protection to a business so liable to abuse, has been doubted by many. But though it were suppressed by law, it would always really exist. An individual possessed of property which he may neither be able nor willing to dispose of, may be reduced to a state of extreme difficulty; and in such case, what can be more convenient or advantageous for him than to get a loan upon a deposit of such property, under condition that if he repay the loan, and the interest upon it, within a certain period, the property will be returned? It is said, indeed, that the facilities of raising money in this way foster habits of imprudence; that the first resort for aid to a pawnbroker almost always leads to a second; and that it is impossible so to regulate the business, as to prevent the ignorant and the necessitous from being plundered. That this statement, though exaggerated, is to a certain extent true, no one can deny. On the other

hand, however, the capacity of obtaining supplies on deposits of goods, by affording the means of meeting pressing exigencies, in so far tends to prevent crime, and to promote the security of property; and it would seem as if the desire to redeem property in pawn would be one of the most powerful motives to industry and economy. At the same time, too, it must be borne in mind, that it is not possible, do what you will, to prevent those who are poor and uninstructed from borrowing; and that they must, in all cases, obtain loans at a great sacrifice, and be liable to be imposed upon. But the fair presumption is, that there is less chance of any improper advantage being taken of them by a licensed pawnbroker, than by a private and irresponsible individual. Although, however, the business had all the inconveniences, without any portion whatever of the good which really belongs to it, it would be to no purpose to attempt its suppression. It is visionary to imagine that those who have property will submit to be reduced to the extremity of want, without endeavouring to raise money upon it. Any attempt to put down pawnbroking would merely drive respectable persons from the trade, and throw it entirely into the hands of those who have neither property nor character to lose. And hence the object of a wise legislature ought not to be to abolish what must always exist, but to endeavour, so far at least as is possible, to free it from abuse, by enacting such regulations as may appear to be best calculated to protect the ignorant and the unwary from becoming the prey of swindlers, and to facilitate the discovery of stolen property.

2. *Obligations under which Pawnbrokers should be placed.*—For this purpose it seems indispensable that the interest charged by pawnbrokers should be fixed, that they should be obliged to give a receipt for the articles pledged, and to retain them for a reasonable time before selling them; that the sale, when it does take place, should be by public auction, or in such a way as may give the articles the best chance for being sold at a fair price; and that the excess of price, if there be any, after deducting the amount advanced, and the interest and expenses of sale, should be paid over to the original owner of the goods. To prevent pawnbrokers from becoming the receivers of stolen goods, they should be liable to penalties for making advances to any individual unable to give a satisfactory account of the mode in which he became possessed of the property he is desirous to pawn; the officers of police should at all times have free access to their premises; and they should be obliged carefully to describe and advertise the property they offer for sale.

3. *Law as to Pawnbrokers.*—It may appear singular that pawnbrokers should hardly have been named in any legislative enactment till after the middle of last century. It was enacted by the 30 Geo. 2. c. 24., that a *duplicate* or receipt should be given for goods pawned; and that such as were pawned for any sum less than 10*l.* might be recovered any time within *two* years, on payment of the principal and interest; but the rate of interest was not fixed. This defect was supplied by the 25 Geo. 3. c. 48.; but the act 39 & 40 Geo. 3. c. 99. contains the latest and most complete regulations on the subject.

Every person exercising the trade of a pawnbroker must take out a license, renewable annually, 10 days at least before the end of the year, for which he shall pay, within the cities of London and Westminster, and the limits of the twopenny post, 15*l.*, and everywhere else, 7*l.* 10*s.* No person shall keep more than 1 house by virtue of 1 license; but persons in partnership need only take out 1 licence for 1 house. All persons receiving goods by way of pawn or pledge for the repayment of money lent thereon, at a higher rate of interest than 5 per cent., to be deemed pawnbrokers.

Upon every pledge on which there shall have been lent not exceeding 1*l.* 5*s.*, interest may be charged at the rate of 1-2*d.* per month.

L.	*s.*	*d.*		*L.*	*s.*	*d.*	
If 0	5	0	"	0	0	1	per month.
0	7	6	"	0	0	1 1-2	—
0	10	0	"	0	0	2	—
0	12	6	"	0	0	2 1-2	—
0	15	0	"	0	0	3	—
0	17	6	"	0	0	3 1-2	—
1	0	0	"	0	0	4	—
2	0	0	and not exceeding				
2	2	0	"	0	0	8	—

And for every sum exceeding 40*s.*, and not exceeding 10*l.*, at the rate of 3*d.* in the pound, for the calendar month, including the current month; and so in proportion for any fractional sum.

Pawnbrokers are to give farthings in exchange.

Persons applying to redeem goods pawned within 7 days after the first calendar month after the same shall have been pledged, may redeem the same without paying any thing for the first 7 days; and, upon applying before the expiration of 14 days of the second calendar month, shall be at liberty to redeem such goods, upon paying the profit payable for 1 calendar month and the half of another; and in all cases where the parties so entitled, and applying as aforesaid, after the expiration of the first fourteen days, and before the expiration of the second month, the pawnbroker is allowed to take the interest of the whole second month; and the same regulations and restrictions shall take place in every subsequent month.

When goods are pawned for more than 5*s.*, the pawnbroker, before advancing the money, shall immediately enter in his books a description of the pawn, the money lent thereon, the day of the month and year, the name of the person pawning, and the name of the street, and number of the house, if numbered, where such person resides, and use the letter L, if the person be a lodger, and the letters H K, if a housekeeper; and also the name and abode of the owner of the party offering such pledge; and if the money lent shall not exceed 5*s.*, such entry shall be made within 4 hours after the goods shall have been pawned; and the pawnbroker shall, at the time of making the pawn, give to the person so pawning a duplicate, corresponding with the entry in the book, which the party pawning, shall take in all cases; and the pawnbroker shall not receive any pledge, unless the party so pawning shall receive such duplicate.

Rates payable for Duplicates.

	L.	*s.*	*d.*
If under 5*s.*			gratis.
5*s.* and under 10*s.*	0	0	1-2
10*s.* and under 20*s.*	0	0	1
20*s.* and under 5*l.*	0	0	2
5*l.* and upwards	0	0	4

The duplicate to be produced to the pawnbroker before he shall be compelled to redeliver the respective goods and chattels, except as herein-after excepted.

The amount of profits on duplicates shall be added on pledges redeemed, and such duplicate shall be kept by the pawnbroker for 1 year.

Persons pawning other people's goods without their consent, may be apprehended by the warrant of 1 justice, and convicted in a penalty not exceeding 5*l.* nor less than 20*s.*, and the full value of the goods pawned; and if the forfeiture be not immediately paid, the justice shall commit the party to the house of correction, to be kept to hard labour for 3 calendar months; and if within 3 days before the expiration of the commitment the forfeiture shall not be paid, the justice may order the person to be publicly whipped, and the forfeitures shall be applied towards making satisfaction to the party injured, and defraying the costs; but if the party injured shall decline to accept such satisfaction and costs, or if there be any overplus, such forfeitures or overplus shall be paid to the poor of the parish.

Persons forging or counterfeiting duplicates may be seized and delivered to a constable, who shall convey them before a justice; and, upon conviction, such person shall be committed to the house of correction for any time not exceeding 3 calendar months.

Persons offering pledges, not giving a satisfactory account of themselves, or the means by which they became possessed of such goods, or wilfully giving any false information, or if there shall be reason to suspect that such goods are stolen, or illegally obtained, or if any person not entitled to redeem goods in pawn shall endeavour to redeem the same, they may be seized and delivered to a constable, to be carried before a justice; and if there should appear ground for a second examination, they shall be committed to the common gaol or house of correction, to be dealt with according to law; or where such proceedings are not authorised by the nature of the offence, the party shall be committed for any time not exceeding 3 calendar months.

Persons buying or taking in pledge unfinished goods, linen, or apparel, intrusted to others to wash or mend, shall forfeit double the sum lent, and restore the goods

Peace officers are empowered to search for unfinished goods which shall be come by unlawfully.



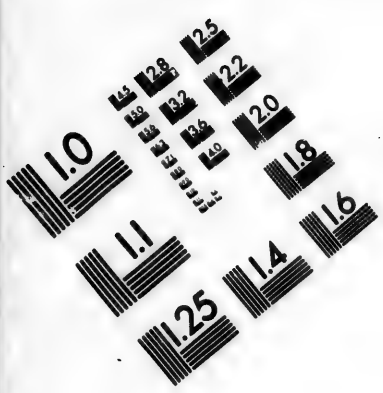
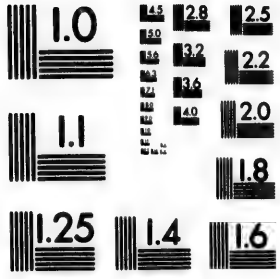
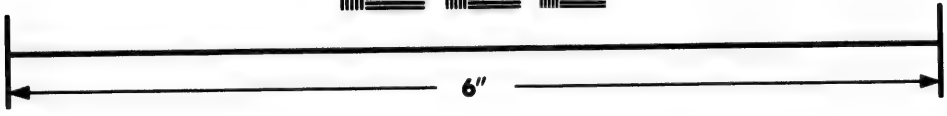


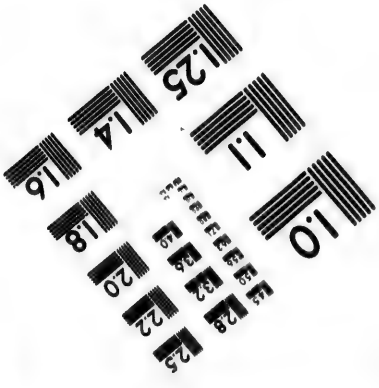


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When goods are unlawfully pawned, the pawnbroker is to restore them; and their houses may be searched during the hours of business, by a warrant from a magistrate for the discovery of such property.

Persons producing notes or memorandums are to be deemed the owners of the property.

Where duplicates are lost, the pawnbroker, upon affidavit made by the owner of such loss before a magistrate, shall deliver another duplicate.

Goods pawned are deemed forfeited at the end of a year; but, on notice from persons having goods in pledge, 3 months further are to be allowed beyond the year for redemption; such notice to be given before the twelvemonth is expired.

All goods pawned may be sold at the expiration of one whole year; and all goods so forfeited, on which above 10*s.* and not exceeding 10*l.* shall have been lent, shall be sold by public auction, and not otherwise; notice of such sale being twice given, at least 3 days before the auction, in a public newspaper, upon pain of forfeiting to the owner of the goods not more than 5*l.* nor less than 2*l.*

All pictures, prints, books, bronzes, statues, busts, carvings in ivory and marble, cameos, intaglios, musical, mathematical, and philosophical instruments, and china, shall be sold by themselves, and without other goods, 4 times only in every year; viz. on the 1st *Monday* in *January, April, July,* and *October*, in every year.

Pawnbrokers are not to purchase goods while in their custody, nor take in pledges from persons under 12 years of age, or intoxicated; nor take in any goods before 9 in the forenoon, or after 8 in the evening between *Michaelmas-day* and *Lady-day*, or before 7 in the forenoon or after 9 in the evening during the remainder of the year, excepting only until 11 on the evenings of *Saturdays*, and the evenings preceding *Good Friday* and *Christmas-day* and every fast or thanksgiving day.

An account of the sale of pledges for more than 10*s.* is to be entered by pawnbrokers in a book, and the surplus is to be paid to the owner of the goods pawned, if demanded within *three* years of the sale, under penalty of 10*l.* and treble the sum lent.

Pawnbrokers are to place in view the table of profits; and their name and business is to be placed over the door, on penalty of 5*l.*

Pawnbrokers injuring goods, or selling them before the time specified, shall, upon application to a magistrate, be compelled to make satisfaction for the same; and if the satisfaction awarded shall be equal to or exceed the principal and profits the pawnbroker shall deliver the goods pledged to the owners without being paid any thing for principal or profit.

Pawnbrokers shall produce their books before a magistrate; or, refusing so to do, shall forfeit a sum not exceeding 10*l.* nor less than 5*l.*

Pawnbrokers offending against this act, shall forfeit for every offence not less than 40*s.* nor more than 10*l.*

It has been held by the Court of King's Bench, that a pawnbroker has no right to sell unredeemed pledges, after the expiration of a year from the time the goods were pledged, if, while they are in his possession, the original owner tender him the principal and interest due.—(*Walter v. Smith*, 23d of January, 1830.) On a motion for a new trial, Lord Tenterden said, "I am of opinion, that if the pledge be not redeemed at the expiration of a year and a day, (and no notice given that 3 months further are to be allowed for its redemption,) the pawnbroker has a right to expose it to sale so soon as he can, consistently with the provisions of the act; but if at any time before the *sale has actually taken place* the owner of the goods tender the principal and interest, and expenses incurred, he has a right to his goods, and the pawnbroker is not injured; for the power of sale is allowed him merely to secure to him the money which he has advanced, together with the high rate of interest which the law allows to him in his character of pawnbroker."

Such is the present state of the law with respect to pawnbrokers. On the whole, the regulations seem to be judiciously devised. Perhaps, however, the rate of interest on small deposits might be advantageously lowered. The law allows interest at the rate of ½*d.* per month to be charged on loans of 2*s.* 6*d.*, which is at the rate of 20 per cent.: but the same sum of ½*d.* per month is exigible from all smaller loans; and as very many do not exceed 1*s.* 6*d.*, and even 6*d.*, the interest on them is exceedingly oppressive. No doubt there is a great deal of trouble with respect to such loans; but still, considering the vast number of advances under 2*s.* 6*d.* it would seem that the interest on them might be somewhat reduced. Perhaps, too, it might be advisable, still better to secure compliance with the statute, to enact that no one should be licensed as a pawnbroker without producing sufficient security for a certain sum to be forfeited in the event of his knowingly or wilfully breaking or evading any of its provisions. This would prevent (what Dr. Colquhoun says is not an uncommon practice) swindlers from becoming pawnbrokers, in order to get the means of selling stolen goods.—(*Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis*, 2d ed. p. 156.)

It would be a useful regulation to oblige pawnbrokers to insure against losses by fire. Much mischief has been occasioned by the neglect of this precaution.

An Account of the Number of Pawnbrokers licenced in the Metropolis, and in the Country, with the Rates respectively charged on their Licences, and the Duty received on the same, in each of the Five Years ending the 5th of January, 1830.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 681. Sess. 1830.)

Years ending	Taken out at the Head Office, London.			Taken out in the Country.		
	Rate of Duty.	Number.	Duty.	Rate of Duty.	Number.	Duty.
	L. s.		*L. s.*	*L. s.*		*L. s.*
5th January 1826	15 0	991	3,915 0	15 0 }	. .	7,240 0
	7 10	3	60 0	7 10 }		
— 1827	15 0	267	4,005 0	15 0 }	. .	7,223 0
	7 10	5	37 10	7 10 }		
— 1828	15 0	274	4,110 0	15 0 }	. .	7,204 10
	7 10	7	52 10	7 10 }		
— 1829	15 0	411	6,165 0	15 0	16	240 0
	7 10	6	75 0	7 10	1,596	11,970 0
— 1830	15 0	293	4,425 0	15 0	47	705 0
	7 10	7	52 10	7 10	1,036	7,785 0

The produce of each rate of duty not being distinguished in the distributors' accounts until the year ending the 5th of January, 1829, the number of licences cannot be given prior to that date for the country.

4. *Notices of Pawnbroking in Italy, France, &c.*—The practice of advancing money to the poor, either with or without interest, seems to have been occasionally followed in antiquity.—(*Beckmann*, vol. iii. p. 14. 1st Eng. ed.) But the first public establishments of this sort were founded in Italy, under the name of *Monti di Pietà*, in the 14th and 15th centuries. As it was soon found to be impossible to procure the means of supporting such establishments from voluntary contributions, a bull for allowing interest to be charged upon the loans made to the poor was issued by Leo X. in 1521. These establishments, though differing in many respects, have universally for their object to protect the needy from the risk of being plundered by the irresponsible individuals to whom their necessities might oblige them to resort, by accommodating them with loans on comparatively reasonable terms. And though their practice has not, in all instances, corresponded with the professions they have made, there seems no reason to doubt that they have been, speaking generally, of essential service to the poor.

From Italy these establishments have gradually spread over the Continent. The *Mont de Piété*, in Paris, was established by a royal ordinance in 1777; and after being destroyed by the Revolution, was again opened in 1797. In 1804, it obtained a monopoly of the business of pawnbroking in the capital. Loans are made, by this establishment, upon deposits of such

goods as can be preserved, to the amount of *two thirds* of the estimated value of all goods other than gold and silver, and to *four fifths* of the value of the latter. No loan is for less than 3 francs (2*s.* 6*d.*). The advances are made for a year, but the borrower may renew the engagement. Interest is fixed at the rate of *one* per cent. per month.

The *Mont de Piété*, receives annually about 1,200,000 articles, upon which it advances from 20,000,000 to 21,000,000 francs; it has generally from 600,000 to 650,000 articles in its possession. The expense of management amounts to from 60 to 65 *centimes* for each article; so that a loan of 3 francs never defrays the expenses it occasions, and the profits are wholly derived from those that exceed 5 francs. At an average, the profits amount to about 280,000 francs, of which only about 155,000 are derived from loans upon deposit, about 125,000 being the produce of other funds at the disposal of the company.

The articles in pawn are returned in the proportion of	$\frac{18}{33}$ in number and	$\frac{17}{33}$ in value.
Are continued in pawn by a prolongation of the loan	$\frac{7}{33}$	$\frac{7}{33}$ —
Hence, are preserved to their proprietors of articles pawned	$\frac{21}{33}$ in number and	$\frac{23}{33}$ in value.
Are sold, subject (as in England) to a claim for surplus any time during 5 years	$\frac{1}{33}$	$\frac{1}{33}$ —
	$\frac{22}{33}$	$\frac{23}{33}$

(*Bulletin des Sciences Géographiques*, Avril, 1830.)

There are no means of making a statement of this sort with respect to London; but, were it possible to make it, the proportion of forfeited pledges would be found, we have no doubt, much greater.

In some respect, particularly the lowness of interest upon small loans, and the greater vigilance exercised with respect to the reception of stolen goods, the *Mont de Piété* has an advantage over the pawnbroking establishments in this country. It may be doubted, however, whether it is, on the whole, so well fitted to attain its objects. The limitation of the loans to 3 francs would be felt to be a serious grievance here, and it can hardly be otherwise in France; nor is to be supposed, that the servants of a great public establishment will be so ready to assist poor persons, having none but inferior articles to offer in security, as private individuals anxious to get business. And such, in point of fact, is found to be the case, not in Paris only, but in all those parts of the Continent where the business of pawnbroking is confined to a few establishments. And hence it would seem that, were the modifications already suggested adopted, our system would be the best of any.

PEARL-ASH. See Potash.

PEARLS (Du. *Paarlen*; Fr. *Perles*; Ger. *Perlen*; It. *Perle*; Lat. *Margaritæ*; Rus. *Shemtschug, Perlü*; Sp. *Perlas*; Arab. *Looloo*; Cyng. *Mootoo*; Hind. *Mootie*,) are well known globular concretions found in several species of shell-fish, but particularly the mother-of-pearl oyster (*Concha margaritifera* Lin.). Pearls should be chosen round, of a bright translucent silvery whiteness, free from stains and roughness. Having these qualities, the largest are of course the most valuable. The larger ones have frequently the shape of a pear; and when these are otherwise perfect, they are in great demand for ear-rings. Ceylon pearls are most esteemed in England.

Value, &c. of Pearls.—Pearls were in the highest possible estimation in ancient Rome, and bore an enormous price.—(*Principium culmenque omnium rerum pretii, margaritæ tenet.—Plin. Hist. Nat.* lib. ix. c. 35.) Their price in modern times has very much declined; partly, no doubt, from changes of manners and fashions; but more probably, from the admirable imitations of pearls that may be obtained at a very low price. According to Mr. Milburn, a handsome necklace of Ceylon pearls, smaller than a large pea, costs from 170*l.* to 300*l.*; but one of pearls about the size of peppercorns may be had for 15*l.*: the pearls in the former sell at a guinea each, and those in the latter at about 1*s.* 6*d.* When the pearls dwindle to the size of a small shot, they are denominated *seed* pearls, and are of little value. They are mostly sent to China. One of the most remarkable pearls of which we have any authentic account was bought by Tavernier, at Catifa, in Arabia, a fishery famous in the days of Pliny, for the enormous sum of 110,000*l.*! It is pear-shaped, regular, and without blemish. The diameter is ·63 inch at the largest part, and the length from 2 to 3 inches.

Much difference of opinion has existed among naturalists with respect to the production of pearls in the oyster; but it seems now to be generally believed that it is the result of disease, and is formed in the same manner as bezoar— (see Bezoar); pearls, like it, consisting of successive coats spread with perfect regularity round a foreign *nucleus*. In fact, the Chinese throw into a species of shell-fish (*mytilus cygneus*, or swan muscle), when it opens, 5 or 6 very minute mother-of-pearl beads strung on a thread; and in the course of a year they are found covered with a pearly crust, which perfectly resembles the real pearl.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*; *Ainslie's Mat. Indica*, &c.)

Pearl Fisheries.—The pearl oyster is fished in various parts of the world, particularly on the west coast of Ceylon; at Tuticoreen, in the province of Tinnevelley, on the coast of Coromandel; at the Bahrein Islands, in the Gulf of Persia; at the Socloo Islands; off the coast of Algiers; off St. Margarita, or Pearl Islands, in the West Indies, and other places on the coast of Colombia; and in the Bay of Panama, in the South Sea. Pearls have sometimes been found on the Scotch coast, and in various other places.

The pearl fishery of Tuticoreen is monopolized by the East India Company, and that of Ceylon by government. But these monopolies are of no value: as in neither case does the sum for which the fishery is let equal the expenses incurred in guarding, surveying, and managing the banks. It is, therefore, sufficiently obvious that this system ought to be abolished, and every one allowed to fish on paying a moderate licence duty. The fear of exhausting the banks is quite ludicrous. The fishery would be abandoned as unprofitable long before the breed of oysters had been injuriously diminished; and in a few years it would be as productive as ever. Besides giving fresh life to the fishery, the abolition of the monopoly would put an end to some very oppressive regulations, enacted by the Dutch more than a century ago.

Persian Gulf.—The most extensive pearl fisheries are those on the several banks not far distant from the island of Bahrein, on the west side of the Persian Gulf, in lat. 26° 50′ N., lon. 51° 1/ E.; but pearl oysters are found along the whole of the Arabian coast, and round almost all the islands of the gulf. Such as are fished in the sea near the islands of Karrak and Corgo contain pearls said to be of a superior colour and description. They are formed of 8 layers or folds, whilst others have only 5, but the water is too deep to make fishing for them either very profitable or easy. Besides, the entire monopoly of the fishery is in the hands of the sheik of Bushire, who seems to consider these islands as his immediate property.

"The fishing season is divided into two portions—the one called the short and cold, the other the long and hot. In the cooler weather of the month of June, diving is practised along the coast in shallow water; but it is not until the intensely hot months of July, August and September, that the Bahrein banks are much frequented. The water on them is about 7 fathoms deep, and the divers are much inconvenienced when it is cold; indeed, they can do little when it is not as warm as the air, and it frequently becomes even more so in the hottest months of the summer. When they dive, they compress the nostrils tightly with a small peace of horn, which keeps the water out, and stuff their ears with bees'-wax for the same purpose. They attach a net to their waists, to contain the oysters; and aid their descent by means of a stone, which they hold by a rope attached to a boat, and shake it when they wish to be drawn up. From what I could learn, 2 minutes may be considered as rather above the average time of their remaining under water. Although severe labour, and very exhausting at the time, diving is not considered particularly injurious to the constitution; even old men practise it. A person usually dives from 12 to 15 times a day in favourable weather; but, when otherwise, 3 or 4 times only. The work is performed on an empty stomach. When the diver becomes fatigued, he goes to sleep, and does not eat until he has slept some time.

"At Bahrein alone, the annual amount produced by the pearl fishery may be reckoned at from 200,000*l.* to 240,000*l.* If, to this, the purchases made by the Bahrein merchants or agents at Aboothabee Shargn, Ras-ul Khymack, &c. be added, which may amount to half as much more, there will be a total of about 300,000*l.* or 360,000*l.*; but this is calculated to include the whole pearl trade of the gulf; for it is believed that all the principal merchants of India, Arabia, and Persia, who deal in pearls, make their purchases, through agents, at Bahrein. I have not admitted in the above estimate much more than *one sixth* of the amount some native merchants have stated it to be, as a good deal seemed to be matter of guess or opinion, and it is difficult to get at facts. My own estimate is in some measure checked by the estimated profits of the small boats. But even the sum which I have estimated is an enormous annual value for an article found in other parts of the world as well as here, and which is never used in its best and most valuable state, except as an ornament. Large quantities of the seed pearls are used throughout Asia, in the composition of majoons, or electuaries, to form which all kinds of precious stones are occasionally mixed, after being pounded, excepting, indeed, diamonds; these being considered, from their hardness, as utterly indigestible. The majoon, in which there is a large quantity of pearls, is much sought for and valued, on account of its supposed stimulating and restorative qualities.

"Bahrein pearl fishery boats are reckoned to amount to about 1,500, and the trade is in the hands of merchants, some of whom possess considerable capital. They bear hard on the producers or fishers, and even those who make the greatest exertions in diving hardly have food to eat. The merchant advances some money to the fishermen at cent. per cent, and a portion of dates, rice, and other necessary articles, all at the supplier's own price; he also lets a boat to them, for which he gets 1 share of the gross profits of all that is fished; and, finally, he purchases the pearls nearly at his own price, for the unhappy fishermen are generally in his debt, and therefore at his mercy."—(*Manuscript Note communicated by Major D. Wilson, late Political Resident at Bushire.*)

The fishery at Algiers was formed by an English association in 1826, but we are ignorant of their success.

The pearl fisheries on the coast of Colombia were at one time of very great value. In 1587, upwards of 697 lbs. of pearls are said to have been imported into Seville. Philip II. had one from St. Margarita, which weighed 250 carats, and was valued at 150,000 dollars. But for many years past the Colombian pearl fisheries have been of comparatively little importance. During the mania for joint stock companies, in 1825, two were formed;—one on a large scale, for prosecuting the pearl fishery on the coast of Colombia; and another, on a smaller scale, for prosecuting it in the Bay of Panama and the Pacific. Both were abandoned in 1826.

The best fishery ground is said to be in from 6 to 8 fathoms water. The divers continue under water from a minute to a minute and a half, or at most 2 minutes. They have a sack or bag fastened to the neck, in which they bring up the oysters. The exertion is extremely violent; and the divers are unhealthy and short-lived.

PEARL SHELLS, commonly called *Mother-of-pearl shells*, are imported from various parts of the East Indies, and consist principally of the shells of the pearl oyster, from the Gulf of Persia and other places, particularly the Sooloo Islands, situate between Borneo and the Philippines, the shores of which afford the largest and finest shells hitherto discovered. On the inside, the shell is beautifully polished, and of the whiteness and water of pearl itself: it has the same lustre on the outside, after the external laminæ have been removed. Mother-of-pearl shells are extensively used in the arts, particularly in inlaid work, and in the manufacture of handles for knives, buttons, toys, snuff boxes, &c. The Chinese manufacture them into beads, fish, counters, spoons, &c.; giving them a finish to which European artists have not been able to attain. Shells for the European market should be chosen of the largest size, of a beautiful pearly lustre, thick and even, and free from stains. Reject such as are small, cracked, or broken, or have lumps on them. When stowed loose as dunnage, they are sometimes allowed to pass free of freight.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*) The imports during the 3 years ending with 1832 were—1830, 465,591 lbs.; 1831, 510,402 do.; 1832 721,527 do.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 425. Sess. 1833.)

PEAS (Ger. *Erbsen*; Fr. *Pois*; It. *Piselli, Bisi*; Sp. *Pesoles, Guisantes*; Rus. *Goroch*). The pea is one of the most esteemed of the leguminous or pulse plants. It is supposed to be indigenous to the south of Europe, and was cultivated by the Greeks and Romans, the latter of whom probably introduced it into Britain. There are many varieties; but the common garden pea (*Pisum sativum*), and the common grey or field pea (*Pisum arvense*), are the most generally cultivated; being reared in large quantities in all parts of the country, particularly in Kent. But since the introduction of the drill husbandry, the culture of the pea as a field crop has been to a considerable extent superseded by the bean. Sometimes, however, it is drilled along with the latter; for, being a climbing plant, it attaches itself to the bean, so as to admit the ground being hoed; at the same time that the free admission of air about its roots promotes its growth. It is not possible to frame any estimate of the consumption of peas. The field pea is now hardly ever manufactured into meal for the purpose of being made into bread, as was formerly the case in many parts of the country; but there is reason to think that the garden pea is now more extensively used than ever.—(*Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture*; *Brown on Rural Affairs*, vol. ii. p. 72. For an account of the laws regulating the importation, &c. of peas, see Corn Laws and Corn Trade.) Leguminous crops are very extensively cultivated in India. The exports of pulse from Calcutta, in 1830, exceeded 1,300 tons.

PECK, a dry measure for grain, pulse, &c. The standard, or Imperial peck, contains 2 gallons, or 554·55 cubic inches. Four pecks make a bushel, and 4 bushels a coomb.—(See Weights and Measures.)

PELLITORY, the root of a perennial plant (*Anthemis pyrethrum*), a native of the Levant, Barbary, and the south of Europe. The root is long, tapering, about the thickness of the finger, with a brownish cuticle. It is imported packed in bales, sometimes mixed with other roots, from which, however, it is easily distinguished. It is inodorous. When chewed, it seems at first to be insipid, but after a few seconds it excites a glowing heat, and a pricking sensation on the tongue and lips which remains for 10 or 12 minutes. The pieces break with a short resinous fracture; the transverse section presenting a thick brown bark, studded with black shining points, and a pale yellow radiated inside. It is used in medicine as a stimulant.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*) The price varies, including the duty, (6*d.*), from 2*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb.

PENCILS (Ger. *Pinsel*; Du. *Pinceelen*; Fr. *Pinceaux*; It. *Pennelli*; Sp. *Pinceles*), the instruments used by painters in laying on their colours. They are of various kinds, and made of various materials; some being formed of the bristles of the boar, and others of camel's hair, the down of swans, &c.

PENCILS, BLACK LEAD. See Black Lead Pencils.

PENKNIVES (Ger. *Federmesser*; Fr. *Canifs*; It. *Temperini*; Sp. *Corta plumas*), small knives, too well known to need any particular description, used in making and mending pens. The best and most highly ornamented penknives are manufactured in London and Sheffield.

PENNY, formerly a silver, but now a copper coin. This was the first silver coin struck in England by our Saxon ancestors, being the 240th part of their pound; so that its weight was about 22½ grains Troy.

PENS (Fr. *Plumes à écrire*; Ger. *Schreibfedern*; It. *Penne da scrivere*; Rus. *Pera Stvoli*), well known instruments for writing, usually formed of the quills of the goose, swan, or some other bird. Metallic pens have been occasionally employed for a lengthened period: but it is only within these few years that they have been extensively introduced. They first began to be largely manufactured by Mr. John Perry, of London. Mr. P. having succeeded in giving to his pens a greater degree of softness and elasticity than was possessed by any metallic pens previously in use, they speedily obtained a very extensive sale. This success brought crowds of rivals into the field; so that metallic pens are now manufactured in vast quantities, and of an immense variety of forms. But though they have superseded, to a very considerable extent, the use of quills, and have some peculiar advantages, it does not appear possible to give them the elasticity of the quill, nor to fit them so well for quick and easy writing.

PENNYWEIGHT, a Troy weight, being the 20th part of an ounce, containing 24 grains.

PEPPER (Fr. *Poivre*; Ger. *Pfeffer*; Du. *Peper*; It. *Pepe*; Sp. *Pimienta*; Rus. *Perez*; Lat. *Piper*), the berry or fruit of different species of plants, having an aromatic, extremely hot, pungent taste, used in seasoning, &c. The following sorts of pepper are met with in commerce:—

I. Black Pepper (Fr. *Poivre*; Ger. *Schwarzen pfeffer*; It. *Pepe negro*; Sp. *Pimienta*; Sans. *Mercha*; Hind. *Gol-mirch*; Malay, *Lada*; Jav. *Mariha*), the fruit of a creeping plant (*Piper nigrum*), one of the pepper genus, of which there are upwards of 80 species. It is cultivated extensively in India, Siam, the Eastern islands, &c. It requires the support of other trees, to which it readily adheres. It climbs to the height of 20 feet; but is said to bear best when restrained to the height of 12 feet. It begins to produce at about the

3d year, and is in perfection at the 7th; continues in this state for 3 or 4 years; and declines for about as many more, until it ceases to be worth keeping. The fruit grows abundantly from all the branches, in long small clusters of from 20 to 50 grains; when ripe, it is of a bright red colour. After being gathered, it is spread on mats in the sun, when it loses its red colour, and becomes black and shrivelled as we see it. The grains are separated from the stalks by hand rubbing. That which has been gathered at the proper period shrivels the least; but if plucked too soon, it will become broken and dusty in its removal from place to place. The vine produces two crops in the year; but the seasons are subject to great irregularities.

Pepper should be chosen of a pungent aromatic odour, an extremely hot and acrid taste, in large grains, firm, sound, and with few wrinkles—for of these it always has some. Reject that which is shrivelled, or small grained, or which on being rubbed will break to pieces.

In point of quality, the pepper of Malabar is usually reckoned the best; but there is no material difference between it and that of Sumatra, and the other islands. In the market of Bengal, where they meet on equal terms, the produce of Malabar is generally about 2 per cent. higher than the other. In Europe, there is generally a difference of ½*d.* per lb. in favour of Malabar; but in China they are held in equal estimation.

Black pepper sold ground, is said to be often adulterated with burnt crust of bread.

II. White Pepper is made by blanching the finest grains of the common black pepper, by steeping them for a while in water, and then gently rubbing them, so as to remove the dark outer coat. It is milder than the other, and is much prized by the Chinese; but very little is imported into England.

III. Cayenne Pepper is the produce of several varieties of the *Capsicum*, an annual plant, a native of both the Indies. The best, which is brought home from the West Indies ready prepared, is made from the *Capsicum baccatum* (bird pepper). It has an aromatic, extremely pungent, acrimonious taste, setting the mouth, as it were, on fire, and the impression remaining long on the palate. It is sometimes adulterated with muriate of soda; and sometimes with a very deleterious substance, the red oxide of lead; but this fraud may be detected by its weight, and by chemical tests.—(See Chillies.)

IV. Long Pepper.—This species is the produce of a perennial (*Piper longum*), a native of Malabar and Bengal. The fruit is hottest in its immature state; and is therefore gathered while green, and dried in the sun. It is imported in entire spikes, which are about 1½ inch long. It has a weak aromatic odour, an intensely fiery pungent taste, and a dark grey colour. The root of long pepper is a favourite medicine among the Hindoos.

The quantities of the last 3 species of pepper imported are quite inconsiderable, compared with the quantity of black pepper.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.; Ainslie's Mat. Indica; Thomson's Dispensatory, &c.*)

Trade in Pepper. Consumption of, and Duties on, in England.—Pepper is extensively used, all over Europe and the East, as a condiment. It was originally imported into this country by way of the Levant (see vol. i. p. 617.); and for many years after the establishment of the East India Company, it formed the most important article of their imports. In nothing has the beneficial effect of opening the India trade been so unequivocally displayed as in the instance of pepper. The private traders have resorted to new markets, and discovered new sources of supply which had hitherto been wholly unexplored; so that there has been not only a very great increase in the quantity of pepper brought to Europe, but also a very great fall in its price, which does not now exceed a third of what it amounted to in 1814!

The quantities in the following Table are taken from the *Parl. Papers*, No. 22, Sess. 1830, and No. 425, Sess. 1833; the prices have been supplied by Mr. Cook.

Amount of the Total Quantity of Pepper imported from the East Indies into Great Britain, with its Price in Bond in London, each Year, from 1814.

Years.	Pepper.	Prices.	Years.	Pepper.	Prices.	Years.	Pepper.	Prices.
	Lbs.	*Per lb.*		*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*		*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*
1814	5,762,649	11*d.* to 13*d.*	1821	845,109	7 1-4*d.* to 7 1-2*d.*	1827	9,067,766	3 1-4*d.* to 3 3-4
1815	12,719,958	9 1-2 — 9 9	1822	7,311,578	5 — 6 1-4	1828	4,978,102	3 1-4 — 3 9
1816	11,985,014	7 — 7 1-2	1823	5,955,328	5 — 6 1-2	1829	.	2 9 — 3 1
1817	4,07-7,062	8 — 8 1-2	1824	8,401,634	5 1-2 — 6	1830	2,742,934	2 5 4 — 4
1818	6,104,721	7 1-2 — 7 3-4	1825	5,396,217	4 9 — 5 4	1831	6,128,240	2 — 3
1819	5,330,143	6 1 — 6 1 4	1826	13,103,416	4 — 4 1-2	1832	4,830,473	2 3 8 — 4
1820	787,947	6 6 — 6 3 4						

Pepper is one of the most grossly over-taxed articles in the British tariff. Until 1803, the duty was 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb.—a duty so exorbitant, that one would be inclined to think it had been imposed in order to put a total stop to the use of the article. In 1823, the duty on pepper from a British possession was reduced to 1*s.* per lb.; but even this duty, as compared with the price of the article (3*d.* to 4*d.* per lb.) is quite enormous, amounting to no less than from 400 to 300 per cent.! It will be seen from the subjoined Table that the reduction of the duty, in 1823, has increased the consumption from about 1,400,000 lbs. to 2,225,000 lbs. a year; and were the duty reduced, as it ought to be, to 2*d.* or at most 3*d.* per lb., so that pepper might become accessible to the lower classes, to whom its free use would be of infinite importance, we have not the slightest doubt that in a very short period the consump

tion would amount to 5,000,000 or 6,000,000 lbs. There would either be no loss of revenue by such a measure, or none worth mentioning; and it is not to be endured that the bulk of the people should be deprived of so useful a commodity, and the trade of the country seriously injured, by keeping up oppressive duties, which serve no purpose whatever, unless it be to keep alive the remembrance of the ignorance and rapacity of those by whom they were imposed. We have already shown (see vol. i., p. 639.) the difficulties under which the dealers in pepper labour, in consequence of the absurd regulations as to the warehousing of commodities from India.

Account of the Quantity of all Sorts of Pepper retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom, the Rates of Duty thereon, and the Total Revenue derived from the same, in each Year since 1809.

Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Nett Amount of Duty received thereon.	Rates of Duty charged thereon.			
			Common Pepper.	Cayenne Pepper.		Long Pepper.	Guinea Pepper.
			East India.	East India.	Other.		
	Lbs.	*L. s. d.*				*Per lb.*	*Per lb.*	*Per lb*
1809	1,117,992	98,236 9 4	1s. 8d. per lb. and 22. 13s. 4d. per cent. ad valorem.	4s. per lb., and 22. 13s. 4d. per cent. ad valorem.		4s.	8d.	1s. 4d.
1811	1,132,096	90,547 1 6	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto
1812	1,152,480	101,308 10 6	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto
1813	Records destroyed.		From 15th April, 1s. 11 3-4d. per lb., and 3l. 3s. 4d. per cent. ad valorem.	4s. 9d. per lb., and 3l. 3s. 4d. per cent. ad valorem.		4s. 9d.	9 1-2d.	1s. 7d.
1814	941,599	95,068 4 10	From 10th April, 1s. 10½d. per lb.	8s. per lb.	ditto	10d.	ditto
1815	1,099,423	103,025 11 10	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto
1816	1,055,702 1-2	98,390 19 1	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto
1817	1,218,750 3-4	113,437 6 7	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto
1818	1,417,583	125,093 15 6	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto
1819	1,372,027	119,871 7 1	From 5th July, 2s. 6d. per lb.	2s. 6d. per lb.		2s. 6d.	2s.	2s. 6d.
1820	1,404,731 1-4	174,063 2 9	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto
1821	1,456,453 1-4	156,209 2 3	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto
1822	1,446,400 1-4	179,588 11 4	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto
1823	1,368,963	170,627 6 8	From 10th October, 2s. 6d. per lb. on all sorts.					
1824	1,447,230 1-2	180,816 3 5	ditto					
1825	850,087 1-4	106,221 15 0	ditto					
1826	2,520,077	126,517 4 8	From 5th January, 1s. per lb. if from British possessions.					
1827	1,948,931 1-2	97,496 5 11	ditto					
1828	1,927,718 1-2	96,467 12 6	ditto					
1829	1,893,541	96,725 19 2	ditto					
1830	2,029,154	100,628 0 0	ditto					
1831	2,060,004	103,630 0 0	ditto					
1832	2,235,491	111,238 0 0	ditto					

Supply of Pepper.—The following instructive details with respect to the supply of pepper are taken from the *Singapore Chronicle*; to which they were contributed by John Crawfurd, Esq.—than whom there can be no more competent authority as to such subjects.

Of all the products of the Eastern islands, and of the countries immediately in their neighbourhood, in demand among strangers, black pepper is the most important, both in value and quantity.

The pepper countries extend from about the longitude of 96° to that of 115° E., beyond which no pepper is to be found; and they reach from 5° S. latitude to about 12° N., where it again ceases. Within these limits we have Sumatra, Borneo, the Malayan peninsula, and certain countries lying on the east coast of the Gulf of Siam.

The whole produce of the island of Sumatra is estimated not to fall short of 168,000 piculs, of 133⅓ lbs. each; the south-west coast being said to produce 150,000, and the north-east coast 18,000 piculs.

The pepper ports on the north-east coast of Sumatra are Lankat and Deili, with Sardang. The first produce 15,000 piculs, and the latter 3,000 annually. The cultivation is carried on by the Batta nation in the interior.

The ports on the south-west coast, and the amount of their produce, as given in a recent estimate, are as follow: viz. port and district of Trumah, 40,000; district of Pulo Dua, 4,000: ditto of Cluat, 2,000; coast from Tampat Tuan to Susu, 33,000; port of Susu, 1,000; Kualla Batta, 20,000; Analabu, 4,000; districts to the north of Analabu, 20,000; making in all, 150,000 piculs.

Here it is of importance to remark, that the culture and production are extremely fluctuating.

During the last pepper season, there obtained cargoes on the west coast of Sumatra, 27 American ships, country traders, 4 large French ships, besides the ships belonging to the East India Company, which generally take away 500 tons. Nearly the whole of this trade is in the hands of Europeans or Americans; the pepper finds its way to Europe, to America, and in a small proportion to China.

The north-east coast of Sumatra, from Pedier down to the Carimons, is estimated, as already mentioned, to produce 18,000 piculs. Prince of Wales Island is the principal *depôt* for this, from whence the greatest part is exported to India and China. The produce of Prince of Wales Island itself is about 3,000 piculs.

Of the islands at the mouth of the Straits of Malacca and Singapore, Bingtang, on which Rhio is situated, and adjacent islands, produce 10,000 piculs; and Lingga about 2,000. A large proportion of this is brought to Singapore, which exported last year about 21,000 piculs; some part to Bengal and China, but principally to Europe direct, in free traders.

The west coast of the Malayan peninsula produces no pepper, with the exception of about 4,000 piculs afforded by the territory of Malacca.

On the east coast of the peninsula, the production of pepper is very considerable. The ports of Patani and Calantan—chiefly the latter—yield about 16,000 piculs annually, and Tringanu about 8,000. A portion of this is brought to Singapore and Penang; but we believe the greater proportion goes direct to China in junks, of which 3 large ones frequent Tringanu annually, and 1 Calantan. The Americans, too, occasionally visit these ports. In the year 1831, 3 vessels of considerable burden obtained cargoes.

The east coast of the Gulf of Siam, from the latitude of 10½° to that of 12½° N., affords an extensive produce of pepper. This coast is scarcely known, even by name, to the traders of Europe. The principal ports here are Chantibun, Tungyai, Pongsom, and Kampop; the first 2 being under the dominion of Siam, and the latter under that of Kamboja. The whole produce is estimated at not less than 60,000 piculs; 40,000 of which are brought at once to the capital of Siam as tribute to the king, and the whole finds its way to China in junks. It remains only to estimate the produce of the island of Borneo. The whole produce of Borneo is estimated at about 20,000 piculs; of which a large share is carried to China

direct in junks, some by Portuguese vessels; and about 7,000 piculs are now annually brought by the native craft of the country itself to Singapore in the course of that free trade, which is happily flourishing at this settlement. The data which have been stated, will enable us to estimate the whole production of the Malayan Archipelago, including that of the peninsula of Malacca, and that of the east coast of the Gulf of Siam, as 306,000 piculs; and as there is no other part of the world that affords pepper, excepting the western coast of the peninsula of India, and this affords but 30,000 piculs, or less than 1-10th part of what the places we have enumerated produce, we have, accordingly, at one view, the whole production of the earth, being 336,000 piculs, or 45,066,666 lbs. avoirdupois. The average price of pepper has been lately about 9 Spanish dollars a picul; so the whole value drawn into India from Europe, China, and the New World, on account of this single commodity, is 3,042,000 dollars. The quantity given in this statement may appear enormous; but if meted out to the whole population of the globe, or to 1,000,000,000 of people, it would be found that the average annual consumption of an individual would amount to no more than 323 grains.

Mr. Crawfurd has very recently supplied us with a revised estimate of the production of pepper as follows:—

	Lbs.		*Lbs.*
Sumatra (west coast) - -	20,000,000	Siam - - - - -	8,000,000
Do. (east coast) - -	8,000,000	Malabar - - - -	4,000,000
Islands in the Straits of Malacca	3,600,000		
Malay peninsula - - -	3,733,333	Total -	50,000,000
Borneo - - - - -	2,666,667		

The localities in the previous estimate are quite correct; and we, therefore, did not think it would be right to suppress it.

But, though this may be depended upon as being a fair statement of what has been, till a comparatively late period, the average supply of pepper, the extreme depression of price has occasioned a very considerable decline in the production of some of the places mentioned above, within the last 4 or 5 years. The late advance of price will, however, probably, check any further diminution of production. But though prices were to rise still more considerably than they have done, the effect on the supply, owing to the plant requiring a few years to come to maturity, may not, at first, be so great as might be supposed.

(The duty on pepper, has been reduced from 1*s.* to 6*d.* per lb.; a reduction that will doubtless lead to a very material increase of consumption.—(6 & 7 *Will.* 4. cap. 60.)—Sup.)

[See Imports and Exports.—*Am. Ed.*]

PERCH, a long measure, 16½ feet in length.—(See Weights and Measures.)

PERMIT, a licence or instrument, granted by the officers of excise, authorising the removal of goods subject to the excise duties.

It is enacted by the 11 Geo. 3. c. 30., that no person shall demand or receive a permit for the removal of brandy, arrack, rum, spirits, and strong waters, coffee, tea, and cocoa nuts, without the special direction in *writing* of the person out of whose stock they are to come, on pain of forfeiting 50*l.*; and in default of payment, to be imprisoned 3 months. Persons taking out a permit, and not removing the goods within the prescribed period, nor returning the permit to the officer, forfeit *treble* the value of the goods mentioned in such permit. By the 57 Geo. 3. c. 93., persons selling, lending, or making use of a permit for any other purpose than that for which it was granted, forfeit 500*l.* By the 6 Geo. 4. c. 81. § 116. it is enacted, that any retailer of spirits sending out more than *one gallon* without a lawful permit; any rectifier, compounder, or dealer, receiving into his stock any spirits without a permit; or any carrier, boatman, or other person, assisting in the removal or transportation of any spirits without a permit; shall forfeit 200*l.* over and above every other penalty, together with all such spirits: the packages, carts, horses, &c. employed in the removal of such goods shall also be forfeited, and may and *shall* be seized by any officer of excise. The 9 Geo. 4. c. 44. § 5. dispenses with the necessity of a permit for the removal of coffee and cocoa. The commissioners of excise provide frames or moulds for making the paper used for permits, which has the words "Excise Office" visible in the substance of it. It is a capital offence to make such frames, or to have them in one's possession without a lawful excuse.

These regulations will, it is most probable, be speedily modified; the commissioners of excise inquiry, of whom Sir Henry Parnell is chairman, having recommended the abolition of permits in case of the removal of tea, and some other articles.

PERRY, a fermented liquor made from pears, in the same manner as cider from apples. The pears best fitted for producing this liquor are exceedingly harsh and tart; but it is itself pleasant and wholesome.—(See Cider.)

PETERSBURGH, the modern metropolis of the Russian empire, situated at the confluence of the river Neva with the eastern extremity of the Gulf of Finland, in lat. 59° 56′ 23″ N., lon. 30° 18¾′ E. Population (including military) 480,000.

This flourishing emporium was founded by Peter the Great, whose name it bears, in 1703. In the same year, the first merchant ship that ever appeared on the Neva arrived from Holland; and the czar, to mark his sense of the value of such visiters, treated the captain and crew with the greatest hospitality, and loaded them with presents. In 1714, 16 ships arrived at Petersburgh; in 1730, the number had increased to 180; and so rapid has been the progress of commerce and civilisation in Russia since that period, that, at present, from 1,200 to 1,500 ships annually enter and clear out from Petersburgh!

It is much to be regretted, that, although favourable to commerce, the situation of Petersburgh is, in other respects, far from being good. The ground on which it stands is low and swampy; it has, on different occasions, sustained great injury from inundations; and the country round is, generally speaking, a morass and forest, so that almost every thing required for the subsistence of the inhabitants must be brought from a distance. No one less bold and daring than Peter the Great would have thought of selecting such a situation for the metropolis of his empire; and none possessed of less power and resolution could have succeeded in overcoming the all but insuperable obstacles which the nature of the country opposed to the completion of his gigantic schemes.

Cronstadt, situated on a small island about 20 miles W. of Petersburgh, may, in some measure, be considered as the port of the latter. Almost all vessels bound for Petersburgh

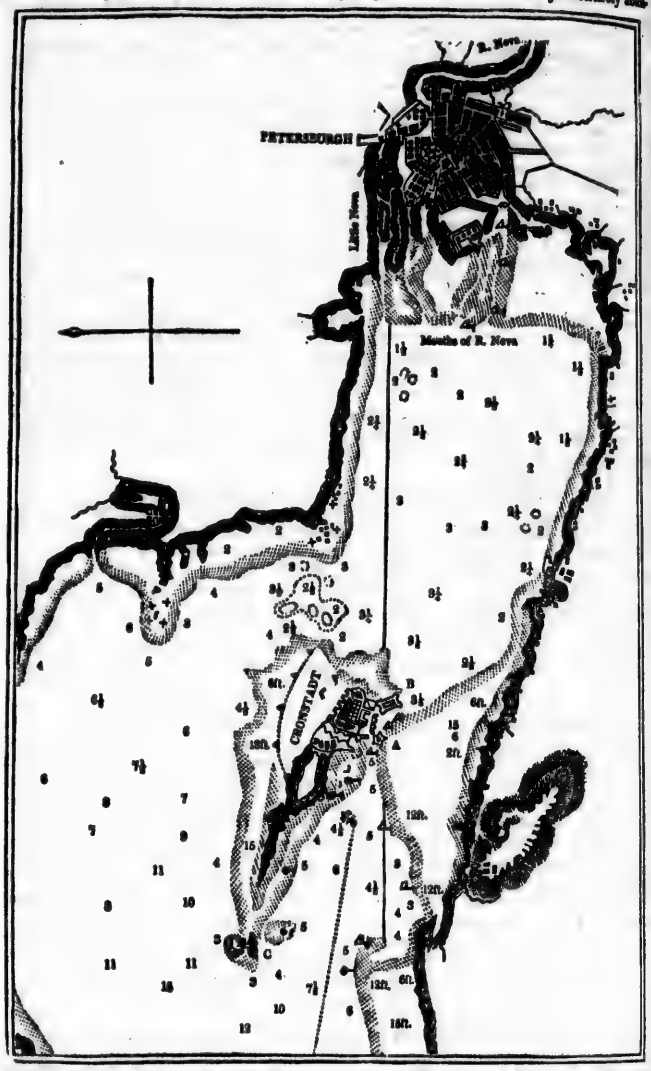
touch here; and those drawing above 8 feet water load and unload at Cronstadt; the goods being conveyed from and to the city in lighters, the charges of which vary according to the demand at the time. The merchants' harbour at Cronstadt is fitted to contain about 600 ships; but it is exposed to the westerly winds. Cronstadt is strongly fortified, and is the principal station of the Russian fleet. Vessels bound for Petersburgh must pass by the narrow channel to the south of the island, commanded by the fortifications of Cronstadt on the one side, and of Cronslot on the other. The woodcut on the next page, taken from the official survey published by the Russian government, gives a better idea of the situation of Petersburgh, Cronstadt, &c. than could be derived from any description.

Trade, &c.—Petersburgh has the most extensive foreign trade of any city in the north of Europe. This arises from its being the only great maritime outlet on the Gulf of Finland, and from its vast and various communications with the interior of the country. Few countries have such an extent of internal navigation as Russia. By means partly of rivers, and partly of canals, Petersburgh is connected with the Caspian Sea. Goods are conveyed from the latter to the capital, through a distance of 1,434 miles, without once landing them! The iron and furs of Siberia, and the teas of China, are received at Petersburgh in the same way; but owing to the great distance of those countries, and the short period of the year during which the rivers and canals are navigable, they take 3 years in their transit. Immense quantities of goods are also conveyed during winter upon the ice, in sledges, to the different ports, and to the nearest *pristans*, or places in the interior, where barks are built for river or canal navigation. They are put on board in anticipation of the period of sailing, that the barks may be ready to take advantage of the high water, by floating down with the current as soon as the snow and ice begin to melt. The cargoes carried up the river into the interior during summer are principally conveyed to their ultimate destinations by the sledge roads during winter. The conveyance by the latter is generally the most expeditious; and it, as well as the internal conveyance by water, is performed at a very moderate expense.

The barks that come from the interior are mostly of a very rude construction, flat-bottomed, and seldom drawing more than 20 or 30 inches water. When they arrive at their destination, they are sold, or broken up for fire-wood. Those that leave the ports for the interior are of a superior description, and are comparatively few in number; the commodities imported being, at an average, of much greater value relatively to their bulk and weight than those that are exported.

Principal Articles of Export and Import.—The principal articles of export are tallow, hemp and flax, iron, copper; grain, particularly wheat; deals and masts, potashes, bristles, linseed and hemp seed, linseed and hemp seed oils, furs, leather; fox, hare, and squirrel skins; canvass and coarse linen, cordage, caviare, WAX, isinglass, tar, &c. Tallow, both for candles and soap, is more largely exported from this than from any other port in the Baltic, and is an article of great commercial importance.—(See TALLOW.) The hemp is of good quality, though inferior to that of Riga: it is assorted, according to its quality, into *clean hemp*, or firsts; *outshot hemp*, or seconds; and *half-clean hemp*, or thirds. The first sort should be quite clean, and free from spills; the second is less so; and the third, or *half-clean*, contains a still greater portion of spills, and is, besides, of mixed qualities and colours. Russian flax is much esteemed for the length of its fibre; it is naturally brownish, but becomes very white after the first bleaching. Three qualities are distinguished; viz. 12 head, 9 head, and 6 head.—(See HEMP and FLAX.) Iron is of very good quality, and is preferable to that from the other Russian ports: there are two kinds, old and new sable; the former is the best. Leather is largely exported; it is divided into many different sorts.—(See the details with respect to it in the art. RUSSIA LEATHER.) The main trade between this country and Petersburgh has, within the last 7 years, become of very considerable importance; and Russia will, probably, continue henceforth to be one of the principal sources of supply to this country. The *Russian wheat*, so called to distinguish it from the *azemaia*, or soft wheat, and the *kubanka*, or hard wheat, is the lowest description of wheat shipped from Petersburgh. It is very small-grained and dingy coloured; being, though sound, unfit for the manufacture of fine bread. The azemaia is of a larger, though still not a large grain, and better colour, and has of late been extensively imported into England. The kubanka, or hard wheat, is a large semi-transparent grain. Its hardness has nothing of the flinty character of the Spanish hard wheat, which it most resembles. When first brought to London, the millers objected to it, on account of the difficulty experienced in grinding it; but it is now much esteemed. All the Russian wheats are well calculated for keeping, either in granary, or when made into bread: but the kubanka has this quality in a peculiar degree; and is in great demand for mixing with other wheats that are old, stale, or out of condition. A shipment of 100 chetwerts of wheat in Petersburgh is found, when delivered here, to yield about 72 Imperial quarters. The principal imports are sugar, especially from the Havannah (the importation of refined sugar was prohibited in 1822); coffee, but not in large quantities; madder, indigo, cochineal, and dye woods; cotton stuffs and yarn,—the latter being by far the principal article sent from this country to Russia; woollens, oils, spices, salt, wine, lead, tin, coal, fine linen from Holland and Silesia, &c.

Rapid as has been the increase of Russian commerce, its progress has been materially retarded by restrictions on importation. Considering the immense variety of valuable natural productions with which Russia abounds, the thinness of the population, and the slavery and ignorance of the great bulk of the people, nothing can be more absurd than the attempt to render them, by dint of Custom-house regulations, rivals of the English and Germans in manufacturing industry! However, it must be confessed, that in enacting prohibitions and restrictions, they are only following a line of policy which we have not yet entirely aban-



References to Plan.—A, Cronslot; B, Men-of-war haven; C, Tolboken light-house, 88 feet high, furnished with a fixed light. Soundings in fathoms. It appears from the above plan, that the depth of water between Cronstadt and Petersburgh does not, in some places, exceed 6 or 7 feet; but it is increased about a foot by continued westerly, and is diminished about as much by continued easterly, winds. Cronstadt is, therefore, as already observed, in reality, the port of Petersburgh; and has, indeed, a separate Custom-house or jurisdiction. The transfer of goods between the two places by means of lighters has of late years been materially facilitated by the employment of steam tugs.

dead, though it has been quite as injurious to us as it can be to them. We had hoped that sound commercial principles were beginning to get an ascendancy at Petersburgh, inasmuch as the ukase of the 26th of March, 1830, materially modified several of the previous restrictions. But more recently a new ukase made its appearance, enacting a considerable increase of duties on several articles. It is, we are afraid, pretty clear, that the Russian government has profited little by the admirable work of M. Storch (*Cours d'Economie Politique*), though written for the special use of the present emperor of Russia, and his brother the Grand Duke Michael, and published by order of the late emperor.

Inspection of Goods.—At Petersburgh, Riga, and other Baltic ports, when goods are brought from the interior to be shipped, they are inspected and classified according to their qualities, by officers (*brackers*) appointed by government for that purpose, and sworn to the faithful performance of their duty. All sorts of timber, linen and canvass, flax and hemp, linseed and hemp seed, ashes, wax, &c. are subject to such inspection. They are generally divided into three qualities: *Krohn* (crown), or superior; *Brack*, or middling; and *Bracks-Brack*, or inferior. This classification is said to be, in most cases, made with considerable fairness. A factor or commission agent in Russia, instructed to buy on account of his correspondent in England or Holland, a specified quantity of any description of produce subject to the official visit, is not liable to any action in the event of the article being found, upon delivery, to be of inferior quality, provided he produce a certificate to show that it had been officially inspected, or *bracked*. But a factor is at liberty, should any article delivered to him be manifestly defective, to name 1 or 2 other *brackers* to decide whether the article be merchantable or not.

Native and Foreign Merchants, &c.—Every Russian carrying on trade must be a burgher, and have his name registered in the burghers' book; he thus acquires an unlimited freedom of trade. All whose names are in the burghers' books, are either townsmen who have property within the city, or members of a guild. There are three guilds. Those belonging to the first, must possess from 10,000 to 50,000 roubles; these may follow foreign trade, are not liable to corporal punishment, and may drive about the city in carriages drawn by 2 horses. Those belonging to the second guild declare themselves possessed of from 5,000 to 10,000 roubles; they are confined to inland trade. A capital of from 1,000 to 5,000 roubles entitles its owner to admission into the third guild, which comprises shopkeepers and petty dealers. The rates paid by the members of these guilds amount to 1 per cent. upon their declared capital, the "statement of which is left to the conscience of every individual." Burghers are not obliged to serve in the army, but may provide a substitute, or pay a fine. The *guests*, or foreign merchants, who enrol themselves in the city register on account of their commercial affairs, enjoy privileges nearly similar to those enjoyed by the members of the first guild.

None but native Russians are allowed to engage in the internal trade of the country; and hence a foreigner, who imports goods into Russia, must sell them to Russians only, and at the port where they arrive. A few foreigners, indeed, settled in Russia, and having connections with the natives, do carry on a trade with the interior; but it is contrary to law, and the goods are liable to be seized.

The merchants engaged in foreign trade are mostly foreigners, of whom the English are the principal. The peculiar privileges formerly enjoyed by the latter are now nearly obsolete; and their rights, in common with those of other foreigners, are merely those of *guests*. The English factory is, at present, little more than a society formed of some of the principal English merchants, several of whom, however, do not belong to it: its power extends to little more than the management of certain funds under its control.

Purchase and Sale of Commodities, &c.—Owing to the scarcity of capital in Russia, goods, the produce of the country, are frequently paid in advance; and foreign goods are most commonly sold upon credit. From the month of November till the shipping season in May, the Russians who trade in flax, hemp, tallow, bristles, iron, &c. either come themselves to Petersburgh, or employ agents to sell their goods to foreigners, to be delivered, according to agreement, in May, June, July, or August. The payments are made according to the circumstances of the sellers and buyers; sometimes the buyer pays the whole amount, in the winter months, for the goods which are to be delivered in the summer or autumn; and sometimes he pays a part or excluding the contract, and the remainder on delivery of the goods. The manufacturers and dealers in linen usually come to Petersburgh in March, and sell their goods for ready money.

Foreign goods were formerly almost entirely sold at a twelvemonth's credit, and some at a still longer term; but of late years several articles, as coffee and sugar, are sold for ready money: still, however, the great bulk of foreign goods for the supply of the interior is sold on credit. Most of the Russians who buy goods on credit of foreigners, for the use of the interior, have no other connection in trade with Petersburgh, than merely coming there once or twice a year to make purchases: which being accomplished, they set off with the goods, and the foreigner neither sees nor hears of them again till the bills become due.

It is obvious, from this statement, that experience and sagacity are nowhere more requisite in a merchant than here. He has nothing, in fact, but his own knowledge of the native dealers to depend upon: and it is highly creditable to the Russians, that foreigners do not hesitate to trust them with immense sums on such a guaranty. A foreign merchant carrying on business in Russia, must also

be acquainted with the customary forms and obligations of contracts; the mode of making payments; the many formalities that encumber, and sometimes turn aside the course of justice; the spirit, rather more than the letter, of the tariff and the Custom-house regulations; the privileges claimed by the Crown, and the different orders; with a variety of other particulars, which attentive and able men may learn on the spot, and nowhere else.

"Another circumstance connected with the British trade is too curious to be passed in silence. Every mercantile house in Petersburgh employs certain men, called in the language of the country *artelschicks*, who are the counting-house men, and employed by every merchant to collect payments of bills, and to receive money, as well as, in many instances, to pay it in very considerable sums. This is an important part of their trust. There being no bankers in Russia, every mercantile house keeps its own cash; and as the payments between merchants, and for bills of exchange, are made entirely in bank notes of no higher value than 5, 10, 25, 50, and 100 roubles—most of them in so tattered a state as to require several hours to count over a sum of 2,000*l.* or 3,000*l.*—this business is performed by artelschicks; and very few instances have occurred of loss by their inattention, either in miscounting the notes, in taking false notes, or, where they are much torn, in receiving parts of different bank notes.

"These artelschicks are also employed to superintend the loading and unloading the different cargoes; they receive the most valuable into the warehouse, where they are left solely under their care; and in these warehouses not merely merchandise, but often large quantities of dollars, are deposited. These Russians are mostly natives of Archangel and the adjacent governments, of the lowest class, are often slaves, generally of the Crown: and the only security of the merchant arises in some degree from the natural reluctance of the Russian to betray confidence reposed in him; but in a much greater from their association, which is called an artel.

"An artel consists of a certain number of labourers, who voluntarily become responsible, as a body, for the honesty of each individual. The separate earnings of each man are put into the common stock; a monthly allowance is made for his support; and at the end of the year the surplus is equally divided. The number varies in different associations from 50 to 100; and so advantageous is it considered to belong to one of these societies, that 500 and even 1,000 roubles are paid for admission. These societies are not bound by any law of the empire, or even written agreement; nor does the merchant restrain them under any legal obligation; yet there has been no instance of their objecting to any just claim, or of protecting an individual whose conduct had brought a demand on the society."—(*Coxe's Travels in Russia*, vol. iii. p. 315.)

Few Russian merchants engage in foreign trade. It is carried on principally in foreign bottoms, of which by far the larger proportion are English. Marine insurances are generally effected in London or Amsterdam; there being no establishment for that department of business in Russia. An insurance company against fire has been established in Petersburgh, and enjoys several privileges. It is a joint stock company, divided into actions, or shares. It has been very successful; and its shares are at a very high premium. No insurance on houses or goods in Russia, made in a foreign country, can be legally recovered; no official documents of loss being allowed to be furnished for such a purpose.

Money.—Accounts are kept at Petersburgh, and throughout Russia, in bank roubles of 100 copecks: formerly, accounts were kept in silver money; but, by an order of government, the practice of keeping accounts in bank note roubles has been enforced since 1811, to the exclusion of the other.

The only gold coin at present struck is the 1-2 Imperial, or 5 rouble piece, = 15*s.* 8*d.* sterling very nearly. The silver rouble is worth 3*s.* 2 3-4*d.* sterling very nearly; and is declared, by a ukase issued in 1839, to be worth 360 copecks: this would give the value of the paper rouble at nearly 1*d.*; but it fluctuates with the exchange.—(For an account of the Commercial Bank of Russia, see vol. i., p. 124.)

Weights and Measures.—The Russian weights are the same for gold, silver, and merchandise, viz.—

3 Soltnicks	= 1 Loth.	40 Pounds	= 1 Pood.
32 Lotns	= 1 Pound.	10 Poods	= 1 Berkovitz.

The Russian pound contains, according to Dr. Kelly, 6318·5 English grains. Hence, 100 lbs. Russian = 90·26 lbs. avoirdupois = 40·93 kilog. The pood = 36 lbs. 1 oz. 11 drs., but among merchants it is reckoned = 36 lbs. According to Nelkenbrecher, 100 lbs. Russian = 90·19 lbs. avoirdupois = 40·9 kilog. = 32·4 lbs. of Amsterdam = 84·444 of Hamburgh.

The principal measure for corn is the chetwert, divided into 4 osmins, 8 pajocks, 8 chetwericks, or 64 garnitz. The chetwert = 5·952 Winchester bushels. Hence, 100 chetwerts = 744 English quarters.

In liquid measure.	
11 Tscharky = 1 Krushkin.	3 Wedros = 1 Ankor.
8 Krushka = 1 Wedro.	6 Ankers = 1 Oxhoft.
40 Wedros = 1 Soroknwy.	2 Oxhoft = 1 Pipe.
The wedro = 3 1-4 English wine gallons.	In long measure.
13 1-3 Bottles = 1 Wedro.	15 Wershok = 1 Archeen.
	3 Archeen = 1 Sashen.
	500 Sashens = 1 Verst.

1 sashen = 7 English feet; 1 archeen = 28 English inches. 100 Russian feet = 114 1-2 English feet. The verst, or Russian mile = 3 furlongs 12 poles. The English inch and foot are used throughout Russia, chiefly, however, in the measuring of timber.—(Kelly's *Cambist*, art. *Russia*; *Nelkenbrecher, Manuel Universel.*)

In fixing freight to England, a ton is 63 poods of hemp, flax, tallow, iron, copper, and ashes; 44 poods of bristles, isinglass, lamb's wool, and wax; 5 dozen of deals; 2,500 bare skins; 8 chetwerts of wheat or linseed; and 60 pieces of sail-cloth.

The following regulations for the importation of foreign goods are strictly enforced:

All goods imported must be accompanied by the following documents:—

1. The declaration of the captain, according to the form ordered by the Custom-house.

2. An attestation from the Russian consul, and where there is no consul, from the Custom-house of the place, of the quantity and quality of the goods, and a declaration that they are not the produce, manufacture, or property of an enemy's country.

3. Bills of lading of all goods, in which the weight, measure, or quantity of each package must be specified. In case the bills of lading are not exactly after this regulation, the goods pay double duty as a fine. In case more is found than specified in the bill of lading, the surplus is confiscated; if less is found, the duty must be paid on the quantity specified. Of wines, it is not sufficient to specify the number of pipes or hogsheads only, but also their contents in pails, &c. Of lemons, the number in each box must be specified. Of manufactured goods, the measure of each piece must be specified, as the number of pieces in each bale. It is indifferent whether the gross or the nett weight be specified. If the packages be all of the same weight, measure, or contents, a general specification will do as for example, 100 casks alum, of 17 lispound each. Of dye wood, the weight of the whole need only be mentioned. Of goods of small bulk, as pepper, &c., it is sufficient to state the weight of every 5 or 10 bales, but with specification of the numbers. There must not be any erasures or blots in the bill of lading. All goods not accompanied by these documents, or where the documents are not according to the above regulations, will be sent back.

Bills of lading may be made out either to some house, or to order.

The following charges have been fixed by the merchants of Petersburgh:—

	Per cent.
Commission on sales and purchases	2
Extra charges on all goods	1
Commission and extra charges for goods delivered up	3
Brokerage on sales and purchases	1-2
Ditto on bills	1-4
Ditto on freight, per ton, 60 copecks.	
Stamps	3-8

	Per cent.
Charges on duty, paid inwards	4
Ditto, paid outwards	4
Commission for collecting freight, or average inwards	3
Commission for procuring freight outwards	2
For clearances, 40 roubles.	

Dues to be paid to the church, 15 roubles each vessel.

Clearing of ships, of or under	
25 lasts each,	40 roubles each vessel.
25 to 50 do.	60 —
50 — 75 -	80 —
75 — 100 -	100 —
100 — 150 -	150 —
150 or above,	200 —

Ture on Goods exported, as fixed by the Custom-house.

Dry Goods.	Per cent.
In barrels or chests	10
In sacks	2
In mats, or sacks made of mats	3
Except Moscovy leather, of which is deducted	5

Moist Goods.	Per cent.
Pressed caviare	15
Soap	2
Meat and salt fish	20
Tallow	10

Moist Goods.	Per cent.
Honey	4
Treacle	4
All other moist goods	8

Ture on Goods Imported.

Dry Goods.	Per cent.
In barrels or chests	10
In vessels of glass or earthenware	20
In mats	3

Dry Goods.	Per cent.
In double sacks	4
In mats	3

Dry Goods.	Per cent.
In sacks and mats together	4
In baskets	5

Most Goods imported.—The following are some of the tares specified in the tariff:—

Olive oil in casks	17 per cent.
of Italy, in flasks and straw	30 —
of France, in flasks and earthenware	40 —
Oil in barrels	35 —
generally on all sealed goods in barrels	17 —
in glass and earthenware	30 —
Mediterranean Goods.	
Grain twice in bales	6 —
in sheets and barrels	15 —
Cochineal must be weighed in the sacks after being taken from the casks; for every sack of from 4 to 7 poods	2 lbs.
sacks of from 2 to 3 1-2 poods	1 —
Indigo in serons; every seron of from 5 1-2 to 7 poods	24 —
in 1-2 serons, 3 1-2 to 4 poods	30 —
of Guatemala	20 per cent.
in boxes	30 —

Bills drawn in Russia, and payable after date, are allowed 10 days' grace: but if payable at sight, 3 days only: Sundays and holidays are included in both cases. The Julian calendar, or old style, is still retained throughout Russia. This is twelve days later than the new style; and in leap-years, 13 days, after the month of February.

Port Charges payable on British Ships at the Port of Petersburgh.

Last . { from / to	. / 30	31 / 40	41 / 50	51 / 60	61 / 70	71 / 80	81 / 90	91 / 100	101 / 110	111 / 120	121 / 130	131 / 140	141 / 150	151 / 160	161 / 170	171 / 180	181 / 190	191 / 200	201 / 210	211 / 220	221 / 230	231 / 240	241 / 250	251 / 260
		R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.
Lodge . .		12	16	20	24	28	32	36	40	44	48	52	56	60	64	68	72	76	80	84	88	92	96	100	104	108
Pass . .		60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
Clearing pass in Cronstadt . .		10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Address money . .		40	50	50	50	60	60	60	70	70	70	80	80	80	90	100	100	110	110	120	120	130	130	140	140	150
Church . .		15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75	80	85	90	95	100	105	110	115	120	125	130	135
Cronstadt church .		5	7	9	11	13	14	16	17	19	21	23	24	26	28	29	31	33	34	36	38	40	41	43	45	46
Ins. expedition .		30	35	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75	80	85	90	95	100	105	110	115	120	125	130	135	140
Company's agent .		6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30	32	34	36	38	40	42	44	46	48	50	52	54
Total .	Roubles	168	196	214	252	259	277	294	323	340	356	386	403	431	449	476	494	522	550	587	605	613	630	648	676	704

Ships cleared out from Petersburgh during the Nine Years ending with 1833.

Years.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.
Flags.	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	*Ships.*
British . .	801	483	752	749	851	755	910	710	696
American . .	76	57	64	66	62	46	58	69	66
Other nations . .	411	405	415	475	605	634	630	602	481
Total . .	1,288	945	1,232	1,290	1,498	1,435	1,598	1,381	1,239

The trade of Petersburgh is exhibited in the following Tables:—

I. Official Statement of the Trade of Petersburgh in 1833.

Imports.			Exports.			Total.
Principal Articles.	Duty paid.		Principal Articles.	Duty paid.		Valuation.
	Quantity.	Value.		Quantity.	Value.	
	Poods. lbs.	*Roubles. c.*		*Poods. lbs.*	*Roubles. c.*	*Roubles. c.*
Gold and silver .	. .	97,581,954 95	Hemp . .	1,890,334 10	16,067,008 91	
Cotton twist .	476,584 0	39,235,804 45	Flax . .	247,511 22	2,133,254 36	
raw .	31,731 16	2,127,491 0	Potashes . .	464,873 5	2,917,415 20	
Silks . .	104,967 25	4,829,616 52	Tallow . .	4,669,926 27	41,761,031 91	
Wool, raw .	1,373,315 6	23,914,482 23	candles .	36,607 32	498,967 32	
Yarn . .	13,441 25	561,745 25	Leather, unwrought	96,189 18	2,005,279 56	
Cotton manufactures .	1,707 23	3,962,569 0	Juffs . .	32,009 16	1,283,191 70	
Woollen do. .	10,913 22	6,163,212 50	Iron . .	867,723 3	5,481,721 68	
Cotton do. .	10,497 4	3,521,841 90	Copper . .	218,808 10	3,366 879 0	
Linen do. .	309 25	466,515 0	Bristles . .	60,328 0	5,626,655 94	
Wine in casks .	111,136 0	5,529,925 25	Cordage and cables	511,488 14	1,961,148 68	
in bottles .	395,806 0	2,230,324 60	Linseed . .	205,736 0	2,066,195 0	
Spirituous liquors .	6,914 0	788,629 50	Grain . .	17,015 0	473,495 99	
Apothecaries' drugs .	. .	1,534,476 45	Other articles .	. .	19,560,705 77	
Other articles .	. .	40,410,926 84				
Total . .	. .	169,148,853 94	Total . .	. .	116,954,950 29	286,103,804 13
Of the above were entered by Russian merchants .	. .	129,565,180 88	. .	. .	71,395,444 67	200,960,625 55
by foreign guests .	. .	39,172,525 42	. .	. .	45,063,812 73	84,236,338 15
by passengers and captains .	. .	411,197 54	. .	. .	495,693 89	906,890 43
Value of exports fell short of that of imports . .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	68,186,903 55
In 1832 they amounted to . .	. .	156,976,657 80	. .	. .	118,543,825 82	
In 1833 they increased by . .	. .	12,172,196 4	. .	. .	8,411,124 47	

Official Account of the Values of the Imports into and Exports from Petersburgh, with the Produce of the Custom Duty thereon, in each Year since 1800.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Duties.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Duties.
	Roubles.	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*		*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*
1800	20,070,935	32,255,254	4,931,506	1817	118,743,838	100,704,113	20,986,305
1801	27,074,118	31,110,996	5,684,229	1818	151,258,904	100,675,732	23,163,991
1802	24,735,783	30,693,561	6,312,509	1819	111,106,315	84,998,642	20,623,839
1803	22,846,472	31,893,082	7,079,395	1820	168,256,897	105,085,920	29,747,994
1804	21,006,478	29,565,661	6,972,520	1821	135,420,718	100,631,673	25,707,705
1805	20,478,047	30,151,653	6,085,228	1822	104,166,738	97,932,400	21,656,056
1806	18,710,334	28,997,388	5,230,300	1823	105,969,720	104,070,396	22,386,579
1807	15,114,443	26,945,515	4,982,461	1824	120,423,890	97,729,518	27,012,661
1808	1,452,223	5,875,896	918,056	1825	115,164,068	121,174,898	30,056,764
1809	5,159,798	20,314,406	2,277,908	1826	120,188,634	91,591,514	31,633,413
1810	10,058,485	25,798,279	3,204,847	1827	126,666,415	116,794,217	34,503,723
1811	25,472,332	39,838,862	5,562,332	1828	131,480,572	107,207,647	36,658,514
1812	41,739,114	59,626,165	10,023,966	1829	149,135,403	107,428,928	41,184,831
1813	80,613,956	55,173,661	15,475,972	1830	144,999,905	111,255,171	37,597,566
1814	75,169,453	92,768,896	11,905,177	1831	150,303,541	115,958,678	43,118,367
1815	65,961,238	107,989,493	40,684,924	1832	156,976,657	113,543,825	48,267,378
1816	90,204,829	77,766,739	13,908,416	1833	169,148,853	116,954,950	50,098,914

Most Goods imported.—The following are some of the taxes specified in the tariff:—

Olive oil in casks	17 per cent.
of hops, in flasks and straw . .	20 —
of France, in flasks and earthenware .	40 —
Salt fish in barrels	33 —
Salt generally on all moist goods in barrels . .	17 —
in glass and earthenware . .	20 —
Miscellaneous Goods.	
Cotton twist in bales	6 —
in chests and barrels . . .	15 —

Cochineal must be weighed in the sacks after being taken from the sacks; for every sack of from 4 to 7 poods . . . . . 2 lbs.
sacks of from 8 to 9 1-2 poods . . 1 —
Indigo in serons; every seron of from 5 1-2 to 7 poods . . . . . 24 —
in 1-2 serons, 2 1-2 to 4 poods . . 20 —
of Guatemala . . . . . 20 per cent.
in boxes . . . . . 20 —

Bills drawn in Russia, and payable after date, are allowed 10 days' grace: but if payable at sight, 3 days only: Sundays and holidays are included in both cases. The Julian calendar, or old style, is still retained throughout Russia. This is twelve days later than the new style; and in leap-years, 13 days, after the month of February.

Port Charges payable on British Ships at the Port of Petersburgh.

Lasts	from	1	31	41	51	61	71	81	91	101	111	121	131	141	151	161	171	181	191	201	211	221	231	241	251	261
	to	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100	110	120	130	140	150	160	170	180	190	200	210	220	230	240	250	260	270
		R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.	R.
Ledger	.	12	16	20	24	28	32	36	40	44	48	52	56	60	64	68	72	76	80	84	88	92	96	100	104	108
Pass	.	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60	60
Clearing pass in Custom	.	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Admiralty stamp	.	40	50	50	50	60	60	60	70	70	70	80	80	80	90	100	100	110	110	120	130	130	130	140	140	150
Church	.	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75	80	85	90	95	100	105	110	115	120	125	130	135
Consulat church	.	5	7	9	11	13	14	16	17	19	21	23	24	26	28	29	31	33	34	36	38	40	42	43	45	46
Its expedition	.	30	35	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	65	70	75	80	85	90	95	100	105	110	115	120	125	130	135	140
Company's agent	.	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20	22	24	26	28	30	32	34	36	38	40	42	44	46	48	50	52	54
Total	. Roubles	168	196	214	232	259	277	293	322	340	359	386	408	431	448	476	494	522	539	567	585	613	630	658	676	703

Ships cleared out from Petersburgh during the Nine Years ending with 1833.

Years.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.
Flags.	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	*Ships.*
British . .	501	483	703	749	881	765	910	710	666
American . .	76	57	84	63	63	45	55	60	62
Other nations . .	411	405	415	475	606	634	650	602	491
Total . .	1,288	945	1,232	1,290	1,496	1,445	1,595	1,381	1,229

The trade of Petersburgh is exhibited in the following Tables:—

I. Official Statement of the Trade of Petersburgh in 1833.

Imports.		Exports.	
	Roubles.		Roubles.
Cotton wool . .	1,000,000	Tallow . .	1,000,000
Cotton twist . .	1,000,000	Hemp . .	1,000,000
Cotton goods . .	1,000,000	Flax . .	1,000,000
Woollen goods . .	1,000,000	Linseed . .	1,000,000
Silk goods . .	1,000,000	Hemp seed . .	1,000,000
Sugar . .	1,000,000	Oil cake . .	1,000,000
Coffee . .	1,000,000	Bristles . .	1,000,000
Tea . .	1,000,000	Hides . .	1,000,000
Wine . .	1,000,000	Leather . .	1,000,000
Fruit . .	1,000,000	Iron . .	1,000,000
Spices . .	1,000,000	Corn . .	1,000,000
Dye stuffs . .	1,000,000	Potash . .	1,000,000
Metals . .	1,000,000	Wax . .	1,000,000
Hardware . .	1,000,000	Caviare . .	1,000,000
Cutlery . .	1,000,000	Furs . .	1,000,000
Glass . .	1,000,000	Timber . .	1,000,000
Earthenware . .	1,000,000	Deals . .	1,000,000
Paper . .	1,000,000	Bark . .	1,000,000
Books . .	1,000,000	Miscellaneous . .	1,000,000
Miscellaneous . .	1,000,000		
Total . .	20,000,000	Total . .	20,000,000

III. Official List of Goods cleared for Exportation at the Petersburgh Custom-house, during the five Years ending with 1835.

Articles.		1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
Bristles, cut	poods	815	608	464	947	722	1,305
Oka'ka	—	2,776	4,580	5,764	6,613	3,627	4,554
1st sort	—	22,925	20,130	23,434	29,490	18,561	14,756
2d sort	—	16,898	16,115	13,165	11,440	9,782	10,295
Suchoi	—	18,074	15,619	15,071	11,635	10,317	10,417
all other	—	.	.	.	.	1,163	1,453
Cantharides	poods	670	921	594	832	688	915
Castoreum: Russia	lbs.	.	.	.	.	16	1,664
Caviar	poods	603	319	594	463	198	37
Copper	—	180,581	77,7[illegible]3	[illegible]3	212,586	291,120	140
Cordage, new	—	55,951	34,129	[illegible]	189,560	99,640	109,625
old	—	56,036	55,635	42,325	61,307	109,958	69,577
Down, alder	lbs.	.	156	14	.	181	67,262
goose	poods	183	41	224	221	1,263	15
goats'	—	5,414	590	3,887	4,160	1,498	82
Feathers	—	9,281	10,791	18,505	24,077	35,508	3,715
Flax, 12 head	—	126,519	10,656	20,507	7,521	5,702	51,750
9 head	—	252,925	103,211	265,923	137,164	180,546	97
6 head	—	125,149	59,230	185,075	102,928	107,201	85,752
codilla	—	94,853	123 089	59,031	106,139	78,400	70,010
yarn	—	18,966	17,3[illegible]	16,857	9,962	13,380	60,106
Furs: Ermine	pieces	2	4	.	14	.	9,453
Squirrel	—	1,456	1,738	2,631	765	1,010	1,[illegible]
Galls	poods	469	486	894	154	.	1,[illegible]
Glue	—	1,690	4,596	4,124	3,112	1,561	1,[illegible]
Grain: Barley	chtwts.	1,513	6,507	.	.	.	.
Oats	—	8,609	79,198	.	10	.	.
Rye	—	125,094	175,649	59,800	2,926	4	.
Wheat	—	249,536	307,125	142,560	13,334	.	.
Gum, ammoniac	poods	81	178	29	23	.	2
galbanum	—	43	22	22	1	.	22
Hair, camel	—	7	.	23	10	279	.
goats'	—	1,038	186	76	.	418	1,[illegible]
ox and cow	—	2,176	.	.	496	4,705	5[illegible]
Hemp, clean	—	533,863	903,791	907,254	1,050,454	878,017	888,[illegible]
outshot	—	532,731	454,974	382,802	371,696	337,025	44,[illegible]
half-clean	—	303,716	281,315	547,013	568,183	679,725	887,[illegible]
codilla	—	26,032	56,499	46,526	11,319	26,527	18,[illegible]
yarn	—	191	.	242	1,832	2,101	4,[illegible]
Hides, raw, cow	—	71,965	95,924	107,462	65,136	116,597	71,[illegible]
horse	—	20,742	8,014	9,488	6,197	26,251	19,[illegible]
ox	—	27,044	41,046	14,900	3,597	10,808	20,[illegible]
red	—	22,908	14,197	19,494	30,049	26,038	9,[illegible]
white	—	1,290	2,501	2,521	1,047	3,533	2,[illegible]
black	—	26	96	63	12	27	3
dressed	pieces	285	150	5	728	44	27
Horse ma. es	poods	10,901	5,150	2,796	12,470	11,484	12,[illegible]
tails	—	6,496	5,129	5,053	11,585	8,960	3,[illegible]
Iron, in bars	—	656,783	901,611	1,205,756	858,316	630,445	796,[illegible]
blocks	—	2,223	1,452	1,775	4,898	1,345	1,[illegible]
sheets	—	1,856	19,395	26,304	64,521	13,813	6,[illegible]
old	—	22,133	20,800	29,947	20,575	40,334	28,[illegible]
Isinglass	—	3,176	4,303	3,963	3,619	3,713	3,[illegible]
Samovy	—	1,041	1,238	2,052	1,910	1,940	2,[illegible]
Liquorice	—	1,923	1,416	2,443	4,790	2,874	98
Manufactures: Ticns	pieces	65,327	76,125	61,802	66,121	62,673	67,[illegible]
Ravens-duck	—	43,506	46,497	36,897	76,465	66,461	8,[illegible]
Sail cloth	—	40,988	59,953	50,298	62,150	55,179	61,[illegible]
Diaper, broad	arsh.	1,465,229	2,315,866	1,262,950	1,762,430	2,048,548	2,77[illegible]
narrow	—	57,650	252,501	270,658	184,081	180,947	140,[illegible]
Linen, broad	—	60	70,025	110,458	67,261	2,062	.
narrow	—	.	1,000	112,500	.	3,000	19,[illegible]
Drillings	—	295,477	17,452	189,498	114,813	118,625	32,[illegible]
Crash	—	1,111,801	1,195,726	1,240,101	1,694,808	1,005,844	1,30[illegible]
Meal, rye	chtwts.	10,007	5,205	90	5	.	4[illegible]
wheat	—	2,055	1,720	226	201	98	2
Musk, Siberia	lbs.	.	.	.	.	174	3
Oil, aniseed	poods	57	19	39	.	.	1
hemp-seed	—	490,527	158,423	249,829	202,168	260,332	89,[illegible]
linseed	—	582	1,794	3,695	356	592	19
Potashes	—	636,287	681,560	408,994	464,873	367,771	34,[illegible]
Quills	1,000	19,507	27,221	35,776	56,757	67,773	14,[illegible]
Rhubarb	poods	482	531	158	335	223	16
Seeds: Aniseed	—	2,052	3,801	2,981	3,344	1,458	1,[illegible]
Cumin-seed	—	2,295	921	2,999	6,559	3,803	1,[illegible]
Hemp seed	chtwts.	727	570	123	135	40	5
Linseed	—	181,242	212,619	151,193	156,222	145,791	97,[illegible]
Worm-seed	poods	567	410	1,021	1,638	1,567	73
Skins: Calf	—	5,003	6,029	1,474	23,215	20,277	1,77[illegible]
dressed	pieces	696	273	1,125	1,230	3,381	1,[illegible]
Badger	—	1,655	2,528	711	401	1,045	88
Cat	—	968	2,330	961	1,604	900	1,[illegible]
Ermine	—	54,580	14,980	2,190	16,767	55,190	48,[illegible]
Hare, gray	—	106,589	1,000	21,246	95,370	57,690	71,[illegible]
white	—	60,940	118,980	93,640	408,667	655,351	94,[illegible]
Sable	—	256	98	3,340	518	1,[illegible]	1,[illegible]
Squirrel	—	148,744	280,500	428,945	884,016	518,199	888,[illegible]
Soap	poods	5,956	5,982	7,131	7,695	1,675	1,[illegible]
Sole leather	—	2,978	5,346	3,366	911	878	42
Squirrel tails	pieces	1,705,380	2,143,640	1,915,600	1,500,310	1,295,410	99,[illegible]
Tallow	poods	5,979,239	5,518,140	5,717,416	4,068,938	5,721,224	1,01[illegible]
candles	—	26,545	23,148	31,077	36,607	19,138	11,[illegible]
Wax, white	—	6,514	5,084	5,690	6,711	106	1
yellow	—	6,994	8,428	1,058	2,490	706	88
candles	—	279	233	298	211	181	71
Woods: Battens	pieces	82,930	174,386	115,848	90,294	81,109	28,[illegible]
Beams	—	11	.	151	10	14	10
Deals	—	998,000	857,394	814,319	808,640	754,866	97,[illegible]
Lathwood	—	83 987	84,824	154,065	57,635	98,942	10,[illegible]
Wool, Sheep	poods	3,164	26,888	34,711	25,979	36,875	42,[illegible]
woollen yarn	—	724	904	1,019	2,961	2,485	1,[illegible]
Sundry goods, per value	roub.	1,421,699	995,243	1,087,718	1,032,498	1,859,071	1,39[illegible]
Total value	Roub.	111,256,17[illegible]	115,868,673	113,643,925	116,954,910	119,449,315	107,9[illegible]

The navigation opened in 1829 on the 13th of April.
— 1830 — 20th —
— closed in 1832 — 14th of November.
— 1833 — 2d of December.

In 1833, the first ship arrived was American, on the 20th of April.
— — sailed — Prussian — 7th of May.
— last arrived — Prussian — 5th of No[illegible]
— — sailed — British — 7th [illegible]

IV. Account of the Quantities of the Principal Articles of Foreign Produce imported into Petersburgh in each of the Four Years ending with 1835.

Articles.		1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	Articles.		1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
Aloes	poods	15,338	63,814	25,06	53,494	Pepper	poods	5,642	8,642	9,360	7,870
Almonds	—	17,767	10,190	9,792	12,781	Pimento	—	2,004	690	841	164
Annatto	—	1,443	330	613	1,394	Porter	hhds.	563	735	667	675
Arrack	ankers	559	931	696	214	Do.	bottles	4,840	2,100	5,760	4,765
Brandy	poods	22,083	104,986	60,799	151,271	Quercitron bark	poods	17,975	6,587	4,270	27,176
Brimstone	—	2,118	2,595	556	193	Quicksilver	—	1,618	1,052	1,457	1,157
Camphor	—					Rice	—	25,509	49,520	21,425	31,610
Cinnamon and cassia	—	1,995	1,458	252	874	Rum	ankers	7,289	7,637	7,144	5,723
lignea	—	734	316	350	15	Safflower	poods	2,021	3,969	1,786	3,101
Cloves	—	1,661	3,788	2,436	3,312	Saffron	lbs.	774	1,107	579	627
Cloves, dead	—	3,096	1,165	84	1,254	Sago	poods	232	240	330	74
Cocoa or chocolate nuts	—	101,260	111,238	94,728	78,328	Sal ammoniac	—	2,801	3,124	1,649	2,225
Coffee	—	70,168	84,742	110,798	167,962	Salt	—	390,791	666,411	428,350	343,440
Cotton, raw	—					Sarsaparilla	—	3,314	5,345	4,679	6,236
Cotton goods, viz.	—					Shumac	—	23,129	19,116	10,422	10,129
Cambrics	pieces	155,082	99,210	44,899	105,818	Skins, bear	pieces	1,518	981	189	213
Muslins and lenos	—					raccoon	—	50,394	45,612	19,185	43,230
Nankeens	—	43,081	23,754	23,237	26,610	Sugar, raw, Brazil	poods	21,697	23,405	47,494	7,344
printed	—	2,857	15,190	3,498	4,929	Do. Havannah	—	1,357,728	1,363,167	1,179,837	1,045,921
Velverets & velvets	—	1,319	3,321	3,639	7,668	Do. all other kinds	—	6,621	484	450	18,417
Fruit: Lemons	boxes	19,241	27,858	23,631	25,744	Tin	—	23,980	29,084	19,818	15,908
Oranges, sweet	—	20,214	42,561	33,996	52,549	Twist, dyed	—	23,849	20,495	10,393	4,427
Do. bitter	—	806	207	603	1,111	undyed	—	541,014	532,654	441,916	575,512
Raisins	poods	3,700	3,035	3,861	3,975	Wine, Champagne	bottles	376,587	423,927	353,441	329,051
Gum, Arabic and Senaal	—	10,959	5,909	4,574	9,530	French	hhds.	13,911	9,150	6,569	10,473
Benjamin	—	903	735	820	603	Port. and Span.	pipes	4,124	6,058	4,215	4,979
copal	—	951	1,189	2,074	3,483	Rhenish	ankers	1,365	1,031	1,00	967
gutt or gambage	—	170	157	97	51	Woods, Brazil, Nicholas, and St. Martha	poods	76,328	98,264	100,301	116,998
Hemp	—	5,398	6,121	9,521	11,962	dye, rasped	—	4,824	1,782	2,965	6,507
Indigo	—	20,726	24,953	23,985	22,787	fustic	—	6,411	54,234	104,868	52,178
Lead, in pigs	—	235,814	121,501	128,843	156,775	logwood	—	574,513	504,373	164,431	155,096
in sheets	—	10,987	17,568	12,566	16 420	mahogany	—	36,846	63,671	61,152	55,266
Madder	lbs.	437	249	863	3,716	Woollen goods, viz.					
Mats	poods	75,077	36,312	66,093	117,375	Camlets	pieces	27,744	25,753	24,618	21,143
Mother	—	14,731	21,873	16,413	19,562	Carpets	—	503	712	898	760
Mangrass	—	97	54	55	66	Cloth	—	7,097	2,952	2,705	2,454
Nutmegs	—					Kerseymere	—	816	521	508	411
Oil apothec. & ecomet. with the vermicelli	—	855	737	698	995	Ladies' cloth	—	2,356	996	365	178
mid and ordinary	—	125,532	110,073	149,003	122,308						

V. Official Statement of the Trade of the principal Russian Cities in 1830 and 1831.

Place.	Imports.		Exports.		Duties.	
	1830.	1831.	1830.	1831.	1830.	1831.
Petersburgh	131,943,177	160,303,541	111,255,172	115,958,678	37,597,867	43,116,367
Riva	207,642	209,570	715,740	339,406	No returns.	
Mitow	3,382,556	4,949,042	469,019	365,942	662,107	925,508
Revel	1,528,943	1,565,621	1,062,560	1,074,744	No returns.	
Hapsal	9,405	32,752	183,917	224,308	12,726	18,517
Kosik	23,329	61,935	54,270	57,041	1,944	18,580
Riga	15,85,599	14,125,895	45,069,132	56,267,269	7,491,643	7,196,061
Archangel	1,189,096	1,155,872	11,935,098	12,829,710	1,344,572	1,453,321
Odessa	23,450,121	21,169,121	27,031,960	20,061,913	3,641,075	3,520,851
Taganrog	4,528,854	5,410,552	8,385,647	8,403,298	1,387,123	1,936,457
Libau	562,543	564,318	5,455,589	5,765,115	648,127	449,078
Windau	39,708	65,454	461,344	463,498	No returns.	
Pernau	262,765	259,903	2,416,9 6	2,313,410	413,955	324,158
Arensburg	24,728	15,908	265,372	378,855	51,912	29,643
Baltischport	No returns.		No returns.		1,677,604	997,348

VI. Official Statement of the British and Foreign Shipping at the Port of Petersburgh, during the Year ending the 31st of December, 1833.

Of what Countries.	Wintered 1832.	Newly built.	Arrived in 1833.								Sailed.	Lastage.		Wintering.	
			Full Cargoes.	Part Goods.	In Ballast.	Total.	At the Ports		New Ships.			Of Ships arrived.	Of Ships sailed.	In Petersburgh.	In Cronstadt.
							Petersburgh.	Cronstadt.	Peters.	Cron.					
Great Britain	4		372	32	290	694	30	664			696	72,164	72,107 1-2		2
America			58	1	3	62	1	61			62	9,223-4	9,223-4		
Prussia			16		1	17	11	6			17	1,176 1-2	1,176 1-2		
Hamburgh			7	1		8	4	4			8	325 1-2	325 1-2		
Hanover			15	2	14	31	30	1			30	1,461 1-2	1,421 1-2	1	
Russia			2			2		2			2	218	218		
Holland	3		25	2	11	38	34	4		3	34	1,877	1,670	4	
Denmark			26	14	9	49	29	20			47	2,255	2 191	1	1
Lubeck	9		38	5		43	31	12			46	2,412 1-2	2,626	6	
Mecklenburg			5		2	7	7				7	293 1-2	293 1-2		
Naples			2			2		2			2	219	219		
Norway			41	1		42	23	20			42	2,086	2,086		
Oldenburgh			7		1	8	7	1			7	306	274	1	
Prussia	7		51	10	16	77	61	16			85	4,432	4,7943 4		1
Portugal			1			1		1			1	129 1-2	129 1-2		
Sardinia	4	7	25	10	8	52	16	26	10		49	11,163 3-4	10,748	1	4
Saxe	1		4		1	5	5				5	254 1 4	254 1-2		
Sardinia			1			1		1			1	140	140		
Sweden	8		37	4	14	57	20	35			57	4,099	4,208		
Turkey			31	3	10	44	31	13			44	1,994	1,994		
Total	33	7	754	94	380	1,238*	339	899	10	3	1,339	116,089 1-2	115,9671-2	14	8
1832						1,404					1,381				
1833 a decrease of						166					124				

Remarks on Tables.—It would appear from the above Tables, that the trade of Petersburgh has increased with extraordinary rapidity since 1812. But though its increase since that epoch has been very considerable, it has not been by any means so great as might be inferred from the previous statements.

* Of these, 155 ships brought coals.

The reason is, that the returns are all made in *paper* roubles; and that they have borne a much lower value, as compared with silver, since 1812, than they did previously. Since 1826, however, the value of the paper rouble has been pretty constant; and in the interval there has been a considerable increase of trade. We have no doubt, indeed, that the commerce of Russia is yet only in its infancy; and that it will continue to increase according as the increase of population and the slow but gradual progress of civilisation develope the gigantic resources of this great country. It is reasonable, we suppose that this developement will be accelerated by the adoption of a more liberal system of commercial policy.

Trade and Navigation of the Russian Empire in 1834.

Account of the Total Values, as per Price Currents, of the different Articles exported from Russia to Foreign Countries in 1834, and of those imported by her from the same; specifying the Exports to and Imports from each Country.

Countries.	Exports.	Imports.	Countries.	Exports.	Imports.	Countries.	Exports.	Imports.
	Roubles.	*Roubles.*		*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*		*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*
Sweden	3,481,423	3,586,108	Great Britain	105,177,812	63,536,295	Turkey	16,516,563	18,4[illegible]
Prussia	12,722,448	10,451,597	France	10,971,770	12,530,647	Asia	17,496,149	21,253,[illegible]
Denmark	6,259,431	2,486,632	Spain and Portugal	1,098,565	4,507,750	America	10,673,248	21,210,254
Elsinore	1,432,089		Italy	3,821,476	4,151,319	Other places	2,719,681	294,626
Hanse Towns	5,314,812	27,871,719	Austria	10,542,500	11,158,752	Total	217,322,448	214,234,[illegible]
Holland	6,962,937	6,205,155						

General View of the Foreign Trade of the Russian Empire in 1834.

Exports.	By European Frontiers.	By Asiatic Frontiers.	Total.	Imports.	By European Frontiers.	By Asiatic Frontiers.	Total.
	Roubles.	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*		*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*
Articles for consumption	6,636,951	1,159,366	7,796,317	Articles for consumption	66,457,313	7,902,731	74,[illegible]
— manufactures	170,023,836	3,990,250	174,014,186	— manufactures	92,987,617	3,147,235	96,[illegible]
— manufactured	13,901,286	8,407,755	22,309,023	— manufactured	26,978,001	5,694,142	32,[illegible]
Sundries	7,264,343	3,986,777	11,203,020	Sundries	6,318,523	5,049,989	11,[illegible]
Gold and silver	8,192,458	453,985	8,646,389	Gold and silver	18,990,898	1,085,201	19,[illegible]
				Confiscated goods	451,848	36,277	488,[illegible]
Value per price currents	208,018,786	17,950,053	225,968,839	Value per price currents	211,834,220	22,954,634	234,[illegible]
Excess of imports			6,920,015				
Value per declarations	222,441,648	17,950,053	240,391,701	Value per declarations	243,464,584	22,954,634	266,[illegible]
Excess of imports			25,027,817				
Average value	215,230,217	17,950,053	233,180,270	Average value	227,149,552	22,954,634	250,[illegible]
Excess of imports			16,923,916	Excess of exports			11,[illegible]

Account of Ships arrived in the different Ports of the Russian Empire in 1832.

Arrived at	From	Russ. Port.	Gt. Britain.	Sweden.	Prussia.	Denmark.	Holland.	Hanse-towns.	Germany.	France.	Spain.	Portugal.	Italy.	Austria.	Malta.	Ionian Isles	Morea.	Greece.	Turkey.	Persia.	Mauritius.	India.	Egypt.	Africa.	Azores.	Canaries.	Total.
Cronstadt and Petersburgh		8	581	93	139	68	108	129	25	135	13	7	15	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	56	1	3	4	16	1,6[illegible]
Narva		6	34	33	1	1	16	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Revel		1	14	19	2	7	19	9	7	3	-	2	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Kunda		-	1	1	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Rapsal		1	[illegible]	2	1	3	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Riga		6	341	156	101	185	204	112	119	91	2	19	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	1,[illegible]
Arensburg		-	3	4	-	-	7	1	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Pernau		-	16	18	9	13	20	6	8	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Libau		-	18	54	87	32	34	9	23	9	1	12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Windau		-	3	10	9	13	8	7	3	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Total Baltic Sea		21	1,017	356	299	372	660	273	191	249	15	43	20	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	59	1	3	4	16	3,0[illegible]
Archangel		-	233	105	2	3	69	32	1	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	[illegible]
Onega		-	14	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Total White Sea		-	247	105	2	3	70	32	1	11	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	[illegible]
Odessa		-	30	1	-	-	1	-	-	103	3	-	182	60	46	12	1	10	126	-	-	43	10	-	-	-	[illegible]
Theodosia		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	85	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Taganrog		1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	19	2	1	1	-	-	294	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Kertch		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	136	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Eupatoria		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	81	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Ismael		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	171	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Anapa		-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Redoutkale		12	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Total Black Sea		13	30	1	-	-	1	-	-	103	3	-	201	62	47	13	1	10	908	-	-	43	10	-	-	-	[illegible]
Astrakhan		29	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	8	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Baku		95	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	62	-	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Total Caspian Sea		124	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	69	8	-	-	-	-	-	[illegible]
Grand total		158	1,294	462	301	375	731	305	192	343	18	43	221	65	47	13	1	10	908	69	8	58	44	13	4	17	[illegible]

In compiling this article, we have consulted *Storch's Picture of Petersburgh*, c. 9.; *Schnitzler, Essai d'une Statistique Générale de la Russie*, pp. 133—157.; *Ricard, Traité Général du Commerce*, ed. 18[illegible] tom. ii. pp. 268—317.; *Tooke's View of Russia*, book 12.; *Coxe's Travels in the North of Europe*, 5th ed. vol. iii. pp. 282—358. &c.; *Oddy's European Commerce*, p. 69.; *Returns* from the Consuls at Petersburgh and Odessa; but we have derived our principal information from the *private communications* of eminent Russian merchants.

(*Law as to Ships' Stores and Provisions in Petersburgh and other Russian Ports.*—Much inconvenience having arisen to shipmasters in Russian ports, from their not attending to the following regulations as to stores, &c., they are subjoined for their information:—

Shipmasters arriving in ports of the Baltic from beyond the Sound, or in the ports of the Black and Azoff seas from beyond the Dardanelles, are allowed to pass for the use of their crews for each man of the same, including the shipmaster—

Spirituous liquors, 2 ankers, 14 gallons; beer or porter, 3 gallons: wine, 1 gallon: coffee, 10 lbs. Russian weight: tea, 1½ lb. Russian weight: sugar, 40 lbs. Russian weight, 36 lbs. English.

Duty is to be paid on any overplus found on board the vessels, if such goods be admitted to duty.

Note—If the overplus be entered, it is not confiscated: if not, it is confiscated, and a fine levied of *five times the duty on admissible goods, and twice the sale value on prohibited goods.*

Account of the Quantity and Value of the different Articles of Russian Produce, shipped at Petersburgh for Great Britain, during each of the Five Years ending with 1835.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 587. Sess. 1836.)

Articles.	1831.		1832.		1833.		1834.		1835.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Poods.	*Roubles.*	*Poods.*	*Roubles.*	*Poods.*	*Roubles.*	*Poods.*	*Roubles.*	*Poods.*	*Roubles.*
Tallow	3,039,166	33,100,928	3,288,647	35,933,117	3,616,849	40,225,239	3,438,536	37,834,896	2,380,089	26,180,979
Hemp	1,175,138	7,050,828	1,137,469	6,944,814	1,295,886	7,777,316	1,246,111	7,462,666	1,319,451	7,9 6,706
Flax	311,343	3,013,430	499,541	4,995,410	341,182	3,411,820	341,402	3,414,020	210,131	2,101,310
Potashes	145,720	1,149,760	10,201	81 608	19,551	156,408	21,621	172,968	15,786	126,288
Bristles	66,156	4,492,480	33,827	2,706,160	44,407	3,552,560	37,077	2,966,160	32,180	2,574,400
Isinglass	4,654	1,628,900	4,874	1,705,900	4,530	1,585,500	2,504	876,400	4,141	1,452,850
Hides	96,113	1,291,695	100,532	1,506,280	90,629	1,361,435	194,788	2,921,820	102,292	1,534,380
Wools	5,329	177,970	14,514	430,340	33,934	9 9,120	29,873	896,190	28,966	869,980
Iron	338,071	1,940,355	350,879	1,753,395	304,165	1,320,775	111,141	555,705	216,326	1,081,630
Linseed	Chests. 2 0,934	6,028,020	122,625	3,676,750	125,183	3,755,490	108,705	3,261,150	139,057	4,171,710
Lathwood	Pieces. 4 9,833	114,971	606,084	154,521	449,329	112,331	408,778	120,194	473,100	118,275
Deals	Pieces. 2,255,531	2,255,531	1,906,011	1,906,011	2,175,032	2,175,032	2,457,938	2.457,938	2,049,567	2,049,567
Total value		62,444,766		61,798,368		66,432 026		62,933,184		50,174,084
Or in sterling	*L.*	2,714,986	*L.*	2,686,835	*L.*	2,888.349	*L.*	2,736,225	*L.*	2,191,482

Sup.)

PEWTER (Ger. *Zinn, Zinngeisserzinn*; Fr. *Etain*; It. *Stagno*; Sp. *Estano, Peltre*; Rus. *Olowo*), a factitious metal used in making plates, dishes, and other domestic utensils. It is a compound, the basis of which is tin. The best sort consists of tin alloyed with about 1-20th or less of copper, or other metallic bodies, as the experience of the workmen has shown to be most conducive to the improvement of its hardness and colour, such as lead, zinc, bismuth, and antimony. There are 3 sorts of pewter, distinguished by the names of plate, trifle, and ley-pewter. The 1st was formerly much used for plate and dishes; of the 2d are made the pints, quarts, and other measures for beer; and of the ley-pewter, wine measures and large measures.—(*Ure.*)

PHILADELPHIA, a large city and sea-port of the United States, in Pennsylvania, near the confluence of the rivers Delaware and Schuylkill, in lat. 39° 57′ N., lon. 75° 10′ W. Population, in 1830, 168,000.

Harbour, Light-houses, Pilotage, &c.—Vessels of the largest burden ascend the river as far as Newcastle, but those drawing above 18 or 20 feet water cannot reach Philadelphia, on account of a bar a little below the city. The entrance to the magnificent bay formed by the embouchure of the Delaware has Cape May on its north, and Cape Henlopen on its south side. The former in lat. 38° 57′ N., lon. 75° 47′ 45″ W., is a sandy headland, rising about 12 feet above the level of the sea. It has recently been surmounted by a light-house, 60 feet in height. The light revolves once a minute; an eclipse of 50 seconds being succeeded by a brilliant flash of 10 seconds. It is seen in clear weather from 20 to 25 miles off. Cape Henlopen, marking the southern boundary of the bay, is in lat. 38° 47′ N., lon. 75° 4′ 25″ W. A little south from it is a hill, elevated about 60 feet above the level of the sea: and on it is erected a light-house, 72 feet in height, furnished with a powerful *fixed* light, visible in clear weather 10 leagues off. To the N. of this principal light, and close to the extremity of the cape, a second light-house has been constructed, 36 feet above the level of the sea, which is also furnished with a *fixed* light, which may be seen at about 6 leagues off. The channel for large ships is between Cape Henlopen and the banks called the Overfalls. The navigation is, however, a little difficult, and it is compulsory on ships to take pilots. The latter frequently board them at sea: but if not, as soon as a ship comes between the capes, she must hoist the signal for a pilot, and heave to as soon as one offers to come on board.—(*Coulier sur les Phares*, 2d ed. See *post*, for regulations as to pilotage.)

Trade.—The exports principally consist of wheat and wheat flour, Indian corn, and other agricultural products, lumber, coal and iron, various species of manufactured goods, &c. The principal imports are cotton, woollen, and silk goods: sugar, coffee and tea, wines, spices, &c. In point of shipping, Philadelphia is the third port of the United States: being in this respect inferior only to New York and Boston. The registered, enrolled, and licensed tonnage belonging to Philadelphia, in 1832, amounted to 79,968 tons, of which 27,214 were employed in the coasting trade. The total value of the articles imported into Pennsylvania, in the year ended the 30th of September, 1832, was 10,678,358 dollars: the total value of the exports during the same year being 3,516,066 dollars.

Banks.—There were, in 1830, in Philadelphia, 12 joint stock banks, exclusive of the Bank of the United States. Allowing for the share of the capital of the latter employed in banking speculations in the city, the total capital engaged in bank business in Philadelphia that year may be taken at 10,667,000 dollars, on which a dividend accrued of 693,075 dollars, being at the rate of 6·497 per cent. The bank of the late Mr. Girard, being a private establishment, is not included in this estimate.—(Statement by J. H. Goddard, Esq., *New York Daily Advertiser*, 29th Jan. 1831.) None of the Philadelphia banks issue notes for less than 5 dollars. They all discount good bills, having 60 or 90 days to run, at 6 per cent. In Philadelphia the banks have been pretty successful; but in Pennsylvania, generally, there have been many failures.

Insurance.—There were, in Philadelphia, in 1830, 9 marine insurance companies, with an aggregate capital of 3,280,000 dollars: they divided amongst them, during the same year, 275,400 dollars, being at the rate of 8·396 per cent.

There were also, in 1830, 4 fire insurance companies in the city, having amongst them a capital of 2,600,000 dollars. Their dividends, during the year, were 90,000 dollars; but, as one of the companies, with a capital of 200,000 dollars, paid nothing, the dividends amounted to 6·429 per cent. on the producing capital.

In Pennsylvania, the dollar is worth 7*s.* 6*d.* currency; so that 1*l.* sterling = 1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* currency.—(See NEW YORK.)

Weights and Measures same as those of England.


PHILADELPHIA
Delaware River
Newcastle
Port Penn
Light House
Light
Light House
Fixed Light
Cape May
Fixed Light
Cape Henlopen
BAY
DELAWARE
75
39

Regulations of the Port.—If any master or captain of any ship or vessel, or other person, shall refuse or neglect to comply with the directions of the harbour master, in matters within the jurisdiction of his office, such person shall, for each and every such offence, severally forfeit and pay any sum not exceeding 100 dollars. And the said harbour master, shall in full compensation for his services be entitled to have, recover, and receive from the master, captain, owner, or consignee of each and every ship or vessel arriving at the port of Philadelphia (except vessels not exceeding the burden of 75 tons burden) the sum of 1 dollar for each and every voyage by such ship or vessel performed, and no more.

Every ship or vessel that may arrive in this harbour, and that shall come to anchor in the stream anywhere between Almond and Vine streets, having previously caused her gunpowder, if any she had on board, to be landed as the law directs, may remain in that situation 24 hours and no longer, taking care to lie as near to the island or mud bar as may be consistent with their safety. But if, from the circumstance of a vessel having servants on board, or from any other cause, it may be thought necessary or convenient to lie a longer time in the stream, then, and in every such case, the owner, master, pilot, or other person having the charge or direction of such vessel, shall remove her from opposite the city, and shall moor her or cause her to be moored, to the northward of Vine Street, with 1 anchor and cable up, and 1 anchor and cable down the stream: and in both the above-mentioned situations, the regulation contained in the next succeeding article to be duly attended to.

If any vessel properly moored in the stream shall have her anchor or cable overlaid by any other vessel in anchoring or mooring, the master or person having the care or direction of such last-mentioned vessel shall immediately, or as soon as may be after application made to him by the party aggrieved, cause the said anchor or cable so overlaying to be taken up and cleared. When any ship or vessel shall be hauled in to any wharf or dock, or alongside of another vessel, that may be lying at such wharf or dock, the owner, master, pilot, or whoever may have the command, care, or direction of her, shall have her securely made fast, and if outside of another vessel, shall get one good fast from each end of the vessel to the shore, with sufficient fenders between them and the inside vessel; and shall cause the fluke of their anchors to be taken in board; and, within 24 hours thereafter, cause her jibboom, spritsail yard, main boom, spanker and ringtail booms, if any they have, to be rigged in, and their lower yards topped up, in such a manner as least to interfere with vessels passing.

If the fasts of vessels when moored at a wharf shall extend across a dock, so as to obstruct the passing or repassing of shallops, lighter, or other craft or vessel, the master or other person having the command of such ship or vessel shall, upon the first application, immediately cause such fast or fasts to be cast off or slacked down.

No outward-bound vessel, putting off from a wharf, shall lie longer in the stream between Vine Street and Almond, in the district of Southwark, above mentioned, than 24 hours. And if vessels lying at the end of wharfs so much interlock with each other as to prevent vessels hauling in and out of docks, the master, owner, pilot, or other person having the charge of the same, shall, immediately on application from any person so wanting to haul his vessel in or out of docks aforesaid, have the vessel or vessels so interfering, moved in such a manner as to accommodate the one applied for; in which case the vessel making room for another to haul in or out shall have liberty to make her warps fast to the most convenient places adjacent, for a reasonable time; and all sea vessels, when transporting or wising to haul into a wharf or dock, or to make sail, in order to proceed to sea, shall have the same privilege.

When any ship or vessel may be lying alongside any wharf, and not taking in or discharging, she shall make way for and permit any vessel that wants to unload or load, to come inside, next the wharf, until she discharges or loads her cargo; and the said vessel, when so discharged or loaded, shall haul outside and give way to the vessel that first occupied the wharf; provided that, from the 10th of December to the 1st of March, no vessel be compelled to move from her berth (only those at Gloucester Point piers), excepting to let vessels in and out of docks.

No ship or vessel loading or discharging hemp at any wharf, or within any dock, shall be allowed to have any fire on board; neither shall any vessel lying outside or near her be permitted to have fire on board, while it may be considered dangerous. And no tar, turpentine, rosin, or pitch, shall be heated on the wharf, or on board any vessel lying at any wharf within the limits of the city.

Rates of Pilotage.—Inwards, up to 13 feet, at 2·67 dollars per foot; above 14 feet, at 3·33 dollars.

Outwards, up to 12 feet, at 2 dollars; above 12 feet, at 2·67 dollars.

Inwards.		Outwards.	
	Dolls. cts.		*Dolls. cts.*
5 feet is	13 33	5 feet is	10 0
5 1-2 —	14 67	5 1-2 —	11 0
6 —	16 0	6 —	12 0
6 1-2 —	17 33	6 1-2 —	13 0
7 —	18 67	7 —	14 0
7 1-2 —	20 0	7 1-2 —	15 0
8 —	21 33	8 —	16 0
8 1-2 —	22 67	8 1-2 —	17 0
9 —	24 0	9 —	18 0
9 1-2 —	25 33	9 1-2 —	19 0
10 —	26 67	10 —	20 0
10 1-2 —	28 0	10 1-2 —	21 0
11 —	29 33	11 —	22 0
11 1-2 —	30 67	11 1-2 —	23 0
12 —	32 0	12 —	24 0
12 1-2 —	33 67	12 1-2 —	25 33
13 —	35 33	13 —	26 67
13 1-2 —	37 0	13 1-2 —	28 0
14 —	38 67	14 —	29 33
14 1-2 —	40 33	14 1-2 —	30 67
15 —	42 0	15 —	32 0
15 1-2 —	43 67	15 1-2 —	33 33
16 —	45 33	16 —	34 67
16 1-2 —	47 0	16 1-2 —	36 0
17 —	48 67	17 —	37 33
17 1-2 —	50 33	17 1-2 —	38 67
18 —	52 0	18 —	40 0
18 1-2 —	53 67	18 1-2 —	41 33
19 —	55 33	19 —	42 67
19 1-2 —	57 0	19 1-2 —	44 0
20 —	58 67	20 —	45 33

Every vessel arriving from, or bound to, a foreign port, is required by law to receive a pilot, or to pay half pilotage in the warden's office, where the master of every such vessel is required, under the penalty of 10 dollars, to make a report within 36 hours after his arrival, and again before his departure, signing his name to said report in the warden's book.

Every vessel of 75 tons and upwards arriving from, or bound to, any port within the United States, and the master of all such vessels, are bound as above.

The pilot of every vessel is required to inform the master of his having to report at the warden's office.

As vessels obliged to receive a pilot are required to pay 10 dollars in addition, as winter pilotage, from the 20th of November to the 10th of March, both days inclusive.

Foreign vessels, *i. e.* French, Spanish, Portuguese, Neapolitan, Danish, Russian, South American, and Haytian, to pay 2 dollars 67 cents in addition to other pilotage.

Every pilot detained more than 24 hours by any master, owner, or consignee, is entitled to 2 dollars per day for every day he is so detained.

Every pilot detained more than 48 hours by the ice, after he has conducted his vessel to a place of safety, is entitled to 4 dollars per day for every day he is so detained.

Every pilot compelled to perform quarantine is entitled to 2 dollars per day, for every day he is so detained, and cannot be discharged in less than 6 days, without his consent.

Every pilot obliged by the ice or stress of weather to proceed to another port, is, when there, entitled to his pilotage; and if there discharged, to 8 cents a mile for every mile he has to travel home.

Every pilot is required, under a penalty of 12 dollars, to make report, within 48 hours, at the warden's office, of every vessel he conducts to the city.

Rates of Commission recommended for general Adoption, and allowed by the Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce, when no Agreement subsists to the contrary, established at a stated Meeting on the 10th of March, 1823.

	Foreign.	Domestic.	
	Per Cent.	*Per Cent.*	
Merchandise, sales	5	2 1-2	on gross amount.
Purchase and shipment, or accepting bills for purchases	2 1-2	2 1-2	on cost and charges.
Landing and re-shipping goods from vessels in distress	2 1-2	2 1-2	on current value.
Receiving and forwarding	1-2	1-2	on ditto.
Besides	2 1-2	2 1-2	on responsibilities incurred.
Vessels, sale or purchase	2 1-2	2 1-2	on gross amount.
Procuring freight or chartering to proceed to another port	2 1-2	2 1-2	on ditto.
Collecting freight or general average	2 1-2	2 1-2	on amount collected.
Paying outfits or disbursements	2 1-2	2 1-2	on aggregate amount.
Marine insurance, effecting, when the premium does not exceed 10 per cent.	1-2	1-2	on amount insured.
When the premium exceeds 10 per cent.	5	5	on amount of premium.
Adjusting and collecting losses without litigation	2 1-2	2 1-2	on amount recovered.
Fire insurances, effecting	5	5	on amount of premium.
Adjusting and collecting losses	1	1	on amount recovered.
Foreign and inland bills of exchange and notes of hand, drawing or indorsing and negotiating, in all cases	2 1-2	2 1-2	on the proceeds.
Purchase without indorsing	1-2	1-2	on cost and charges.
Sale ditto	1-2	1-2	on the proceeds.
Collecting	1-2	1-2	on amount collected.
Paying over the amount	1-2	1-2	on amount paid over.
Remitting	1-2	1-2	on amount remitted.
Public stocks, specie, bank notes, or drafts not current, sale	1-2		on proceeds.
Purchase	1-2	1-2	on cost and charges.
Collecting dividends on public stock	1-2	1-2	on amount collected.
Advances in money, or by coming under acceptance, in all cases	2 1-2	2 1-2	on amount advanced.
Accounts, collecting disputed or litigated accounts, or claims on insolvent estates	5	5	on amount recovered.
Monies, receiving, from which no other commission is derived	1-2	1-2	on amount received.
Paying ditto	1-2	1-2	on amount paid.
Paying and receiving ditto	1	1	on amount received.
Guarantee, in all cases	2 1-2	2 1-2	on the amount guaranteed.

On bills remitted for collection under protest for non-acceptance or non-payment, 1-2 commission to be charged

On consignment of merchandise withdrawn or re-shipped, full commission to be charged to the extent of advances or responsibilities incurred, and 1-2 commission on the current value of the residue.

On sales of merchandise originally consigned to another house, but withdrawn, and where no responsibilities are incurred, only 1-2 commission to be charged on the current value.

The current value in all cases to be settled by certificate of 2 respectable merchants, auctioneers, or brokers.

The above commissions to be exclusive of guarantee, brokerage, storage, and every other charge actually incurred.

The risk of loss by fire, unless insurance be ordered, and of robbery, theft, and other unavoidable occurrences, if the usual care is taken to secure the property, is, in all cases, to be borne by the proprietor of the goods.

[The following table exhibits the Number of Vessels which arrived in the port of Philadelphia from the 1st of January 1787, to the 1st of January, 1840.

Years.	Foreign.	Coastwise.	Total.
1787	596	390	986
1788	411	490	901
1789	324	376	700*
1790	639	715	1,354
1791	595	853	1,448
1792	-	-	- ††
1793	-	-	-
1794	618	1,250	1,868
1795	779	1,228	2,007
1796	858	1,011	1,869
1797	641	929	1,570
1798	459	1,002	1,461
1799	443	825	1,268
1800	536	1,051	1,587
1801	667	1,125	1,792
1802	653	1,106	1,759
1803	611	1,064	1,675
1804	498	1,292	1,790
1805	520	1,235	1,755
1806	704	1,213	1,917
1807	701	1,170	1,871
1808	208	1,951	2,249‡
1809	351	1,683	2,034
1810	405	1,477	1,882
1811	500	1,425	1,925
1812	323	1,549	1,872
1813	74	319	393 §§
1814	43	583	626
1815	487	1,113	1,600
1816	538	1,101	1,639
1817	532	1,238	1,770
1818	576	1,101	1,677
1819	450	1,046	1,496
1820	479	877	1,356
1821	441	913	1,354
1822	494	1,212	1,706
1823	482	1,018	1,500
1824	501	961	1,462
1825	484	1,195	1,679
1826	482	1,195	1,677
1827	469	1,320	1,789
1828	450	1,247	1,697
1829	374	2,210	2,584
1830	415	3,287	3,702‖
1831	396	3,262	3,658
1832	428	3,849	3,277
1833	474	2,573	3,047
1834	430	2,686	3,116
1835	429	3,573	4,002
1836	421	3,764	4,185
1837	409	7,776	8,185
1838	464	10,860	11,324
1839	521	11,188	11,709

The Arrivals in 1839, were

Ships	90	Colombian	2
Barques	37	Danish	2
Brigs	274	Dutch	1
Schooners	117	French	2
Galliot	1	Genoese	1
Mistico	1	Hamburg	2
Sloop	1	Haytien	2
		Portuguese	1
Total	521	Prussian	1
		Russian	2
Of these vessels there were 86 belonging to foreign ports, viz. :		Spanish	1
Austrian	2	Swedish	1
Bremen	9		
British	56	Total	86

Value of the Goods Imported into this port during the year 1837 and 1838, and three quarters of 1839.

In 1837,	$10,130,838
1838,	10,417,815
1839, (three quarters)	12,571,164

Showing an increase in the three quarters of this year, of $2,153,349, over the whole of 1838.

Duties accruing to the United States from Imports into this port during the fiscal year in 1838 and 1839.

1st quarter,	October 1st to December 31st, 1838,	$139,682 90
2d do.	January 1st to March 31st, 1839,	735,680 51
3d do.	April 1st to June 30th,	717,063 78
4th do.	July 1st to September 30th	1,078,695 77
	Total,	$2,971,122 97
In 1838 the amount was		1,917,108 80
Showing an increase of		1,054,014 17

Statement showing the Amount of Domestic Produce Exported from the port of Philadelphia, to Foreign Ports, from the 1st of January to the 30th of September, 1839.

Articles.			Value.	Articles.			Value.
Wheat flour,	bbls.	132,159	$969,882	Beef,	bbls	292	5,224
Rye do.	do.	20,796	101,056	Hides,	No.	365	
Corn meal,	do.	56,712	224,728	Tallow,	pounds	1,514	
Corn,	bush.	11,971	12,815	Pickled fish,	bbls.	1,368	7,387
Ship bread,	bbls.	14,068	85,204	Ginseng,	pounds	217,443	117,765
do.	kegs	16,214		Sperm & whale oil,	galls.	28,084	24,578
Rice,	tierces	449	13,177	Sperm candles,	pounds	31,860	13,811
Pork,	bbls.	1,082	65,319	Tallow candles	do.	74,985	60,792
Hams and bacon,	pounds	46,167		Soap,	do.	755,186	
Lard,	do.	300,694		Rosin & turpentine,	bbls.	14,486	43,301
Butter,	do.	61,690	11,259	Tar and pitch,	do.	926	
Cheese,	do.	8,895		White and coloured cotton goods,			160,959

* From the 1st of August to 31st December: no records previous part of the year.
† The documents for these two years lost or mislaid. ‡ Embargo.
§ War with Great Britain. ‖ Opening of the Chesapeake and Delaware Canal

Comparative Statement of the Value of Foreign and Domestic Goods exported from Philadelphia during the years 1837 and 1838, and the three quarters of 1839 ending September 30th.

	Foreign.	Domestic.
1837—First quarter,	$113,041	$383,732
Second do.	345,627	650,547
Third do.	488,180	786,677
Fourth do.	489,468	796,859
Total,	$1,436,316	$2,567,815
1838—First quarter,	$51,227	$282,702
Second do.	323,078	816,001
Third do.	131,835	585,981
Fourth do.	202,646	778,531
Total,	$708,786	$2,463,365
1839—First quarter,	$114,708	$881,662
Second do.	499,897	1,307,061
Third do.	334,023	1,180,907
Total,	$948,558	$3,369,630

RECAPITULATION.

Total value in 1837,	$4,004,131
— 1838,	3,172,051
— three quarters of 1839,	4,318,188

Comparative Statement of the Amount of Foreign Sugar Imported into the Port of Philadelphia for Five Years, from 1835 to 1839, inclusive. With the Quantity Exported during the same period for the benefit of Drawback.

1835. Months.	Barrels.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Bags.	Cases.	Java Cuskiers.
January	228	64	-	-	-	-
February	102	-	739	-	-	-
March	1,316	1,048	1,943	2,494	-	-
April	2,037	1,135	1,439	1,562	148	-
May	2,158	1,035	1,411	620	-	-
June	2,809	1,469	495	6,298	-	602
July	672	443	2,461	-	-	-
August	2,134	564	1,179	-	-	-
September	323	158	1,024	-	123	-
October	542	14	1,523	-	-	-
November	2,120	254	184	-	-	-
December	1,076	140	1,945	4,244	46	167
Total	16,408	6,424	14,286	15,218	317	859

1836.						
January	70	-	-	-	-	-
February	-	-	-	-	-	-
March	2,046	275	4,463	5,445	11	1705
April	911	1,093	119	-	-	-
May	3,537	905	2,288	469	-	-
June	4,033	1,500	3,440	280	-	2839
July	1,165	691	6,139	699	-	-
August	750	776	2,771	814	108	-
September	1,305	567	1,694	42	182	-
October	1,692	264	207	5,962	-	-
November	1,860	345	318	-	143	-
December	814	-	375	11	-	-
Total	18,183	6,416	21,824	13,723	534	4544

1837.						
January	-	-	-	-	-	-
February	193	-	979	2,408	-	-
March	3,010	237	6	3,450	-	-
April	3,392	599	653	4,640	-	-
May	2,369	2,240	570	-	-	-
June	1,538	330	106	-	-	-
July	769	744	1,728	326	50	-
August	4,127	435	101	-	-	-
September	1,585	335	416	2,530	-	-
October	793	355	6	-	-	-
November	80	8	559	785	-	2018
December	2,194	-	107	-	-	-
Total	19,080	5,323	5,433	14,139	50	2018

1838. Months.	Barrels.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Bags.	Cases.	Java Cuskiers.
January	269	9	404	-	-	-
February	123	-	5	-	-	-
March	2,078	858	8,012	10,735	36	-
April	2,266	1,832	423	-	-	-
May	2,605	1,112	1,455	107	-	-
June	1,759	1,637	2,434	-	-	-
July	1,668	1,429	401	309	-	-
August	4,658	963	1,978	-	16	-
September	2,786	522	720	20	-	-
October	4,437	547	261	-	-	-
November	1,736	6	1,081	2,866	-	-
December	3,537	135	52	3,375	-	130
Total	27,922	9,050	17,216	17,412	53	130

1839.						
January	444	-	1,250	51	-	-
February	339	171	4	-	-	-
March	1,788	1,814	3,079	3,259	-	-
April	3,326	1,398	2,096	1,798	-	-
May	3,575	1,895	330	-	-	-
June	1,413	1,188	1,858	401	-	-
July	1,330	2,602	3,593	4,909	117	-
August	3,778	1,080	1,813	-	-	-
September	3,067	723	203	154	-	-
October	2,706	318	867	-	-	-
November	1,592	93	676	3	-	-
December	101	111	1,093	-	-	-
Total	23,458	11,391	16,807	10,575	117	-

The Amount Exported during the same period for the benefit of drawback, has been as follows, viz.—

Exported in						
1835	167	10	-	-	-	-
1836	1,135	-	4,215	3,829	-	2839
1837	4,746	219	30	500	-	-
1838	403	-	2,805	1,447	-	-
1839	4,942	44	75	2,898	-	-

The gross weight of Refined Sugar, exported in 1839, for the benefit of bounty, was 214 tons, 13 cwt. 1 quar. and 10 lbs.

Comparative Statement of the Quantity of Coffee imported into Philadelphia from Foreign Ports, during the Five Years commencing with 1835 and ending with 1839.

Imported from	1835. Bags.	Hhds.	Tcs.	Bls.	1836. Bags.	Tcs.	Bls.	1837. Bags.	Hhds.	Bls.	1838. Bags.	Hhds.	Bls.	1839. Bags.	Hhds.	Tcs.	Bls.
Laguira	17,200	-	-	-	24,700	-	-	18,414	-	-	38,527	-	-	25,739	-	-	
Rio de Janeiro	12,882	-	-	-	56,108	-	-	36,837	-	-	45,309	-	-	46,476	-	-	1
St Domingo	12,216	-	-	-	2,784	-	-	4,488	-	-	12,578	-	-	2,801	-	-	-
Cuba	7,536	-	-	-	5,583	-	-	12,445	-	-	9,745	-	-	4,717	80	3	117
Porto Rico	2,537	-	-	-	1,968	-	-	1,484	-	-	1,567	-	-	498	-	-	10
Java	11,748	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	605	-	-	-	-	-	-
Maracaibo	1,808	-	-	-	2,736	-	-	2,309	-	-	3,122	-	-	3,788	-	-	-
Europe	96	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	103	-	-	-
All other places	5	47	21	424	-	3	46	-	-	136	470	744	138	109	769	18	-	27
Total	66,031	47	21	424	99,882	3	46	75,977	136	470	112,257	138	109	89,198	99	2	156

Comparative Statement of the Gross Amount of weighable Foreign Merchandise imported into Philadelphia during the Five Years commencing with 1835 and ending with 1839.

Names of Articles.	1835.				1836.				1837.				1838.				1839.			
	Tons.	Cwt.	Qrs.	Lbs.	Tons.	Cwt.	Qrs.	Lbs.	Tons.	Cwt.	Qrs.	Lbs.	Tons.	Cwt.	Qrs.	Lbs.	Tons.	Cwt.	Qrs.	Lbs.
Iron, railroad	1,586	2	2	9	6,099	14	-	10	4,682	2	-	4	5,880	9	-	9	6,085	16	1	15
Rod ad bar	1,104	5	-	3	1,445	1	3	25	1,884	5	2	20	2,102	3	-	14	3,654	11	3	6
Hammered, sheet, rod, and hoop	276	12	2	9	1,340	12	-	23	527	4	2	12	284	17	1	19	542	18	1	15
Pig	435	12	2	22	426	2	-	6	1,168	17	2	12	640	18	2	26	544	18	-	26
Old and scrap	60	6	-	8	83	1	-	8	31	18	-	27	5	9	2	22	5	8	1	1
Castings	23	18	-	5	44	1	1	22	56	19	3	11	56	3	3	10	111	6	2	26
Chain cables and anchors	59	15	2	20	40	1	-	13	18	7	2	8	26	11	-	6	48	14	2	8
Steel	232	9	1	27	279	-	2	10	252	17	2	9	197	9	1	12	241	7	-	18
Anvils	20	1	2	20	25	2	3	18	20	6	-	14	24	9	2	13	26	15	-	21
Nails and spikes	34	17	3	25	32	3	1	27	23	12	3	5	124	17	1	8	170	4	-	27
Hammers and sledges	4	19	2	11	6	11	2	17	1	8	-	23	3	6	2	17	3	18	-	9
Iron wire	12	2	1	1	45	7	2	10	15	9	1	21	13	18	1	14	24	4	1	4
Lead, pig and old	57	18	2	7	2	18	2	27	27	10	-	2	15	11	-	15	21	16	3	16
Hemp, Russia	264	9	-	25	453	6	2	17	57	17	-	-	24	18	1	21	216	19	3	9
Cordage	7	16	2	15	-	2	3	14	4	12	3	12	-	-	-	-	-	8	2	8
Tallow	72	5	-	2	96	9	1	24	5	-	2	4	118	2	3	8	666	1	2	18
Glassware	54	13	2	4	9	15	-	11	17	14	1	16	33	4	2	9	54	4	2	15
Sugar of lead and paints	24	-	-	6	20	10	-	24	20	1	2	20	31	2	2	1	23	5	3	13
Bristles	-	2	-	-	3	19	-	25	1	16	-	13	-	-	-	-	2	18	2	23
Glue	-	2	1	15	-	3	1	6												
Wool	262	15	3	25	268	-	3	26	206	10	1	15	198	7	3	9	207	13	1	6
Fish, smoked and dried	37	13	1	2	41	18	2	26	33	19	1	1	34	7	-	6	36	6	3	14
Copper, rods and bolts	2	1	20	-																
Corks	1	6	2	21	5	15	3	24	3	9	2	13	2	3	-	10	13	1	2	15
Cheese	3	12	3	14	4	10	-	1	3	15	3	11	1	14	-	22	2	13	3	17
Chocolate	-	6	1	-	-	-	2	18	-	2	1	18	-	2	4	11	-	3	3	27
Soap	20	17	2	9	-	3	2	23	3	3	3	22	2	15	2	8	9	14	3	7
Paper and books	11	10	-	9	23	3	3	5	8	9	3	-	3	4	2	26	9	12	-	22
Twine	27	6	2	12	20	19	2	22	8	15	2	6	10	11	-	6	22	10	3	1
Cotton	27	18	1	16	18	4	2	19	6	7	3	1	-	-	-	-	48	19	1	1
Hams	-	-	-	-	1	3	1	1	1	11	-	2	2	18	2	24	16	1	3	14
Pork	-	-	-	-	1	7	3	9	-	-	3	16	-	4	1	24	10	1	3	14
Alum	7	-	-	-	197	19	3	7	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	3	2
Sugar	9,788	1	-	17	11,497	2	1	17	9,236	13	1	2	12,498	7	2	11	14,186	6	2	25
*Coffee	6,195	10	1	3	6,365	10	-	27	5,169	2	1	15	6,787	12	2	17	5,517	11	-	5
*Tea, green	232	18	2	-	256	17	1	21	267	5	3	18	274	13	-	6	208	5	-	6
*Black	16	4	2	9	49	17	1	26	71	-	-	17	23	6	1	24	27	7	2	8
*Cassia	20	7	3	15	28	3	2	5	61	7	2	11	9	2	3	8	8	15	-	24
*Cocoa	191	6	3	-	91	18	-	26	66	7	2	16	209	14	2	10	119	11	3	6
*Pimento	109	15	2	24	138	17	2	22	5	-	1	12	49	16	-	4	49	9	2	23
*Indigo	91	17	1	26	157	7	3	12	23	2	3	13	73	2	1	15	70	7	-	19
*Raisins, prunes, and figs	518	13	3	25	915	15	2	1	537	15	1	4	964	15	1	14	1,638	13	2	24
*Nutmegs, mace, and cloves	3	3	2	15	1	10	3	9	-	16	1	5	2	5	2	12	11	6	1	16
*Ground ginger	-	2	2	17	-	4	2	9	-	-	-	-	2	12	-	-	1	1	1	15
*Almonds	128	10	2	2	87	19	1	12	42	7	-	15	68	3	2	21	79	5	-	13
*Pepper	-	4	-	19	99	-	3	18	39	-	3	16	33	17	-	-				
*Camphor	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	10											
*Currants	-	-	-	-	21	3	1	5												
*Figs	-	-	-	-	10	15	-	9												

Those marked thus * are the estimated or invoice weights.

Statement of the Quantity of Foreign Wines, Spirits, Molasses, &c., imported direct into Philadelphia during the Five Years commencing with 1835 and ending with 1839; with the Quantity exported during the same Period for the benefit of Drawback.

Articles.	Imported.					Exported.					Duty per gallon.
	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	
	Galls.	Galls.	Galls.	Galls.	Galls.	Galls.	Galls.	Galls.	Galls.	Galls.	Cts.
Molasses	1,279,195	1,095,931	1,079,410	1,840,079	1,369,025	4,668	-	2,676	-	-	5
Brandy	329,530	321,600	106,212	289,467	246,605	2,983	51,032	597	5,480	10,874	63
Holland gin	133,225	98,873	98,261	136,931	119,628	-	257	443	131	1,114	75
Rum	12,154	436	3,503	1,746	1,995	9,410	-	1,282	3,246	-	63
Whiskey	1,271	2,351	2,582	4,453	10,349	-	-	-	-	-	75
Cordials	577	539	599	806	441	-	243	-	-	-	63
Arrack	-	226	-	40	1	-	-	-	-	-	63
Shrub	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	63
Porter, ale, and brown stout	2,407	650	978	973	4,414	184	-	-	-	-	20
Vinegar	5,318	993	1,557	2,012	625	648	-	-	171	-	8
Oil, olive, in casks	15,341	5,816	6,197	-	21,565	553	-	-	-	1,507	20
Linseed	15,246	4,463	7,250	1,983	5,736	1,000	963	-	758	4,032	25
Castor	50	-	-	-	643	-	-	-	-	-	40
Fish	-	237	-	-	306	-	-	-	-	-	15
Wine, Madeira	84,630	15,218	9,076	42,194	20,863	-	-	-	-	-	12½
Port	48,896	42,726	15,316	67,162	71,358	224	-	-	-	-	12½
Sherry	75,247	34,737	19,960	1,586	14,684	-	-	-	520	-	7½
Teneriffe	83,616	11,053	40,156	46,177	24,461	2,097	3,048	-	-	-	7½
San Lucar	99,978	79,062	5,330	2,750	5,190	-	4,102	2,881	-	-	33½
Malaga	174,770	128,965	84,285	172,082	175,178	5,425	33,122	10,755	11,866	16,900	33½
Lisbon	45,703	9,206	17,541	6,677	17,570	-	-	-	-	-	7½
Sicily	5,823	-	-	219	6,480	-	-	-	-	-	7½
Champagne	5,050	1,850	3,644	971	-	-	-	97	-	-	50
Burgundy	45	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	50
Rhenish	488	1,179	2,471	256	268	-	-	-	-	-	7½
Claret	93,431	58,417	64,963	84,346	96,212	25,332	9,234	1,950	3,690	1,592	15
White French	200,876	125,697	75,316	89,606	89,210	-	5,931	4,685	2,270	-	30
Moselle	36	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7½
Cape	-	-	-	27	-	-	-	-	-	-	7½
Muscat and Frontignac	3,642	7,118	3,080	6,106	6,502	200	-	-	-	-	81

Note.—Subject to a reduction of 3-10ths of the excess between the value of the articles at 90 per cent., and the amount at the different rates as stated.

There are now, 1840, 16 banks in Philadelphia, with capitals amounting, exclusive of that of the Bank of the United States, to $18,050,000.

The number of marine insurance companies amounts to 10, with an aggregate capital of $3,330,000; and there are 9 fire insurance companies, with a capital of $3,450,000; besides 3 associations for mutual assurance against fire, operating without any specified capital.—*Am. Ed.*]

PHOSPHORUS, a substance of a light amber colour, and semi-transparent; but, when carefully prepared, nearly colourless and transparent. When kept some time, it becomes opaque externally, and has then a great resemblance to white wax. It may be cut with a knife, or twisted to pieces with the fingers. It is insoluble in water; its specific gravity is 1·77. When exposed to the atmosphere, it emits a white smoke, and is luminous in the dark. When heated to 148° it takes fire, and burns with a very bright flame. When phosphorus is inflamed in oxygen, the light and heat are incomparably more intense; the former dazzling the eye, and the latter cracking the glass vessel.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

PIASTRES, or DOLLARS, Spanish and American silver coins in very extensive circulation. Value, at an average, about 4*s.* 3*d.* sterling.—(See COINS.)

PILCHARDS (Ger. *Sardellan*; Du. *Sardynen*; Fr. *Sardines*; It. *Sardine*; Sp. *Sardinas*; Rus. *Sardelü*; Lat. *Sardinæ*), fishes closely resembling the common herring, but smaller, and at the same time thicker and rounder. They are rarely found on the British shores except on the coasts of Cornwall and Devon, particularly the former, where they are taken in great numbers from the month of July to September, both inclusive. It is a saying of the Cornish fishermen, that the pilchard is the least fish in size, most in number, and greatest for gain, taken from the sea.

Pilchard Fishery.—This is carried on along the coast of Cornwall and Devon, from the Bolt Head in the latter, round by the Land's End to Padstow and Bossiney in the former. Its principal seats are St. Ives, Mount's Bay, and Mevagissey. The fish usually make their appearance in vast shoals in the early part of July, and disappear about the middle of October: but they sometimes reappear in large quantities in December. They are taken either by *seans* or by drift nets, but principally by the former. A sean is a net, varying from 200 to 300 fathoms in length, and from 10 to 14½ do. in depth, having cork buoys on one edge and lead weights on the other. Three boats are attached to each sean, viz. a boat (*sean boat*), of about 15 tons burden, for carrying the sean; another (*follower*), of about the same size, to assist in mooring it; and a smaller boat (*lurker*), for general purposes. The number of hands employed in these 3 boats varies from about 13 to 18, but may be taken, at an average, at about 16. When the shoals of fish come so near the shore that the water is about the depth of the sean, it is employed to encircle them; the fishermen being directed to the proper places for casting or shooting the nets by persons (*lurers*) stationed for that purpose on the cliffs.* The practice is to row the boat with the sean on board gently round the shoal; and the sean being, at the same time, thrown gradually into the water, assumes, by means of its buoys and weights, a vertical position, its loaded edge being at the bottom, and the other floating on the surface. Its 2 ends are then fastened together; and, being brought into a convenient situation, it is moored by small anchors or grapnels. At low water, the enclosed fish are taken out by a small sean or *tuck net*, and carried to the shore. A single sean has been known to enclose at once as many as 3,000 hogsheads of fish! But the quantity taken depends on so many accidental circumstances, that while one sean may catch and cure in a season from 1,000 to 2,000 hogsheads, others in the neighbourhood will not get a single pilchard. In some places, the tides are so strong as to break the seans and set the fish at liberty. When the quantity enclosed is large, it requires several days to take them out, as they must not be removed in greater numbers than those who salt them can conveniently manage.

Drift nets are usually about a mile long, by about 4½ fathoms deep; they are shot in the open sea, and entangle the fish in their meshes in the same way as the herring nets. The fish thus taken are said to be superior to those taken by the seans.

As soon as the fish are brought to shore, they are carried to cellars or warehouses, where they are piled in large heaps, having a sufficient quantity of salt interspersed between the layers. Having remained in this state for about 35 days, they are, after being carefully washed and cleansed, packed in hogsheads, each containing, at an average, about 2,600 fish†; they are then subjected to a pressure sufficient to extract the oil, of which each hogshead yields about 3 gallons. This oil usually sells for from 12 to 15 per cent. under the price of brown seal oil. The oil, blood, and dirty pickle that drain from the fish while they are piled up, are collected in reservoirs, and sold to the curriers. The broken and refuse fish and salt are sold to the farmers, and are used as manure with excellent effect. The skimmings which float on the water in which the pilchards are washed, are called *garbage*, and are sold to the soap-boilers.

The pilchard fishery has been rather declining of late years. This has been ascribed partly to the failure of the catch, partly to the withdrawal of the high bounty of 8*s.* 6*d.* per hhd. formerly paid on exportation, and partly to the relaxed observance of Lent in the Mediterranean, and the imposition of a heavy duty on the importation of the fish into Naples, which has long been their principal market. The following is

An Account of the Exports of Pilchards during the Three Years ending with 1832; specifying the Places to which they were exported, the Quantity shipped for each, and their Price at the Port of Shipment.

Years.	Leghorn.	Naples.	Genoa.	Ancona.	Venice.	Trieste.	Malta.	Messina.	C. Vecchia.	Total.	Prices.
	Hhds.	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*	*Hhds.*	*s. s.*
1830	2,473	9,751	1,665	1,587	4,562	1,652	- -	304	- -	21,194	35 to 40
1831	4,031	10,276	2,100	5,286	4,205	520	94	- -	618	27,112	35 - 40
1832	3,784	11,612	3,116	5,078	5,781	1,000	237	- -	510	31,618	25 - 45

Of the 27,112 hhds. exported in 1831, St. Ives furnished 12,141, and Mount's Bay 9,013; the remainder being furnished by Mevagissey, St. Austle's Bay, St. Mawes, Fowey, &c.

Pilchards are not used in England, except in Cornwall and Devon, where about 3,000 hhds. a year may at present be made use of. We believe, however, that their consumption in these counties has begun to increase with considerable rapidity.

The sean fishery employs from 2,700 to 3,000 hands, and about 180 or 190 seans; but exclusive of

* The tunny fish in the Archipelago was caught in a similar way:—"Ascendebat quidam (Anglicè *lurer*, Græcè *thunoscopos*) in altum promontorium, unde thunnorum gregem specularetur, quo visu, signum piscatoribus dabat, qui retibus totum gregem includebant."—(*Bishop of London's Notes on the Persæ of Æschylus*, quoted by Dr. Paris, in his *Guide to Mount's Bay*, p. 150.)

† Mr. Pennant inadvertently states the number of fish in a hogshead at 35,000.—(*British Zoology*, vol. iii. p. 344. ed. 1776). Trusting to his authority, we fell into the same error in the 1st edition of this work.

these, there are a considerable number of seans unemployed, in consequence of the failure of the fishery since 1814, and other causes. The first cost of each sean, with its boats, may be about 750*l*. The drift fishery employs, during the season, from 900 to 1,000 men, and about 230 boats; the cost of each boat and nets amounting to about 200*l*. The labour in the cure of the fish may be taken at about 4*s*. a hogshead. The total capital embarked in the fishery, in 1832, was estimated by those engaged in it at from 200,000*l*. to 250,000*l*.

The drift fishermen employ themselves, when not engaged in the pilchard fishery, in the mackarel, herring, and hook-line fisheries. The sean fishermen consist principally of agricultural labourers, miners, &c. attracted to the business in the expectation, (in which, however, they are not unfrequently disappointed,) of making a comparatively large sum by a few weeks' exertion. But there are always 3 or 4 individuals of the crew of each sean that are regularly bred, expert fishermen.

Four fifths of the persons employed on shore in the salting, curing, packing, &c. of the fish, are women.

The wages of those employed in the fishery are made sometimes to depend on the number of fish taken; but in other instances they are independent of any such contingency.

The fishery at St. Ives is carried on under a particular act of parliament, which is said to occasion the employment of a third more seans than are necessary. The exaction of a tithe of the fish is a very serious burden on the fishery; sometimes it is taken in kind, but is more generally compounded for.—(*Dr. Paris's Guide to Mount's Bay and the Land's End*, 2d ed. pp. 146—156.; *Beauties of England and Wales*, vol. ii. p. 471., and *private information* obtained from authentic sources, and obligingly communicated, by Mr. Coulson, of Penzance.)

PILOTS AND PILOTAGE. The name of pilot or steersman is applied either to a particular officer, serving on board a ship during the course of a voyage, and having the charge of the helm and the ship's route; or to a person taken on board at any particular place, for the purpose of conducting a ship through a river, road, or channel, or from or into a port.

It is to the latter description of persons that the term pilot is now usually applied; and pilots of this sort are established in various parts of the country by ancient charters of incorporation, or by particular statutes. The most important of these corporations are those of the Trinity House, Deptford Strond; the fellowship of the pilots of Dover, Deal, and the Isle of Thanet, commonly called the *Cinque Port pilots*; and the Trinity houses of Hull and Newcastle. The 5 Geo. 4. c. 73. established a corporation for the regulation and licensing of pilots in Liverpool.

The principle of the law with respect to pilots seems to be, that where the master is bound by act of parliament to place his ship in charge of a pilot, and does so accordingly, the ship is not to be considered as under the management of the owners or their servants, and they are not to be liable for any damage occasioned by the mismanagement of the ship, unless it be proved that it arose from the negligence or misconduct of the master or men: but when it is in the election or discretion of the master to take a pilot or not, and he thinks fit to take one, the pilot so taken is to be considered as the servant of the owners, who are to be responsible for his conduct.—(*Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part 2. c. 5.)

The statute of 6 Geo. 4. c. 125. has consolidated the laws with respect to the licensing, employment, &c. of pilots. It is of great length; but all its provisions of any material importance may be embraced under the following heads:—

1. *Appointment of Pilots.*—The corporation of the Trinity House of Deptford Strond are required to appoint and license fit and competent persons, duly skilled, to act as pilots for the purpose of conducting all ships or vessels navigating the Thames, the Medway, and the several channels, creeks, and docks thereof, between Orfordness and London Bridge, as also from London Bridge to the Downs, and from the Downs westward as far as the Isle of Wight, and in the English Channel from the Isle of Wight up to London Bridge; and all ships and vessels sailing as aforesaid (except as herein-after mentioned) shall be conducted and piloted within the aforesaid limits by such pilots, and by no other persons whomsoever.

No person shall be licensed by the said corporation as a pilot, who has not served as mate for 3 years on board of, or been for 1 year in the actual command of, a square-rigged vessel of not less than 80 tons register tonnage, as to licences for the *North Channel* upwards; and not less than 150 tons register tonnage, as to licences for the *North Channel*, *Queen's Channel*, *South Channel*, or other channels downwards; or who shall not have been employed in the pilotage or buoyage service of the said corporation for 7 years, or who shall not have served an apprenticeship of 5 years to some pilot vessel licensed under the act passed in the 52 year of the reign of George III., or under this act; and no person so licensed shall take charge as a pilot of any ship or vessel drawing more than 14 feet water, in the river Thames or Medway, or any of the channels leading thereto or thereupon, until such person shall have acted as a licensed pilot for 3 years, and shall have been after such 3 years, on re-examination, approved of in that behalf by the said corporation, on pain of forfeiting 10*l*. for every such offence; and the person employing or permitting such pilot to take charge of such ship or vessel is also to forfeit 10*l*.—§ 3.

Every pilot licensed by the corporation of the Trinity House of Deptford Strond is to pay an annual licence of 3*l*. 3*s*., and 6*d*. in the pound upon his earnings; which sums are to be applied to the uses of the pilot's fund of the said corporation.—§ 4.

The said corporation are further authorised to appoint competent persons, not more than *five*, nor less than *three*, at such ports and places as they may think fit, (except within the liberty of the Cinque Ports, and such other ports and places as may have been specially provided for by act of parliament, or by charter, for the appointment of pilots), to be called sub-commissioners of pilotage, who are to take the following oath:—

"I, *A. B.*, do swear, that I will diligently and impartially examine into the capacity and skill of _____ in the art of piloting ships and vessels into the roadstead, port, or harbour, and upon the coasts following; *videlicet* [here describe the limits within which the person examined is intended to act as pilot], and will make true and speedy return thereof to the corporation of Trinity House of Deptford Strond, without favour, affection, fee, or reward, other than such fee or reward as is allowed by the by-laws or regulations duly established in that behalf. So help me God."

And upon the recommendation of such sub-commissioners, the Trinity House Corporation may grant licences to pilots.—§ 5.

Notices of the appointment of pilots are to be put up in writing at the Trinity House and Custom-

house, London, and at the Custom-houses of the ports for which they are licensed, and are to be published in the *London Gazette*.—§ 7.

No person shall take charge of any ship or vessel as a pilot belonging to the *Cinque Ports*, before he be examined by the master and two fellows, or by four wardens of the society or fellowship of pilots of Dover, Deal, and the Isle of Thanet, touching his abilities, and shall be approved and admitted into the said society by the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports, or his lieutenant; and any person presuming to act as a pilot, belonging to the said society or fellowship, without having been so examined, approved, and admitted, shall for the first offence forfeit 10*l*., for the second 20*l*., and for every other offence 40*l*.—§ 15.

No person licensed by the aforesaid society or fellowship is to take charge of any ship or vessel drawing more than 11 feet 6 inches water, until he has acted as a pilot for 3 years; nor of a vessel drawing more than 14 feet water, till he has acted as a pilot for 5 years; nor of a vessel drawing more than 17 feet water, till he has acted as a pilot for 7 years; when he is to be again examined; and if he shall be approved of and licensed upon such second examination, he may take charge of ships of any draught of water.—§ 16.

The number of *Cinque Port* pilots used to be fixed at 140; but during peace, no more than each alternate vacancy is to be filled up, unless the number be reduced below 120.—§ 24.

All bodies politic and corporate, and all persons authorised to appoint or license pilots for any port or place in England shall, upon any such appointment being made, forthwith transmit to the Trinity House, London, and to the commissioners of customs, London, the Christian name and surname, age, and place of residence, of every pilot so appointed, distinguishing the limits in which he is to act, and by whom appointed. And the said bodies politic, &c. are to transmit lists, corrected up to the 31st day of December in each year, either on that day, or within a month after, to the said Trinity House and commissioners of the customs, of the names and residences of all the pilots within their respective jurisdictions; stating all the alterations that may have been made within the year in the rates of pilotage charged, and in the rules and regulations for governing pilots within their respective districts.—§ 35.

The commissioners of the customs are to transmit to their principal officers, at the different ports, the names and places of residence of all the pilots residing within the limits of each port, as far as they are acquainted with the same; and every pilot is to be furnished with copies of all proclamations and orders in council respecting the performance of quarantine.—§ 36.

A particular description of the person of every pilot is to be written upon the back of his licence: and no person shall take charge of any ship or vessel, or in any manner act as a pilot, or receive any compensation for acting as a pilot, until his licence shall have been registered by the principal officers of the Custom-house of the place at or nearest to which such pilot shall reside, (which officers are hereby required to register the same without fee or reward), nor without having his licence at the time of his so acting in his personal custody, and producing the same to the master of any ship or vessel, or other person, who shall be desirous of employing him as a pilot, or to whom he shall offer his services, on pain of forfeiting a sum not exceeding 30*l*., nor less than 10*l*., for the first offence; and for the second or any subsequent offence, a sum not exceeding 50*l*. nor less than 30*l*.; and upon further pain, as to any person licensed as aforesaid, of forfeiting his licence, or being suspended from acting as a pilot, by and at the discretion of the corporation or other authority from which such pilot's licence was derived, either for the first, second, or any subsequent offence.—§§ 65, 66.

2. *Government of Pilots.*—All persons licensed to act as pilots by the Trinity House, are subject to the government of the said corporation, which is empowered to make by-laws, rules, &c. specifying what sums shall be paid by such pilots to the sub-commissioners of pilotage for their examination, and for granting, or renewing, or confirming their licences from time to time, and annexing such reasonable penalties and forfeitures for the breach of such by-laws as to them shall seem expedient. But no such by-laws, regulations, &c. shall have any force till they have been examined, sanctioned, and approved by the chief justice of the Court of King's Bench, or the chief justice of the Court of Common Pleas.—§ 11. (*N. B.*—The by-laws of the Trinity House, Deptford Strond, sanctioned by Lord Tenterden, are annexed to this article.)

Copies of any proposed by-laws are to be transmitted to the privy council and the commissioners of custom, 3 months before they are submitted to any chief justice for approval; and the commissioners of custom are to cause such proposed by-laws to be hung up in the several Custom-houses of the principal ports of Great Britain, for the inspection of all parties having an interest therein. And when such by-laws shall have been sanctioned, they shall be hung up in the several Custom-houses within the limits of which the pilots respectively shall be licensed, and also at the Trinity House in London.—§§ 12, 13.

The *Cinque Port* pilots are to be subject to the rules and regulations framed by the Lord Warden of the said ports, or his deputy, with the assent of the majority of the commissioners of *Loadmanage* (master and wardens of the fellowship of pilots of Dover, Deal, and the Isle of Thanet). The privy council may, however, amend, correct, or enlarge such rules or regulations, if they shall appear to them, upon the representation of any person having an interest therein, to be in any material point erroneous, insufficient, or defective.—§§ 21, 22.

The Trinity House Corporation are authorised and required to establish, vary, and alter, from time to time, as circumstances may require, the rates of pilotage performed by pilots licensed by the said corporation, according to the size and draught of water of the vessels, the distance piloted, the detention and responsibility of the pilot, and such other circumstances as they may think fit to take into account. Tables of these rates are to be hung up at the several Custom-houses of the ports to which they apply; and no greater or less rates, or other reward or emolument for such pilotage, shall, under any pretence whatever, be demanded, solicited, paid, received, or offered, on pain of forfeiting 10*l*. for every such offence, as well by the party offering as by the party accepting or soliciting the same. Ships returning by stress of weather, contrary winds, or on account of accident, into ports in the district of the Isle of Wight, Plymouth, and Falmouth, shall be subject to pay half the common pilotage in such ports.—§ 8.

If the majority of the pilots licensed by the Trinity House Corporation in any port or place, or any ship owner in the same, be dissatisfied with the rates, they may appeal to the privy council, who may decide upon the matter as they think fit.—§ 9.

Every person applying for a licence to act as a pilot, shall, before any such licence be granted to him execute a bond in a penal sum, at the discretion of the Trinity House Corporation, or of the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports, to an amount not exceeding 100*l*., for the better securing his due obedience to the by-laws, rules, regulations, &c., to be made by competent authority.—§ 27.

Licences may be annulled, suspended, or adjudged forfeited, at the pleasure of the foresaid corporation and Lord Warden; but pilots, whose licences are so annulled, suspended, &c. may appeal to the privy council, who are authorised to make such adjudication in the premises as they may think fit.—§§ 29, 30.

3. *Licensing of Pilot Boats.*—The Trinity Corporation and the fellowship of the Cinque Port pilots are authorised to license pilot vessels of such size and description as may appear to them to be proper for having pilots constantly in attendance in such vessels at sea; and the licensed pilots are authorised

to form themselves into companies, with consent of the corporations aforesaid, for providing and maintaining such pilot vessels, such companies and vessels being at all times subject to such rules and regulations as shall from time to time be sanctioned by the said corporate bodies.—§ 31.

Pilot boats or vessels are to be distinguished by being at all times and on every station fitted with black sides, and having the upper streak next the gunwale painted white; they are while afloat, to carry a flag of large dimensions, proportioned to the size of the vessel, at the mast head, or on a spar or staff in some conspicuous situation, which flag shall be half red and half white, in horizontal stripes, the white uppermost. The name of the pilot on board is to be painted in large white letters (3 inches long) on a black ground on the stern, and on each bow the number of the licence of such pilot; and the concealment of such name or number, or the evasion of any of the before-mentioned provisions, incurs a penalty of 20*l*., to be paid by the senior pilot on board, who is answerable for their observance. Any pilot carried off in a boat other than a pilot boat, is to hoist a flag as previously ordered, on pain of forfeiting 20*l*. unless he show reasonable cause for having omitted it.—§ 32.

The owners or master of any boat or vessel carrying a pilot's flag, without having a licensed pilot on board, shall for every such offence forfeit 100*l*.—§ 33.

The Trinity House Corporation, the Court of *Leadmanage* of the Cinque Ports, and all other corporations and persons authorised to manage or direct pilots in any part of England, shall, on the last of January in each year, or within the month next following, transmit to the officer of the sixpenny duty in the port of London, a list of all the vessels of every description employed by them or by those under them, for the purposes of pilotage, with the number of men and boys belonging to or serving in such vessels.—§ 37.

4. *Duties of Pilots.*—In order to secure the due performance of his important duties by the pilot, it is enacted, that every pilot, duly licensed, who shall, without sufficient cause, refuse or decline going off to any vessel wanting a pilot, upon signal being made by the same, or upon being required to do so by the master of such ship, or by any person interested therein as principal or agent, or by any officer of the corporation to which such pilot shall belong, or by any principal officer of the customs: or who shall, on any frivolous pretext, quit any ship or vessel, or decline piloting thereof, after he has been engaged to pilot the same, or after going alongside thereof, without leave of the master; shall, for every such offence, forfeit not more than 100*l*. nor less than 10*l*.—§ 72.

Any licensed pilot employing or making use of, or compelling or requiring any person having the charge of any ship or vessel to employ or make use of, any boat, anchor, cable, &c. beyond what is actually necessary, shall forfeit and pay for every such offence not more than 50*l*. and not less than 10*l*., and shall also be deprived of his licence, or suspended, at the discretion of those by whom he was licensed.—§ 73.

If any licensed pilot shall lend his licence to an unlicensed person, to assist him in acting or claiming to act as pilot, and if such unlicensed person shall by drunkenness render himself incapable of conducting any ship or vessel, or negligently or wilfully lead, decoy, or betray any ship into danger, or shall unnecessarily or improperly cut any cable or cables belonging to any vessel; or if any such person shall, by wilful misrepresentation of any circumstances upon which the safety of the vessel shall appear naturally to depend, obtain or endeavour to obtain the conduct of such vessels, then, and in every such case, the person so offending, or who shall aid in, procure, abet, or connive at the committing any such offence or offences, shall, *besides being liable for damages at the suit of the party grieved*, forfeit and pay a sum of not more than 100*l*. and not less than 20*l*.; and if the person offending be a pilot, he shall be liable to be deprived of his licence, at the discretion of those by whom he was appointed.—§ 74.

Pilots keeping public-houses, or selling wine, spirituous liquors, tobacco, or tea (unless authorised by the competent authorities), or being concerned in any fraud or offence against the revenue laws, or in relation to any branch of their duty, shall, over and above all mulcts, penalties, &c. for such offences, be adjudged to forfeit their licence, or be suspended, at the discretion of those by whom they are licensed.—§ 68.

A pilot, when taken on board, shall enter his name in the log-book of every ship entering the port of London requiring to be piloted under this act, and if any pilot or other person insert a false name, he is to forfeit 20*l*.; and the name or names of the pilot or pilots so entered in the log-book and employed in piloting the vessel, are to be inserted in the *entry* or *report* of such vessel inwards; and this insertion is to be made (without fee or reward) by the proper officer of the customs, who shall report the same daily to the Trinity House, and monthly to the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports. The principal searcher or officer of the customs at Gravesend is to demand and take the name or names of the pilot or pilots of all vessels clearing outwards, and shall transmit monthly lists thereof to the Trinity House, on pain of forfeiting a sum not more than 10*l*., nor less than 5*l*., to be paid by each and every of the persons foresaid who shall neglect to comply with any of the foresaid regulations.—§ 43.

Pilots quitting any vessel in the Thames or Medway before she has arrived at the place to which she was bound, without the consent of the captain or other person in command, and unless some other duly qualified person shall with such consent come on board and take charge of the ship, shall forfeit for such offence all pay or reward they might be entitled to, and shall also be subject to such other penalty or punishment as may legally affect them in consequence of any by-law, &c.—§ 42.

Pilots neglecting or refusing to obey the orders of the different dock masters within their respective jurisdiction incur a penalty of not more than 50*l*. and not less than 20*l*. for each offence, and may be dismissed or suspended.—§ 75.

Licensed pilots may supersede unlicensed ones. And if any unlicensed person shall act after a duly licensed pilot has offered to come on board and take charge of the ship, she being at the time within the limits for which he is qualified, such unlicensed person shall forfeit not more than 50*l*. and not less than 20*l*.—§ 70.

But unlicensed persons may act so long as no licensed pilot offers to take charge of the ship, or makes a signal for that purpose, or where and so long as the ship shall be in distress.—§ 71.

Licensed pilots who have executed the bond before mentioned shall not be liable to any action for damages on account of neglect or want of skill, at the suit of the party grieved, in any greater sum than the amount which shall have been specified by way of penalty in such bond, and the pilotage payable to him in respect of the voyage during which the neglect or want of skill are alleged to have been exhibited.—§ 57.

5. *Fees of Pilotage.*—The charge on account of pilotage is regulated in various places by usage or statute, and generally increases in proportion to the depth of water which the vessel draws. The Trinity House Corporation and the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports have authority, as before mentioned, to fix the rates on account of pilotage to be charged by all pilots licensed by them.—(Subjoined to this article are Tables of the present rates.)

Any pilot carried to sea beyond the limits of his district without his free consent, except in cases of absolute necessity, shall, over and above his pilotage, receive 10*s*. 6*d*. a day, to be computed from and inclusive of the day next after the day on which the vessel shall pass the limit to which the pilot was engaged to conduct her, and until he shall be returned to the port or place where he was taken on board, or be discharged for a sufficient time to enable him to return there.—§ 38.

Pilots are to qualify themselves for conducting vessels in and out of Ramsgate harbour, and the harbours of Dover, Sandwich, and Margate, and shall be entitled to and receive for such pilotage at the rate of 5*s.* for every foot of the draught of water of every vessel so piloted.—§§ 39, 40.

Ships bound to the Thames, repairing to Standgate Creek, or other places appointed for the performance of quarantine, are to pay the full charges of pilotage to such place, and a further sum of 8*s.* a day for the days the pilot shall be obliged to remain on quarantine.

Any boat or vessel running before a ship or vessel, not having a licensed pilot on board, when such ship or vessel cannot be boarded, for the purpose of directing her course, the pilot on board such boat or vessel, or, if no pilot be on board, the person having the command thereof, and who shall run before such ship at the request or by direction of the master, shall be entitled to full pilotage for the distance run.—§ 34.

All the sums which shall become due to any licensed pilot for the pilotage of foreign ships or vessels trading to or from the port of *London* may be recovered from the owners or masters of such ships or vessels, or from the consignees or agents thereof, who shall have paid, or made themselves liable to pay, any other charge for the ship or vessel in the port of her arrival or delivery as to pilotage inwards, and in the port whence she shall clear out or sail as to pilotage outwards; and may be levied in like manner, according to the amount, as any penalty may be recovered and levied by virtue of the act, demand thereof being made in writing at least *fourteen* days before such levy. And the master or other person having the charge of ships or vessels, *not having British registers*, which shall enter into or sail from the port of *London*, and which are by law required to be piloted by persons licensed by the corporation of the Trinity House, or the consignees or agents thereof, are to pay at the Trinity House, in *London*, to persons appointed by the corporation of the Trinity House, the full pilotage inwards and outwards; viz. as to pilotage outwards, the amount for the distance which the ship is by law required to be piloted; as to pilotage inwards, where a pilot shall have been on board, the amount for the distance piloted by him, if greater than that which she shall be required to be piloted; if less, or if no pilot shall have been on board, the amount for the distance which she was by law required to be piloted: the pilotage inwards may be levied, &c. upon the master or other person in charge, consignee, or agent, in the same manner as in the case of ships *having British registers*, if such pilotage inwards be not paid within *fourteen* days from the day of the ship's reporting inwards.—§§ 44, 46.

The pilotage outward upon foreign vessels is to be calculated according to the scale or amount of tonnage upon which such ships or vessels are rated in the port of London for payment of light and other dues, or according to the draught of water thereof, as the Trinity House may think most proper.—§ 49.

In order to prevent controversies with respect to the draught of water of ships not having British registers, the Trinity House is empowered to appoint an officer to measure the draught of water of ships with respect to which there is any controversy, such officer receiving 1*l.* 1*s.* for his trouble if the ship be below the entrance to the London Docks, and 10*s.* 6*d.* if above such entrance, from the party against whom he may decide. If arriving inwards, application for such officer must be made within 12 hours after the ship has come to her moorings, and before she begin to unlade; and before quitting her moorings, if clearing outward.—§ 50.

The Trinity House are empowered to take measures for the relief of foreign vessels coming to the port of London with fish, corn, and other provisions on board, either from the whole or part of the charges on account of pilotage that would fall upon them under this act.—§ 51.

No foreign vessel shall be cleared outwards until a certificate, signed by the person appointed for that purpose by the Trinity House, that the pilotage has been paid, has been produced; the corporation pay the pilot employed, on proof that he has duly performed his service, the pilotage, after deducting the 6*d.* duty.—§ 47.

The consignees or agents of any ship or vessel are authorised and empowered to retain in their hands respectively, out of any monies which they may have received or shall thereafter receive for or on account of such ship or vessel, or the owner or owners thereof, so much as shall be sufficient to pay and discharge such pilotage, and any expenses attending the same.—§ 45.

6. Responsibility, &c. of Masters.—Ships coming from the westward, bound to any place in the Thames or Medway, not having a duly qualified Cinque Port pilot on board, shall, on arriving at *Dungeness*, and until they have passed the south buoy of the *Brake*, display and keep flying the usual signal for a pilot to come on board; and the master shall heave to and shorten sail, so as to facilitate the entry of the pilot. Persons not displaying such signal, &c. shall forfeit and pay double the amount of the sum that the charge for pilotage would have amounted to. And it is further provided, that all masters of vessels acting themselves as pilots, or employing any unlicensed person as such, or any licensed person out of the limit of his qualification, after any licensed and qualified pilot shall have offered to come on board, or made a signal for that purpose, shall forfeit double the sum that would have been legally demandable as pilotage, and an additional penalty of 5*l.* for every 50 tons burden of the ship, if the Trinity House or Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports, as the case may be, shall think it proper to certify the same.

But the master of any of the following vessels may pilot the same, *so long as he is not assisted by any unlicensed pilot or other person than the ordinary crew*: viz. the master of any collier, or of any ship or vessel trading to *Norway*, or to the *Cattegat* or *Baltic*, or round the *North Cape*, or into the *White Sea*, on their inward or outward voyages, or of any constant trader inwards, from the ports between *Boulogne* inclusive, and the *Baltic* (all such ships or vessels having *British* registers, and coming up by the *North Channel*, but not otherwise), or of any *Irish* trader using the navigation of the rivers *Thames* and *Medway*, or of any ship or vessel employed in the regular coasting trade of the kingdom, or of any ship or vessel wholly laden with stone from *Guernsey*, *Jersey*, *Alderney*, *Sark*, or *Man*, and being the production thereof, or of any ship or vessel, not exceeding the burden of 60 tons, and *having a British register* (or not exceeding the burden of 60 tons, and *not having a British register*, if authorised so to do by an order of the privy council), or of any other ship or vessel whatsoever, whilst the same is within the limits of the port or place to which she belongs, the same not being a port or place in relation to which particular provision hath heretofore been made by any act or acts of parliament, or by any charter or charters for the appointment of pilots.—§§ 59, 60.

The master or mate of any vessel, being the owner or part owner thereof, and residing at Dover, Deal, or the Isle of Thanet, shall not be liable to any penalty for conducting or piloting his own ship or vessel up or down the river Thames or Medway, or into or out of any place within the jurisdiction of the Cinque Ports.—§ 62.

This act shall not extend, or be construed to extend, to subject the master or owner of any ship or vessel to any of the penalties of this act, for employing any person or persons whomsoever, as a pilot or pilots, in and for the assistance of such ship or vessel, whilst the same shall be in distress, or in consequence thereof, or under any circumstances which shall have rendered it necessary for such owner or master to avail himself of the best assistance which at the time could be procured.—§ 61.

No owner or master of any ship or vessel shall be answerable for any loss or damage which shall happen to any person or persons whatsoever, from or by reason or means of no licensed pilot or of no duly qualified pilot being on board thereof, unless it shall be proved that the want of such licensed or

of such duly qualified pilot respectively shall have arisen from any refusal to take such licensed or qualified pilot on board, or from the wilful neglect of the master of such ship or vessel in not heaving to, or using all practicable means, consistently with her safety, for the purpose of taking on board thereof any pilot who shall be ready, and offer to take charge of the same.—§ 53.

Nothing in this act shall extend, or be construed to extend, to make the owner of any ship or vessel liable in any such case, for any loss or damage beyond the value of such ship or vessel and her appurtenances, and the freight due, or to grow due, for and during the voyage wherein such loss or damage may happen or arise.—§ 54.

No owner or master of any ship or vessel shall be answerable for any loss or damage which shall happen to any person or persons whomsoever, from or by reason or means of any neglect, default, incompetency, or incapacity of any licensed pilot acting in the charge of any such ship or vessel, under or in pursuance of any of the provisions of this act, where and so long as such pilot shall be duly qualified to have the charge of such ship or vessel, or where and so long as no duly qualified pilot shall have offered to take charge thereof.—§ 55.

Nothing in this act shall be construed to extend to deprive any person or persons of any remedy or remedies upon any contract of insurance, or of any other remedy whatsoever, which he or they might have had if this act had not been passed, by reason or on account of the neglect, default, incompetency, or incapacity of any pilot duly acting in the charge of any ship or vessel, under or in pursuance of any of the provisions of this act, or by reason or on account of no pilot or of no duly qualified pilot being on board of any such ship or vessel, unless it shall be proved that the want of a pilot arises from a refusal on the part of the master to take such pilot on board, or to heave to for him.—§ 56.

All masters or other persons having the command of any ship, who shall report, or be privy to any one reporting, a false account of the draught of water of such ship, shall, besides the full pilotage, forfeit double the amount thereof; and any master or other person having any interest, share, or property in any vessel, who shall fraudulently alter any marks on the stem or stern post thereof, diminishing the draught of water, or shall be privy or consent thereto, shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 500*l*.

7. *Recovery of Penalties.*—Penalties incurred under this act, not exceeding 20*l*., are to be recovered before a justice by prosecution within *six* months; and penalties *above* 20*l*. by action of debt in any of the courts of record at *Westminster*, to be commenced within *twelve* months; but if it shall be made to appear, as soon after as the circumstances of the case will admit, that the commencement of the prosecution or action has been delayed by reason of the absence of any party or parties, whether offending or complaining, or of any necessary witness, then, upon such circumstances being stated by affidavit, made before any judge of any of his Majesty's courts of record at *Westminster*, any such judge may order or authorise the commencement of the prosecution or action within such further time as he shall think fit to limit.

It is, however, provided that nothing therein contained shall affect or impair the jurisdiction of the Court of Loadmanage, or High Court of Admiralty, nor the right of the city of London, nor (in general) any separate jurisdiction established under any act of parliament or charter.—§§ 76, 86, 87, 88, 89.

By-Laws, Regulations, and Ordinances as to Pilots, framed by the Trinity Corporation, and sanctioned by Lord Tenderden, 19th of April, 1826.

I. Annuls the previous regulations.

II. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall be ordered to proceed on his Majesty's service, by any order signed by the deputy master or secretary of the said corporation, or by the officer for the time being for the said corporation at Yarmouth, or elsewhere, duly authorised to act in matters of pilotage, or who shall be so ordered, in writing or otherwise, by any officer in his Majesty's service, shall immediately proceed thereon; and every pilot who shall fail so to do, or shall evade the receipt of any such order, or who shall quit or decline such service, shall for the first offence forfeit 5*l*., and for the second and every subsequent offence 10*l*. each.

III. It is ordained, that every pilot engaged in the charge of any ship employed by government in the transport service, shall observe particularly if any unnecessary delay take place on the part of the master in proceeding towards his destination; and if any delay does take place, such pilot shall, on his return, report the same to the secretary of the said corporation, and upon going on board, such pilot shall give notice to the master that he has orders so to do.

IV. It is ordained, that no pilot having the charge of a merchant ship shall stop the same alongside the moorings of his Majesty's ships at Deptford, or elsewhere, or between the Round Tree and Bathing-house, Gravesend (except in either of such cases there be an extreme necessity for so doing, or leave be obtained for that purpose from the proper officer or officers in that behalf), and all pilots licensed by the said corporation are at all times to be particularly careful to steer clear of the king's ships in passing them.

V. It is ordained, that every pilot, when called upon or required to pilot any ship or vessel, shall, if under engagement to any other ship, forthwith make known such engagement, and specify the particulars thereof truly and faithfully to the person calling for or requiring such pilot's service; and in case of any concealment, misrepresentation, or falsehood, in respect of such alleged previous engagement, the pilot offending shall forfeit 10*l*.

VI. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall have taken charge of any ship from the river Thames to the Downs, or elsewhere, shall, without any additional compensation in that behalf, wait on board for the space of 3 complete days while such ship may be detained at Gravesend, or elsewhere, for want of seamen, or by any other casualty; nor shall he at the end of 3 complete days be at liberty to quit such ship, or receive any additional compensation, if she shall be further detained by winds, weather or tides; and should the ship be detained beyond 3 complete days on any other account except want of weather, or tides, the pilot having the charge thereof shall nevertheless still (if required so to do) remain in the charge of her, provided a compensation of 6*s*. per day be offered to him in that behalf by the master or owner.

VII. It is ordained, that every pilot shall in all cases demean himself civilly and respectfully towards all persons who may require his service, and towards all officers in his Majesty's navy, and shall maintain a strict temperance and sobriety in the exercise of his office, and shall use his utmost care and diligence for the safe conduct of every ship which he shall be intrusted with the charge of, and prevent her doing damage to others.

VIII. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall undertake the charge of any ship downwards, shall before his departure, leave, or cause to be left, notice thereof, in writing, at the proper office at the Trinity House in London, with one of the clerks there attending, and shall be considered as discharged until he shall have done so; and upon such pilot's return, he shall immediately, in his own person, attend at the said office, and make and sign such entry, in a book there kept for that purpose, as the said corporation shall from time to time direct or require.

IX. It is ordained, that every pilot licensed by the said corporation shall, from time to time, and at all times, in obedience to the order or summons of the said corporation, under the hand of the secretary thereof for the time being, duly delivered or offered to such pilot, or left a reasonable time at the usual or last known place of residence of such pilot, attend the said corporation, at their courts, by-boards, or committees, or their secretary for the time being, at the Trinity House in London; and that every pilot licensed by the said corporation, upon a certificate of qualification from sub-commissioners of pilotage, shall, in like manner, attend the sub-commissioners of the port or place for which such pilot shall be so licensed, in obedience to the order or summons of the said sub-commissioners, under their hands, or the hands of the major part of them, duly delivered, offered, or left as aforesaid, to answer to any charges brought against such pilots respectively, or for the performance of any public service, or for any other purpose whatsoever; and in default of such attendance, every pilot so offending shall forfeit for the first offence 40*s.*, and for the second and every subsequent offence 5*l.* each.

X. It is ordered, and hereby directed, that every pilot licensed or to be licensed by the said corporation, upon their receiving a certificate of examination by any sub-commissioners of pilotage, shall, for such examination, and for granting the licence thereon, pay the sum of 2 guineas to the said sub-commissioners of pilotage by whom he shall be examined, or to one of them; and shall also, for the renewing or confirming such licence from time to time, pay to the sub-commissioners of pilotage for the time being, at or for the port or place specified in such licence, or to 1 of them, the annual sums following; (that is to say), every pilot so licensed or to be licensed as aforesaid, for the ports of Plymouth, Portsmouth, or Cowes respectively, the annual sum of 2 guineas; and every pilot licensed or to be licensed as aforesaid, for any other port or place, the annual sum of 1 guinea, unless the pilots at or for such port or place shall be divided into 2 classes; and, in that case the pilots of the 1st class are to pay the annual sum of 2 guineas each, and pilots not of the 1st class the annual sum of 1 guinea each.

XI. It is ordained, that no pilot shall add to or in any way alter his licence, or make or alter any endorsement thereon, nor shall he be privy to any such licence or endorsement being altered.

XII. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall observe any alteration in any of the sands or channels, or that any of the buoys or beacons of the said corporation are driven away, broken down, or out of place, shall forthwith deliver or send a correct statement thereof, in writing, to the secretary of the said corporation for the time being.

XIII. It is ordained, that every pilot shall, whenever he comes to an anchor, carefully observe the settings of the tide, and the force of the stream; and if it shall happen that he comes near to a sand or other object or cause of danger, and there be any other ships or ship in company likely to fall in therewith, such pilot shall immediately give notice thereof to the captain or principal officer of the ship under his care, that he may make a signal to such other ship or ships for avoiding the same.

XIV. It is ordained, that no pilot shall, on any pretence, aid or assist, either in his own person or with his boat or servants, or by any other means whatever, the landing, removing, or secreting any seaman from any merchant ship or vessel, to avoid serving in his Majesty's navy, or escape the impress for the same.

XV. It is ordained, that every pilot shall from time to time conform himself strictly to all directions which shall be given to him by any of the harbour masters authorised by act of parliament, under the corporation of the city of London, touching the mooring, unmooring, placing, or removing of any ship or vessel under his charge, as long as such ship or vessel shall be lying and situate within the limits of the authority of such harbour master.

XVI. It is ordained, that each and every pilot belonging to a licenced pilot vessel shall be at liberty to entertain one apprentice and no more.

XVII. It is ordained, that for any work done on the rivers Thames or Medway by men in boats, being less than the work for the whole tide, the pay shall be, for half a tide's work, 4*s.* to each man, and so in proportion for any time less than a whole tide, the pay for which is settled by the said act of the 6th year of the reign of his present Majesty at 8*s.*

XVIII. It is ordained, that in all cases where pecuniary penalties and forfeitures are annexed to the breach of the foregoing by-laws, rules, orders, regulations, and ordinances the said corporation of Trinity House may mitigate and reduce the same to 1-4th part at their discretion.

XIX. It is ordained, that every pilot who shall offend against any or either of the foregoing by-laws, orders, regulations, and ordinances, shall, for every such offence (whether the same shall subject him to any pecuniary penalty or not, and in addition to such penalty if any), be liable to have his licence annulled and forfeited, or suspended, at the discretion of the said corporation.

N. B.—Besides conforming themselves diligently to the above by-laws, rules, orders, regulations, and ordinances, the pilots licensed by the corporation of the Trinity House are, of course, in all things to observe and obey the same enactments and provisions relating to such pilots contained in the said act of parliament made and passed in the 6th year of the reign of his Majesty King George the Fourth, a copy of which act has been delivered to each of the said pilots.

*** The following Tables of the charges on account of pilotage, &c. are the most complete that have hitherto been published. They have all been derived from official sources, so that their accuracy may be depended upon.

CHARGES ON ACCOUNT OF PILOTAGE.

Table of the Rates of Pilotage to be demanded and received by Pilots licensed by the Corporation of Trinity House of Deptford Strond, for piloting Ships and Vessels within the Limits in the said Table mentioned.

From	To	7 Feet and under.	8 Feet.	9 Feet.	10 Feet.	11 Feet.	12 Feet.	13 Feet.	14 Feet.	15 Feet.	16 Feet.	17 Feet.	18 Feet.	19 Feet.	20 Feet.	21 Feet.	22 Feet.	23 Feet and upwards.
		L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
The Sea, Orfordness, the Downs, Hosely Bay, and vice versa	Nore or Warps	3 13 6	4 2 9	4 12 0	5 1 3	5 5 9	6 5 0	6 13 6	7 7 3	7 16 6	8 14 9	9 8 6	10 17 0	11 10 0	12 17 6	14 5 3	16 11 3	18 8 0
	Gravesend, Chatham, Standgate Creek, or Blackstakes	4 12 0	5 7 9	6 3 3	6 18 0	7 11 9	8 5 6	8 19 6	9 13 3	10 7 0	11 0 9	11 14 6	14 1 6	16 13 0	19 6 6	21 5 0	23 3 9	25 2 3
	Long Reach	4 16 6	5 12 3	6 8 0	7 2 6	7 18 3	8 14 9	9 8 6	10 0 0	10 16 3	11 10 0	13 3 6	15 9 0	18 11 9	21 5 0	23 0 0	24 16 9	26 13 6
	Woolwich or Blackwall	5 5 9	6 1 6	6 17 0	7 11 9	8 10 3	9 4 0	10 2 6	11 0 9	11 14 6	12 8 6	14 3 6	16 5 9	19 11 0	22 1 6	24 16 9	27 12 0	
	Moorings or London Docks	5 16 0	6 9 9	7 3 6	7 17 3	8 19 6	9 13 3	10 11 6	11 10 0	12 8 6	13 2 3	14 14 6	17 0 6	20 10 3	23 4 6			
The Nore or Warps, and vice versa	Gravesend, Standgate Creek, or Blackstakes	1 18 9	2 3 3	2 7 0	2 10 6	2 19 9	3 6 3	3 11 9	3 15 6	4 2 9	4 10 3	5 1 3	5 16 0	6 8 9	7 14 6	8 14 0	9 13 3	10 12 6
	Long Reach or Chatham	2 6 0	2 10 6	2 15 3	2 19 9	3 9 0	3 18 3	4 2 9	4 7 6	4 13 9	5 5 0	5 16 0	6 15 3	8 5 6	9 13 3	10 12 6	11 11 9	12 15 3
	Woolwich or Blackwall	2 15 3	3 1 9	3 8 0	3 13 6	4 2 9	4 10 3	4 19 0	5 8 6	5 16 0	6 4 3	7 2 6	8 3 9	9 4 0	11 11 9	12 11 2	13 16 0	
	Moorings or London Docks	3 4 6	3 10 9	3 17 3	4 2 9	4 16 6	5 5 9	5 15 0	6 4 3	6 13 6	7 2 6	8 1 0	9 4 0	11 0 9	12 17 6	13 16 1		
Gravesend Reach, and vice versa	Long Reach	0 9 3	0 14 9	1 0 3	1 5 3	1 10 0	1 14 6	1 19 0	2 3 9	2 8 3	2 13 0	2 17 6	3 2 0	3 6 9	3 11 3	4 12 0	5 10 6	
	Woolwich or Blackwall	1 3 0	1 7 6	1 12 3	1 16 9	2 4 3	2 13 6	3 2 6	3 11 9	3 18 3	4 5 6	4 13 9	5 1 3	6 4 3	7 11 9	8 16 6	9 13 3	
	Moorings or London Docks	1 7 6	1 14 0	2 0 6	2 6 0	2 15 3	3 4 6	3 13 6	4 2 9	4 12 0	5 1 3	5 10 6	5 19 6	7 7 3	8 14 9			
	Sheerness, Standgate Creek, or Blackstakes	2 15 3	2 19 0	3 1 9	3 4 6	3 13 6	4 2 9	4 12 0	5 1 3	5 10 6	5 19 6	6 8 9	6 18 0	7 7 3	7 16 5			
	Chatham	3 4 6	3 8 0	3 10 9	3 13 6	4 2 9	4 12 0	5 1 3	5 10 6	5 19 6	6 8 9	6 18 0	7 7 3	7 16 5	8 5 6			
Long Reach, and vice versa	Woolwich or Blackwall	0 18 6	1 2 0	1 4 9	1 7 6	1 16 9	2 6 0	2 15 3	3 4 6	3 13 6	4 2 9	4 12 0	5 3 6	5 16 0	6 8 9	8 5 6	9 4 0	
	Moorings or London Docks	1 7 6	1 11 3	1 14 0	1 16 9	2 6 0	2 15 3	3 4 6	3 13 6	4 2 9	4 12 0	5 3 6	5 16 0	6 8 9	7 7 3	9 4 0		
	Sheerness, Standgate Creek, or Blackstakes	3 4 6	3 8 0	3 10 9	3 13 6	4 2 9	4 12 0	5 1 3	5 10 6	5 19 6	6 8 9	6 18 0	7 7 3	7 17 6	8 5 6	8 14 9		
	Chatham	3 13 6	3 17 3	4 0 0	4 2 9	4 12 0	5 1 3	5 10 6	5 19 6	6 8 9	6 18 0	7 7 3	7 16 6	8 6 6	8 14 9	9 4 0		
Woolwich, or Blackwall, and vice versa	Moorings or London Docks	0 18 6	1 2 0	1 4 9	1 7 6	1 10 0	1 12 3	1 16 9	2 1 6	2 6 0	2 10 6	2 15 3	2 19 9	3 4 6	3 9 0			
	Sheerness, Standgate Creek, or Blackstakes	3 13 6	3 17 3	4 0 0	4 2 9	4 12 0	5 1 3	5 10 6	5 19 6	6 8 9	6 18 0	7 7 3	7 16 6	8 5 6	8 14 9			
	Chatham	4 2 9	4 6 6	4 9 3	4 12 0	5 1 3	5 10 6	5 19 6	6 8 9	6 18 0	7 7 3	7 16 6	8 5 6	8 14 9	9 4 0			

Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4th more than ships having British registers, except when such first-mentioned ships shall be chiefly laden with corn or other provisions, or shall, by any order of his Majesty's most honourable privy council, be privileged to enter the ports of this kingdom, upon paying the same duties of tonnage as are paid by British ships; in which case such ships and vessels not having British registers shall pay the like rates of pilotage only as are payable by ships having British registers.

For 1-2 foot exceeding the above draughts of water, the medium price between the two limits.

For intermediate distances a proportionate rate.

For removing a ship or vessel from moorings into a dry or wet dock, for a ship under 300 tons, 15*s.*; 300 to 600 tons, 1*l.* 1*s.*; 600 to 1,000 tons, 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.*; above 1,000 tons, 2*l.* 2*s.*—In the river Thames, above Gravesend, for a boat of a class carrying an anchor of above 4 cwt. with a corresponding tow-line, 2*l.* 2*s.*; ditto, ditto, above 2 cwt. 1*l.* 1*s.*; ditto, ditto, under 2 cwt. [illegible] per trip for the whole distance from Gravesend to London; and in proportion for any part of that distance.—And for each man's service in those boats, 8*s.* per tide.

Table of the Rates of Pilotage to be demanded and received by Pilots licensed by the Lord Warden of the Cinque Ports and Constable of Dover Castle, or his Lieutenant for the time being, for piloting Ships and Vessels within the Limits in the said Table mentioned.

From	To	Under 7 Feet.	From 7 Feet to 10 Feet.	11 Feet.	12 Feet.	13 Feet.	14 Feet.	15 Feet.	16 Feet.	17 Feet.	18 Feet.	19 Feet.	20 Feet.	21 Feet.	22 Feet.	23 Feet and upwards.
		L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
The Downs	Nore, Sheerness, Standgate Creek, Gravesend	5 5 0	7 17 6	8 13 9	9 9 0	10 4 9	11 0 6	11 16 3	12 12 0	13 7 9	16 1 3	19 0 0	22 1 0	24 5 0	26 9 2	29 13 3
	Long Reach	5 16 0	8 8 6	9 9 0	10 4 9	11 3 0	11 18 10	12 18 3	13 14 0	15 0 9	17 14 4	21 4 2	24 5 1	26 9 2	28 13 3	30 17 4
	Blackwall or London	6 12 3	8 19 6	10 4 9	11 0 6	12 1 6	12 17 3	14 0 4	14 16 0	16 13 9	19 7 5	23 8 3	26 9 2	28 13 3		
Standgate Creek	Gravesend	3 6 2	3 17 0	4 8 2	4 19 0	5 10 3	6 1 3	6 12 3	7 3 3	7 14 [illegible]	8 5 4	8 16 4	9 7 4			

From the several rates mentioned in this Table there shall be deducted 5 per cent. when the number of Cinque Port pilots shall be reduced to 120.

Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4th more than ships having British registers, except when such first-mentioned ships shall be chiefly laden with corn or other provisions, or shall, by any order of his Majesty's most honourable privy council, be privileged to enter the ports of this kingdom, upon paying the same duties of tonnage as are paid by British ships; in which case such ships and vessels, not having British registers, shall pay the like rates of pilotage only as are payable by ships having British registers.

For 1-2 foot exceeding the above draughts of water, the medium price between the two limits.

For intermediate distances, a proportionate rate.

For putting a Pilot on Board, and for Pilotage of Ships and Vessels to the Anchorage in the Downs.*	60 Tons, and under 150.	150 Tons, and under 250.	250 Tons, and under 400.	400 Tons, and under 600.	600 Tons, and upwards
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
From off Dungeness to off Folkestone; the church bearing N. N. W. by compass	2 0 0	3 0 0	3 10 0	4 0 0	5 5 0
From off Folkstone to the South Foreland, the lights in one	1 10 0	2 0 0	2 10 0	3 0 0	4 4 0
From off the South Foreland to the Downs	1 5 0	1 5 0	1 10 0	2 0 0	3 3 0

In the River Thames above Gravesend

- For a boat of a class carrying an anchor of above 4 cwt. with a corresponding tow-line — *L. s. d.* 2 2 0
- Do. do. 2 cwt. — 1 1 0
- Do. do. under 2 cwt. — 0 15 0

} Per trip for the whole distance from Gravesend to London; and in proportion for any part of that distance.

And for each man's service in those boats, 8*s.* per tide.

Rates charged for the Pilotage of Vessels, with an account of other Charges affecting them in some of the undermentioned Ports.

Beaumaris District, viz.—From Bangor to a line drawn from Great Ormes Head to Point Linas; and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits.

N. B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot within this district, unless coming into or going out of port; but if he do take a pilot, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offer.

Rates of Pilotage, for Piloting Ships within the Beaumaris District.

		L. s. d.
Inwards.		
From the outside of the Sound into the Bay	Under 100 tons	0 15 0
	100 to 200	1 1 0
	200 — 300	1 11 6
	300 and upwards	2 2 0
From the inside of the Sound into the Bay	Under 100 tons	0 10 6
	100 to 200	0 15 0
	200 — 300	1 1 0
	300 and upwards	1 11 6
Outwards.		
Under 100 tons		0 10 6
100 to 200		0 15 0
200 — 300		1 1 0
300 and upwards		1 11 6

Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more than is stated in the above Table.

	L. s. d.
Should the pilot be landed at Great Ormes Head—extra	2 2 0
If taken out of the limits of his licence, to Chester or Liverpool	3 3 0

In case the pilot should happen to have *charge of the vessel* to either of the mid places — 5 5 0

The sum of 7*s.* 6*d.* per day is to be allowed to the pilot for every day such pilot may be detained on board in consequence of the ship or vessel performing quarantine, or detained under any other restrictions or circumstances such ship may be liable to.

Bristol.

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
	Per Ves.	*Per Ves.*
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
Pilotage from Lundy Island or the westward thereof to Kingroad, under 100 tons	3 18 9	3 3 0
100 and under 200 —	5 5 0	4 4 0
200 — 300 —	6 11 3	5 5 0
300 and upwards	7 17 6	6 6 0
From Coombe to Kingroad, under 100 tons	2 12 6	2 2 0
100 and under 200 —	3 10 0	2 16 0
200 — 300 —	4 7 6	3 10 0
300 and upwards	5 5 0	4 4 0
From Minehead to Kingroad, under 100 tons	1 6 3	1 1 0
100 and under 200 —	1 15 0	1 8 0
200 — 300 —	2 3 9	1 15 0
300 and upwards	2 12 6	2 2 0
From the Holms to Kingroad, under 100 tons	0 13 1½	0 10 6
100 and under 200 —	0 17 6	0 14 0
200 — 300 —	1 1 10½	0 17 6
300 and upwards	1 6 3	1 1 0
From Portishead, Kingroad, Hungroad, or Broad Pill, to Cumberland or Bathurst Basin, or *vice versa*, under 40 tons	0 5 0	0 4 0
40 and under 60 —	0 6 3	0 5 0
60 — 80 —	0 9 4½	0 7 6
80 — 100 —	0 12 6	0 10 0
100 — 200 —	0 18 9	0 15 0
200 — 300 —	1 5 0	1 0 0
300 and upwards	1 11 3	1 5 0
From Portishead, Kingroad, Hungroad, or Broad Pill, to either of them, under 100 tons	0 12 6	0 10 6
100 and under 200	0 18 9	0 15 0
200 — 300	1 5 0	1 0 0
300 and upwards	1 11 3	1 5 0

Bristol.

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
Tonnage dues — 9 feet and never to exceed	0 0 3 per ton 3 0 0 per ves.	0 0 2 per ton 2 0 0 per ves.
Ballast delivered at the Quay	0 2 3 per ton	0 2 0 per ton
Stones — delivered at Garmoyle	0 4 0 —	0 3 0 —
Stones —	0 5 3 —	0 3 6 —
Pilotage from Whitehouse Roads to Garmoyle, and *vice versa* — 9 feet	0 14 0 per ves.	0 10 6 per ves.
10 —	1 0 0 —	0 15 0 —
12 —	1 8 0 —	1 1 0 —
14 —	2 16 0 —	2 2 0 —
From Garmoyle to the Quay, & *vice versa*, 4 feet	0 6 7 —	0 5 0 —
6 feet	0 10 8 —	0 8 0 —
7 —	0 13 4 —	0 10 0 —
8 —	0 16 0 —	0 12 0 —
9 —	1 1 0 —	0 15 0 —
10 —	1 10 0 —	1 2 6 —
12 —	2 2 0 —	1 11 6 —
14 —	4 4 0 —	3 3 0 —
From Whitehouse Roads to the Quay, & *vice versa*, 9 feet	1 15 0 —	1 7 6 —
10	2 10 0 —	1 17 6 —
12 —	3 10 0 —	2 12 6 —
14 —	7 0 0 —	5 5 0 —

Brighton.—Pilotage for the Beaches at Brighthelmstone, Hastings, or Bexhill.

8 Feet and under.	8 to 10 Feet.	Above 10 Feet.
1*s.* 3*d.* per foot.	1*s.* 9*d.* per foot.	2*s.* per foot.

The above rates for the harbours and beaches are due both inwards and outwards; but no charge whatever is to be made for the use of pilot boats.

Ships going into the harbours of Rye and Shoreham, and unloading near the harbour's mouth, are subject to 1-2 pilotage only; but if such ships are afterwards removed by pilots to any dock or wharf near the town, where such ships may be for the purpose of taking in cargo, in that case the full pilotage is due.

Ships taken charge of in distress are to pay according to circumstances, to be settled by the sub-commissioners.

Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more of the rates of pilotage for the harbours and beaches, than stated in the above Table.

Dartmouth District.—From Bob's Nose to the Start, and *vice versa*; and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits.

N. B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot within this district, unless going into or coming out of port, within a line drawn from the Mewstone to the Blackstone; but if he do take a pilot between Bob's Nose and the Start, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offer.

Rates of Pilotage, for piloting Ships within the Dartmouth District.—All British ships, if boarded without the run of the Mewstone East, or the Blackstone West, are to pay as follows: viz.—

	Per Foot. *s. d.*
Drawing 10 feet of water and under	2 6
10 to 12 feet	3 0
12 to 14 —	3 6
14 to 16 —	4 0
16 feet and upwards	5 0

All British ships, if boarded within that line, are to pay 1-4 part less.

All British ships, boarded within the Castle, are to pay only 1-2 pilotage, subject to the consideration of the weather, which is to be settled by the sub-commissioners.

In carrying ships out of the harbour, the pilotage is to be in all cases 1-3 less than the inward pilotage.

All ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more than the rates above stated.

Masters of ships taking a pilot at sea; viz. 2 leagues or more from the harbour's mouth, are to pay according to circumstances attending the hazard run, assistance required, &c., which is to be regulated, in case of dispute, by the sub-commissioners. The pilot is to provide a proper tow-boat and crew consisting of at least 4 men; for whose services he shall be entitled to charge 2*s.* 6*d.* per man per day, in addition to the rate of pilotage; and, in case of dispute, to be settled by the sub-commissioners, and the assistance rewarded according to the risk, time, and trouble.

Downs to the Isle of Wight.—Rates of Pilotage.

	L. s. d.
Ships drawing 7 feet and under	3 15 0
8 —	4 7 6
9 —	5 0 0
10 —	5 12 6
11 —	6 4 0
14 —	6 15 0

* When the pilot is put on board by a boat from the shore, one seventh to the pilot, and the remaining six sevenths to the boat and crew

Ships drawing 13 feet	£. 7 6 0
14	7 17 6
15	8 8 0
16	9 0 0
17	9 9 0
18	11 0 0
19	13 0 0
20	15 0 0
21	17 0 0
Above 21	18 0 0

Dublin.

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Ballast dues. Taken on board within the harbour	0 2 6 per ton	0 1 3 per ton
thrown out —	0 0 10 —	0 0 5 —
Tonnage dues	0 1 6 —	0 0 9 —
Inwards.		
Pilotage over the Bar from without the Banks	0 6 0 per foot	0 3 0 per foot
within —	0 4 0 —	0 2 0 —
within the Heads	0 3 0 —	0 1 6 —
From Poolbeg to the Quays	0 1 6 —	0 1 0 —
Outwards.		
From the Quays to Poolbeg laden	0 1 6 —	0 1 0 —
From Poolbeg over the Bar laden	0 1 6 —	0 1 0 —

Dundee.

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Harbour dues. Vessels from India or China	0 5 0 per ton	0 2 6 per ton
West Indies, Azores, Madeira, Teneriffe, Cape de Verd Isles, Greenland, and Davis's Straits	0 1 4 —	0 0 8 —
America, Mediterranean, or any port north of Drontheim	0 1 0 —	0 0 6 —
Any part between Dunkirk and Gibraltar (including Dunkirk), and from any part in the Baltic	0 0 8 —	0 0 4 —

N. B.—British vessels navigated by non-freemen pay 1-2 more.

Exeter District, viz.—From Lyme to Bob's Nose, and *vice versa*; and to and from, and into and out of, all ports, and places within those limits.

N. B.—No master of a ship is compelled to take a pilot within this district, until he comes off the ports of Exmouth and Teignmouth; but if he do take a pilot between Lyme and Bob's Nose, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offer.

Rates of Pilotage for Vessels in and over the Exmouth Bar, to the Moorings in the Eight at Exmouth, and out again over the Bar.

Coasters.

			£. d.
If above per register,	60 tons	and not exceeding 80 tons	3 6
	80 —	100 —	4 0
	90 —	100 —	4 6
	100 —	125 —	5 6
	125 —	150 —	6 0
	150 —	175 —	7 0
	175 —	200 —	7 6
	200 —	250 —	9 6
	250 —	300 —	11 6
	300 —	400 —	12 6

For foot draught of water.

And if carried up to Topsham Quay and back, 1 guinea extra.

Ships from Foreign Ports.

			£. d.
If above per register or measurement	60 tons	and not exceeding 80 tons	6 6
	80 —	100 —	7 6
	100 —	150 —	9 6
	150 —	200 —	12 6
	250 —	300 —	15 6
	300 —	350 —	15 6

For foot draught of water.

And if carried up to Topsham Quay and back, 1 guinea extra.

For Vessels in and out, over Teignmouth Bar.

Coasters.

			£. d.
If above per register,	60 tons	and not exceeding 100 tons	3 0
	100 —	150 —	3 6
	150 —	200 —	4 0
	250 —	300 —	4 6
	250 —	300 —	5 0
	300 —	400 —	5 6

For foot draught of water.

Ships from Foreign Ports.

			£. d.
If above per register or measurement	60 tons	and not exceeding 80 tons	3 0
	80 —	100 —	3 6
	100 —	150 —	4 0
	140 —	200 —	4 6
	200 —	250 —	5 0
	250 —	300 —	6 0
	300 —	400 —	7 0

For foot draught of water.

Ships not having British registers, nor being privileged as British, to pay 1-4 more than the above rates.

Pilots to provide a boat and crew to assist over the bar to a mooring berth; for which they shall be paid, over and above the pilotage, 2s. 6d. for each man or car employed for that purpose.

Masters of ships taking a pilot off the Bill of Portland, or the Start (which is optional to them), are to pay, beyond the pilotage from Bob's Nose, or Lyme, as follows, viz.:—Colliers and coasters, 2 guineas; ships from foreign ports, 3 guineas; and proportionately for intermediate distances.

Falmouth District, viz.—From the Dodman to the Lizard, and *vice versa*; and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits.

N. B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot, within this district, unless going into or coming out of a port within a line drawn from the Manacles to the Dodman; but if he do take a pilot between the Dodman and the Lizard, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offer.

Rates of Pilotage, for piloting Ships within the Falmouth District.

From	To	8 Feet and under.	8 to 10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
		£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Sea & vice versa	Carrick Road, Falmouth, & St. Mawes' Harbours, & St. Just Pool	24	30	35	43	46	50	55	60	67	75	84	94
Do. do.	Helford Harbour	21	24	27	30	34	38	42	47	52	60		
Carrick Roads, & vice versa	Falmouth, & St. Mawes' Harbours, & St. Just Pool	1s. 6d. per foot of the draught of water.											

Masters of vessels taking a pilot at sea, are to pay—

	£. s. d.
For putting a pilot on board without a line drawn from the Manacles to the Dodman	2 0 0
Ditto, from the entrance of Helford Harbour to the Gull Rock	1 0 0
Ditto, a mile without the Shag Rock of Pendennis Point	0 10 0
Ditto, off the Lizard, or in the parallel of the Lizard, or meeting a vessel there, and running before her, not being able to put a pilot on board, provided the master of the vessel consents to receive a pilot at that distance	3 3 0

Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more of the rate of pilotage than stated in the above Table.

N. B.—No allowance for a pilot going on board a ship in the harbour to take her out, except in extremely bad weather, or when signals are on shore or making signals of distress, in which case a reasonable compensation is to be made.

All vessels belonging to the port of Truro, bound to or from foreign parts, including Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, or Sark, are to pay no more than 1-3 the above rates of pilotage, when navigating within the limits of the Falmouth district on their passage to or from Truro. The rate of 1s. 6d. per foot for subsequent removal remaining unaltered.

Fowey District, viz.—From Looe, inclusive, to the Dodman, and *vice versa*; and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits.

N. B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot within this district till he comes off the port of Looe; or within a line drawn from the Looe to the Gribben Head, for the port of Fowey; or from the Gribben Head to Blackhead, for Polkerris Bay; or from the Gribben Head to the Dodman, for Mevagissey; but if he do take a pilot between Looe and the Dodman, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offer.

Rates of Pilotage for piloting ships within the Fowey District.

All British ships of 14 feet water and upwards, if boarded without the land, off Looe or the Dodman, which must be known by the western land, called the Gray, being open off the Dodman, shall pay 6*d.* per foot pilotage, if carried into the harbour of Fowey, Mevagissey Pier, Charlestown Basin, or Looe.

British ships under 14 feet water, boarded as above stated, to pay 4*d.* per foot for the like service.

British ships above 14 feet, within that line, to pay only 4*d.* per foot; and ships under 14 feet, boarded as above, only 3*d.* per foot for the like service.

All ships not having a British register to pay 1-4 more than the rates above stated.

All the above rates to be paid in proportion for every 1-2 foot of water, but no allowance to be made for any draught of water above, or under 1-2 a foot.

In carrying ships to sea from the said harbour, the pilotage is to be in all cases 1-3 less than the inward pilotage, as mentioned in the third article.

All ships which may anchor on their arrival either in Mevagissey Bay, or the sands off Fowey, to pay only 1-2 of the before-mentioned rates of pilotage.

All pilots employed to carry ships from any one of the harbours to another, to be paid the same pilotage as if the said ships had been boarded within the headlands coming from sea.

Masters of ships taking a pilot at sea (which is optional with them)

	£. s. d.
3 leagues without a line drawn from the Looe to the Dodman are to pay	3 3 0
6 leagues ditto	4 4 0
10 leagues ditto	6 6 0

and proportionately for intermediate distances.

Galway.

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Pilotage from Sea to the Roads, and *vice versa*		
20 to 60 tons	0 10 0 per voy.	0 5 0 per voy.
60 — 100 —	0 14 0 —	0 7 0 —
100 — 150 —	1 0 0 —	0 10 0 —
150 — 200 —	1 8 0 —	0 14 0 —
200 and upwards	1 14 8 —	0 17 6 —
From the Roads to the Dock, and *vice versa*		
20 to 60 tons	0 15 0 —	0 7 6 —
60 — 100 —	1 1 0 —	0 10 6 —
100 — 150 —	1 10 0 —	0 15 0 —
150 — 200 —	2 2 0 —	1 1 0 —
200 and upwards	2 12 0 —	1 6 0 —

Cromarty.

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
Harbour dues - outward	0 1 6 per ton	0 0 3 per ton
inward	0 0 4 —	0 0 4 —
Anchorage - -	0 0 1 —	0 0 0 1-2 —
Pilotage - -	0 0 2 1-4 —	0 0 1 1-2 —

Harwich—Rates of Pilotage, for piloting Ships into and out of Harwich Harbour.

From	To	Under 10 Feet.	10 to 13 Feet.	13 Feet and upwards.
		L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
Sea or Orfordness -	Harwich Harbour -	2 2 0	3 3 0	4 4 0
The Rolling Grounds -	Harwich Harbour -	1 1 0	1 11 6	2 2 0
Sea or Orfordness -		1 11 6	2 2 0	3 3 0
Harwich Harbour -	The Rolling Grounds -	two thirds of the above.		

Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more of the rates of pilotage than stated in the above Table, to be paid at the Custom-house, Harwich.

Holyhead District, viz.—To and from the anchorages at Great Ormes Head, along the coast of the Isle of Anglesea and Wales, as far as Bardsey Island, and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits (except the bar and harbour of Caernarvon, and the Swellies).

N. B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot within this district, till he comes to the North Stack, bound to Holyhead Harbour; but if he do take a pilot between Great Ormes Head and Bardsey Island, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offer.

Rates of Pilotage, for piloting Ships into and out of the Harbour of Holyhead.

Vessels per Register to pay, for

300 and less than 400 Tons	200 and less than 300 Tons.	120 and less than 200 Tons.	80 and less than 120 Tons.	60 and less than 80 Tons.	Under 60 Tons.
L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
2 3 0	2 2 0	1 11 6	1 1 0	0 15 0	0 10 6

Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more than stated in the above Table.

All ships and vessels, under any circumstances of distress, are to pay such pilot a further sum of money, to be calculated according to the extent and circumstances of such distress, and the services afforded.

Ships and vessels which shall be boarded by pilots, at the distance of 3 leagues or farther to the southward and westward of Holyhead (where it is optional to masters of vessels to take pilots), are to pay the several rates following; viz.

	L. s. d.
On having a Liverpool pilot on board, off Point Linas, and landing the Holyhead pilot there - - -	3 3 0
On landing the pilot at the Great Ormes Head - -	4 4 0
If a pilot is taken beyond the limits of his licence to Chester Water or to Liverpool - - - -	5 5 0

With the sum of 7*s.* 6*d.* per day for every day such pilot may be detained on board in consequence of the ship or vessel performing quarantine, or detained under any other restrictions such ships may be liable to.

Pilots boarding ships and vessels at a less distance than 3 leagues from the Head, as above, are to receive 10*s.* 6*d.* less for pilotage than the above rates.

It is particularly requested that commanders of ships, on discharging their pilots off Point Linas, or the Ormes Head, should be certain that such pilots will be taken on shore without being delayed on board such vessels or boats as may receive them; as a pilot will be entitled to 7*s.* 6*d.* per day for every day he shall be kept out from leading, after the day he is discharged from the ship or vessel he may have piloted, unless it can be proved that such delay had unavoidably happened from the violence of the wind and weather.

Hull. *Town Dues for Alien Vessels.*

	L. s. d.
Anchorage, under 100 tons - - -	0 1 6
100 and not 200 tons - -	0 2 0
200 and upwards - -	0 3 0
Jettage, under 100 tons - - -	0 13 6
if loads out more - -	0 3 6
100 and not 200 tons - -	0 17 0
if loads out more - -	0 4 0
200 and upwards - -	1 0 0
if loads out more - -	0 7 0
Hostage, per each 1*l.* sterling of the freight inwards - - - - -	0 0 2
Amongst the officers, per ship -	0 3 0
Ballast, for each ton taken on board, outwards -	0 0 2

Hull—*continued.*

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
Sea pilotage. From the Humber to Lyme or Boston Deeps - -	0 12 0 per foot	0 8 0 per foot
Trinity House Dues.		
Buoyage - under 90 tons	0 11 0 per ves.	0 2 0 per ves.
90	0 11 0 —	0 2 6 —
40	0 11 0 —	0 3 0 —
50	0 11 0 —	0 3 6 —
60	0 11 0 —	0 4 0 —
65	0 11 0 —	0 4 0 —
70	0 14 0 —	0 4 6 —
80	0 14 0 —	0 5 0 —
90	0 14 0 —	0 5 6 —
100	0 14 0 —	0 6 0 —
110	0 14 0 —	0 6 6 —
120	0 14 0 —	0 7 0 —
130	0 14 0 —	0 7 6 —
135	0 14 0 —	0 7 6 —
140	0 17 0 —	0 8 0 —
150	0 17 0 —	0 8 6 —
160	0 17 0 —	0 9 0 —
170	0 17 0 —	0 9 6 —
180	1 0 0 —	0 10 0 —
for every additional 10	0 1 0 —	0 0 6 —
Fine on importing a cargo	1 0 0 —	Nil.
Do. exporting —	6 13 4 —	—
Harbour master's dues -	0 2 3 —	—

Town Dues for British Vessels.

	Anchorage.	Jettage. Inwards.	Jettage. Outwards.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
Under 40 tons - -	0 1 0	0 1 6	0 1 0
40 and not 45 tons	0 1 0	0 2 0	0 1 0
45 — 50	0 1 6	0 2 0	0 1 6
50 — 100	0 1 6	0 2 6	0 2 6
100 — 150	0 2 0	0 3 6	0 3 6
150 — 200	0 2 0	0 4 6	0 4 0
200 — 250	0 2 6	0 5 0	0 5 0
250 — 300	0 2 6	0 6 0	0 6 0
300 and upwards -	0 3 6	0 7 0	0 6 6
	Exempt if belonging to freemen.	Not due unless with goods landed at, or taken in at, Hull, or within the harbour.	

	Foreign Rate	British Rate.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
Inwards.		
River pilotage. From the Northness of Dimlington seen open, or clear of the land to the southward thereof - -	0 7 0 per foot	0 5 0 per foot
From the same, for vessels coming from the southward - - -	0 7 0 —	0 5 0 —
From the same, for vessels coming from the northward and eastward - - - -	0 7 0 —	0 5 0 —
From the floating light until Spurn lights at north-east - - -	0 5 3 —	0 3 6 —
From Spurn lights at north-east, to the buoy of the Burcome or Grimsby	0 3 6 —	0 2 6 —
Outwards.		
With goods - - -	0 6 0 —	0 4 0 —
ballast - -	0 4 0 —	0 2 6 —
goods from Grimsby	0 3 0 —	0 2 0 —
ballast - -	0 2 0 —	0 1 4 —
Pilots attending on vessels	0 10 6 per day	0 7 0 per day
Dock dues. Vessels coming to, or going between Hull and the West Indies, North or South America, Africa, Greenland, or any place east of the North Cape of Norway, within the Straits of Gibraltar, and south of Cape St. Vincent - - -	0 3 6 per ton	0 1 9 per ton
Between Hull, and all places above the Sound, and westward of Ushant in Europe, without the Straits of Gibraltar -	0 2 6 —	0 1 3 —
Between Hull, and any port in Sweden, Denmark, or Norway, below Elsineur, Germany, Holland, Flanders, or France, to the eastward of Ushant - - -	0 1 3 —	0 0 10 —

Ipswich.

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
Water bailiff's dues	0 3 4 per ves.	0 1 8 per ves.
River dues, under 40 tons	0 0 2 per ton	0 0 1 per ton
40 to 50	0 0 3 —	0 0 2 —
50 — 60	0 0 4 —	0 0 3 —
60 — 70	0 0 6 —	0 0 4 —
70 — 80	0 0 8 —	0 0 5 —
80 — 90	0 1 0 —	0 0 6½ —
90 — 100	0 1 4 —	0 0 8 —
100 — 180	0 1 8 —	0 0 10 —
180 and upwards	0 1 8 —	
If delivering or taking in a cargo, at or below Downham Reach		0 0 5 —
Pilotage from Downham Reach to Levington Creek, and *vice versa*	0 1 6 per foot	0 0 9 per foot
From Levington Creek to Harwich Harbour, and *vice versa*	0 1 0 —	0 0 6 —
From Downham Reach to Harwich Harbour, and *vice versa*	0 2 6 —	0 1 3 —
From Ipswich Quay to Downham Reach, and *vice versa*.—Vessels with 1 mast	0 2 6 —	0 1 3 —
With 2 or more	0 3 6 —	0 1 6 —

Liverpool.

Rates of Pilotage for British Vessels trading to Foreign Parts.

	Per Foot. *L. s. d.*
Inward.—From the length of the west end of Great Ormes Head, bearing S. by W., or before Penman Bachan be shut in with Great Ormes Head, at the rate of	0 9 0
From the eastward of Great Ormes Head, as above	0 8 0
From the only house now on Great Hilbra Island, bearing S. S. W. by the compass, or shall be piloted from the Road of Hoylake only, or from the buoy of the Fair-Way in Formby Channel	0 4 0
Outward.—Whether through the Rock or Formby Channel	0 4 0

No British vessel, trading to foreign parts, inward and outward bound, is to refuse a pilot; but if such vessel have passed the Brazil buoy in the Rock Channel, or the Middle Patch buoy in Formby Channel, or if a pilot boat fall in with a vessel in the narrows of the channels in stormy weather, that she cannot board her without imminent danger, the pilot shall then lead the way, and, in either case, be entitled to such pilotage as shall be awarded by the committee at their next meeting.

For Alien Ships and Vessels.

	Per Foot. *L. s. d.*
Inward.—From the length of Great Ormes Head, as above, at the rate of	0 12 0
From the eastward of Great Ormes Head, as above	0 11 0
From the only house now on Great Hilbra Island, bearing S. S. W. by the compass, or shall be piloted from the Road of Hoylake only, or from the buoy of the Fair-Way in Formby Channel	0 5 6
Outward.—Whether through the Rock or Formby Channel	0 7 0

An alien vessel, inward or outward bound, is not to refuse a pilot, as circumstances are described for English foreign vessels as above.

For Coasting Vessels, and those trading to and from Ireland, the Islands of Faro or Farro, Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, Sark, and Man.

	Per Foot. *L. s. d.*
Inward.—From the length of Great Ormes Head, as above, at the rate of	0 4 6
From the eastward of Great Ormes Head, as above	0 4 0
From the only house now on Great Hilbra Island, bearing S. S. W. by the compass, or shall be piloted from the Road of Hoylake only, or from the buoy of the Fair-Way in Formby Channel	0 2 0
Outward.—Whether through the Rock or Formby Channel	0 2 0

No coasting vessel to pay for less than 8 feet of water, nor any vessel to pay for odd inches under 1-2 a foot. No coasting vessel, inward or outward bound, of the burden of 100 tons or upwards, (unless she be in ballast,) is to refuse a pilot, as the master or owner, &c. must pay the full pilotage if one be offered. No vessel is to be deemed a coaster unless she has been 6 months in that trade.

Extra Pay.

	Per Day. *L. s. d.*
In the river, exclusive of the day coming from sea, the day of docking, and the day of going to sea, for the pilot's attendance, if required by the master, or owner, &c	0 5 0
And if the attendance of a pilot boat be requested as above	0 2 0

The pilotage from sea into Hoylake is 1-2 inward, and from Hoylake out to sea 1-2 outwards.

*** Notwithstanding the pilot or the boat be not employed a whole day, to be paid for a day.

So far includes all the rates and prices for pilotage and extra pay.

The Pilots' Committee beg leave to recommend to the merchants of Liverpool, &c. that when a pilot conducts a ship or vessel into port to their satisfaction, to employ the same pilot to take the vessel out again; and if he should be absent on duty, that one belonging to the same boat be employed.

Pilots' Rules and Regulations.—Any person acting as a pilot in the port of Liverpool, without a licence, to forfeit 20*l.*

Pilots refusing to conduct ships, or assist ships in distress, to forfeit 10*l.*, and lose their licence.

Masters in coasting trade in ballast, or under the burden of 100 tons, may pilot their own vessels.

Masters of vessels forcibly taking pilots beyond the limits of the port, shall forfeit not exceeding 20*l.*, nor less than 5*l.*

Pilots misbehaving to have their license recalled, and if they act afterwards, to be liable to the same penalties as if they were not pilots.

Vessels liable to pay pilotage coming into port, to display a signal for a pilot, under a penalty of 5*l.*

Reward for pilots assisting ships in distress to be settled by the committee.

Compensation to be made to pilots for taking vessels out of the port which have been forced back, to be fixed by the committee.

Ships forced back after parting with the pilot, and piloted out again from Hoylake, to pay 1-2 the prices.

Every master to give the pilot a true account of the draught of water of his ship, and pilots authorised to admeasure.

Pilots to obey the orders of the harbour and dock masters.

No vessels to be brought round the Rock, or into the docks, in the night time.

Londonderry.

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
Quay dues (except French) overseas	0 0 6 per ton	0 0 3 per ton
coasting	—	0 0 2 —
Harbour dues overseas	0 0 6 —	0 0 3 —
coasting	—	0 0 2 —
Inwards.		
Pilotage. 7 feet and under	1 1 0 per ves.	0 14 6 per ves.
Above 7 ft. and under 8 ft.	0 3 0 per foot	0 2 0 per foot
8 — 9	0 3 4 —	0 2 3 —
9 — 10	0 3 8 —	0 2 4 —
10 — 11	0 4 0 —	0 2 8 —
11 — 12	0 4 4 —	0 3 0 —
12 — 13	0 4 8 —	0 3 4 —
13 — 14	0 5 0 —	0 3 6 —
14 — 15	0 5 4 —	0 4 0 —
15 and upwards	0 5 8 —	0 4 4 —
Outwards.		
7 feet and under	0 17 6 per ves.	0 10 6 per ves.
Above 7 ft. and under 8 ft.	0 2 6 per foot	0 1 6 per foot
8 — 9	0 2 9 —	0 1 9 —
9 — 10	0 3 0 —	0 2 0 —
10 — 11	0 3 3 —	0 2 3 —
11 — 12	0 3 6 —	0 2 6 —
12 — 13	0 3 9 —	0 2 9 —
13 — 14	0 4 0 —	0 3 0 —
14 — 15	0 4 4 —	0 3 3 —
15 and upwards	0 4 4 —	0 3 6 —

N. B.—All British ships from foreign parts to pay 4*d.* per foot extra; or if bound to foreign ports, having on board 1-2 a cargo, or with passengers, to pay 4*d.* per foot extra, in addition to the above charges.

Lynn.

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
Town dues. Beaconage	0 1 1-2 per ton	0 0 1 per ton
Stackage	0 0 0 3-4 —	0 0 0 1-2 —
and 1-5th of the beaconage if at the Boal.		
Ballast	0 0 8 per 3 tons	0 0 4 per 3 tons
Mooring dues	0 0 1 1-2 per ton goods	0 0 0 3-4 per ton goods
which may be increased to	0 0 2 —	0 0 1 —
Pilotage, 10 ft. & under	0 3 0 per foot	0 1 6 per foot
10 1-2 to 12	0 3 6 —	0 1 9 —
12 1-2 to 14 1-2	0 4 0 —	0 2 0 —
14 1-2 and upwards	0 5 0 —	0 2 6 —

Milford, District, viz.—From Caldy Island, along the coast to St. David's Head, and from thence to Cardigan Island, and vice versa; and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits.

N. B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot within this district, unless going into or coming out of port, within a line drawn from Leany Point to Skokam Island; but if he do take a pilot between Caldy Island and Cardigan Island, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offer.

Rates of Pilotage, for piloting Ships into the Harbour of Milford, and up and down the said Harbour.

From	To	Rates per Foot. Under 14 Feet.	14 Ft. and upwards.
		L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
A line drawn from St. Anne's Point to Sheep's Island	Any part of the harbour below a line drawn from Nawton Nose Point to Martin's Haven	0 2 6	0 3 6
A line drawn from St. Anne's Point to Sheep's Island, or from Hubberstone Road	Any place above a line drawn from Newton Nose Point to Martin's Haven, in addition	0 2 0	0 2 6

Additional Rates for Ships boarded without the entrance of the Harbour.

	L. s. d.
From a line drawn from Lenny Point to Skokam Island, in addition per foot	0 2 0
If to the southward of St. Gowen's Head, ditto	0 1 0
Or from Caldy Island eastward, or from the westward of the Greenholm, or 3 leagues without Lenny Point, in addition to the harbour pilotage	3 3 0
6 leagues ditto	4 4 0
10 leagues ditto	6 6 0

One fourth part is to be added to the harbour rates for ships not having British registers.

Rates for Services and Assistance performed in the Harbour.

For a boat carrying an anchor of above 6 cwt., with a corresponding hawser—

	L. s. d.	
If in Hubberstone Roads	2 2 0	Not exceeding; at the discretion of the sub-commissioners.
Each man in the boat, each tide	0 5 0	
If below Hubberstone Roads, a line drawn from the E. point of Gilliswick, to the E. point of Angle Bay and above the Stack Rock	2 12 6	
Each man in the boat, each tide	0 5 0	
If in Dale Road, and the anchor is brought from Milford	4 4 0	
Or if carried off from Dale	2 12 6	
Each man in the boat, each tide	0 5 0	

For a boat carrying off an anchor of 3 cwt. and not exceeding 6 cwt. with a corresponding hawser, the boat and men to have 3-4 of the same above specified.

For a boat with an anchor of 2 cwt. and not exceeding 3 cwt., with a corresponding hawser, the boat and men to have 1-2 of the said above specified sums.

For removing a ship drawing 14 feet water, and upwards, and bringing her alongside the quay, or into Hubberstone Pill—

From the situation, 1st or 2d, before mentioned—	L. s. d.	
For the pilot	1 1 0	
If with a boat an additional sum of	0 10 6	Not exceeding; at the discretion of the sub-commissioners.
Each person employed	0 5 0	
From the 3d station specified		
For the pilot	1 11 6	
If with a boat, an additional sum of	0 10 6	Not exceeding; at the discretion of the sub-commissioners.
Each person employed	0 5 0	

And for taking a ship of 14 feet draught of water and upwards, from the quays, or Hubberstone Pill, to moorings in any of the situations before mentioned, the like sums above specified.

Ships under 14 feet draught of water, to or from the situations before mentioned, 3-4 of the sums for the pilot; the boats and men as above specified.

For new mooring a ship drawing 14 feet water, in either of the situations before described—

	L. s. d.	
For the pilot	0 10 6	
If with a boat, an additional sum of	0 10 6	
Each person employed	0 5 0	Not exceeding.

Neweastle.

	Foreign Rate.		British Rate.	
	L. s. d.		L. s. d.	
Pilotage into or out of the port, or into or out of any of the creeks or members thereof from				
1st April	0 1 9	per foot	0 1 3	per foot
1st October	0 2 0	—	0 1 6	—
Up or down the Tyne between North and South Shields, and any part of the river above Bill Point	0 2 0	—	0 1 6	—
Up or down the river below Bill Point	0 1 6	—	0 1 0	—
	N. B.—5*s.* per vessel extra, if with leeboards.			
Buoyage and beaconage, Vessels loaded 50 tons and under	0 1 6	per ves.	0 0 4	per ves.
51 to 100	0 1 6	—	0 0 9	—
101—200	0 1 6	—	0 0 11	—
201—300	0 1 6	—	0 1 1	—
301 and above	0 1 6	—	0 1 3	—
Town dues. On coals and grindstones exported	0 1 4	pr. chal.	0 0 2	pr. chal.
Harbour dues laden	0 6 10	per ves.	0 4 6	per ves.
ballast	0 5 10	—	0 4 2	—
Some particular kind of do. without ballast or goods	0 8 4	—	0 7 0	—
Hostmen's dues. Grindstones	0 4 10	—	0 3 2	—
Anchorage	0 0 8	pr. chal.	0 0 4	pr. chal.
	0 1 0	per ves.	Nil.	

Newhaven and Shoreham District, viz.—From Dungeness to the Owers, and vice versa; and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits.

N. B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot within this district, until he comes to the entrance of Rye, Shoreham, or Newhaven, and is bound to one of those ports; but if he does take a pilot between Dungeness and the Owers, it must be a district pilot, if one offers.

Rates of Pilotage, for piloting Ships within the Newhaven District.—Coast pilotage from Dungeness to the west end of the Owers: 7 feet draught and under, 2*l.* 16*s.* 6*d.*; 7 to 10 feet, 4*l.* 4*s.* 0*d.*; 11 feet, 4*l.* 13*s.*; 12 feet, 5*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.*; 13 feet, 5*l.* 9*s.* 6*d.*; 14 feet, 5*l.* 18*s.*; 15 feet, 6*l.* 6*s.*; 16 feet, 6*l.* 15*s.*; 17 feet, 7*l.* 2*s.*; 18 feet, 7*l.* 8*s.*; 19 feet, 9*l.* 15*s.*; 20 feet, 11*l.* 5*s.*; 21 feet, 12*l.* 15*s.*; above 21 feet, 13*l.* 10*s.*

Harbour Pilotage.—New Haven.—8 feet draught and under, per foot, 1*s.* 6*d.*; 8 to 10 feet, 1*s.* 9*d.*; above 10 feet, 3*s.*

Rye.—8 feet draught and under, per foot, 2*s.* 6*d.*; 8 to 10 feet, 3*s.*; above 10 feet, 4*s.*

Shoreham.—8 feet draught and under, per foot, 2*s.* 6*d.*; 8 to 10 feet, 3*s.*; above 10 feet, 4*s.*

North Channel, &c. upwards from Orfordness to London.—Of the pilots within this district, some are licensed from the Dudgeon light-vessel to Orfordness, and thence to the Downs; others are further licensed from Smith's Knoll to Orfordness. But the taking of pilots along the coast, to the northward of Orfordness, is optional to masters of vessels; though, if a pilot be employed, he must be licensed as above, if one offers.

Licences granted for the northward of Orfordness do not authorise the pilotage into or out of Yarmouth Roads or Harbour, except as may be requisite in the passage to the Downs or river.

Penzance District, viz.—From the Lizard to Cape Cornwall, and *vice versa*; and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits.

N. B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot within this district, until he comes within a line drawn from St. Clement's Isle to Trewavas Head, for Mount's Bay and Penzance; but if he does take a pilot between the Lizard and Cape Cornwall, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offer.

Rates of Pilotage, for piloting Ships within the Penzance District.

From	To	7 Feet and under.	8 to 10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
		s.	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*	*s.*
Sea, and *vice versa*	Either of the roadsteads or piers in Mount's Bay	10	16	24	30	35	40	45	50	55	60	67	77
All roadsteads, &c. *vice versa*	Either of the different piers in Mount's Bay	1*s.* 6*d.* per foot of the draught of water.											

Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more than stated in the above Table.

Boats and vessels boarded by pilots at a distance southward of the bay—

	L. s. d.
For putting a pilot on board without a line drawn from the Lizard to Tol Pedan Penwith	2 2 0
Ditto, within a line drawn from the Lizard to Tol Pedan Penwith, and without a line drawn from Carn Dew to Pengwinion Point	1 1 0
Ditto, within a line drawn from Carn Dew to Pengwinion Point, and without a line drawn from St. Clement's Isle to Trewavas Head	0 10 0
And within those limits to be charged inwards.	

Plymouth District, viz.—To the westward as far as Looe, and eastward as far as the Start; and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits.

N. B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot within this district, except going in or coming out of the port, within a line drawn from the Ram Head to the Mewstone; but if he do take a pilot between the Start and Looe, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offer.

Rates of Pilotage, for piloting Ships within the Plymouth District.—1. All British ships of 14 feet water and upwards, except East Indiamen, if boarded without the land off Penlee Point or the Mewstone, which must be known by the western land being open off the Ram Head, shall pay 2*s.* per foot pilotage, if carried into the Harbour of Hamoaze, Catwater, or Sutton Pool.

2. British ships under 14 feet water, down to 8 feet, boarded as above stated, are to pay 4*s.* per foot for the like service.

3. Ships above 14 feet, within that line, are to pay only 4*s.* per foot; and ships under 14 feet, boarded as above, only 3*s.* per foot, for the like service.

4. All ships under 8 feet water, are to pay as above stated, as if the vessel was of that draught.

5. All the above rates are to be paid in proportion for every 1-2 foot of water, but no allowance is to be made for any draught of water less than 1-2 foot.

6. In carrying ships to sea from the said harbours, the pilotage is to be, in all cases, the same as the inward pilotage.

7. All ships which may anchor on their arrival, either in Cawsand Bay or Plymouth Sound, are to pay only 1-2 of the before-mentioned rates of pilotage.

8. All pilots employed to carry ships from any one of the harbours to another, are to be paid the same pilotage as if the said ship had been boarded within the headlands coming from sea.

9. Should any ship above 17 feet water be boarded while the western land is open off the Ram Head by one of the 2d class pilots, and he runs the ship as far in as either of the buoys on the Panther or Shovel, and is there superseded by one of the 1st class, he shall be entitled to 1-3d of the pilotage.

10. Masters of ships taking a pilot at sea—

	L. s. d.
8 leagues without a line drawn from the Ram Head to the Mewstone, are to pay	3 3 0
6 leagues ditto	4 4 0
10 leagues ditto	6 6 0

and proportionately for intermediate distances.

11. Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more of the rates of pilotage than is stated in the above Table.

12. If a master choose to retain or employ a pilot whilst at anchor the rate for the lay days is to be 7*s.* 6*d.* a day, not including the day coming in or going out.

Poole District, viz.—From Christchurch, inclusive, to St. Alban's Head, and vice versa; and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits.

N. B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot within this district until he comes to the entrance of Poole, Studland Bay, or Christchurch, bound to one of those places; but if he do take a pilot between Christchurch and St. Alban's Head, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offer.

Rates of Pilotage for piloting Ships within the Poole District.—For the pilotage of any vessel from Studland Bay to Poole Quay, 3s. per foot.

For the pilotage of any vessel from Studland Bay to Brownsea, 2-3ds of the above.

For the pilotage of any vessel from St. Alban's or Christchurch Head, to Poole Quay, 4s. per foot, and in proportion from those heads to Brownsea, &c.

For the pilotage of any vessel from any place between either of those heads and Studland Bay, to Poole Quay, 3s. 6d. per foot; and in proportion from the same places to Brownsea, &c.

For the pilotage of any vessel outwards; the same as for a vessel inwards.

Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more of the rates of pilotage than above stated.

The pilot having charge of any ship or vessel, either inwards or outwards, and being required by the master or owner to remain on board any such ship or vessel, shall be paid 4s. per day in addition to the limited pilotage, for every day after the first.

The pilot of any vessel shall, if required by the owner or master only, provide a boat, with 4 men to attend her, from Stakes to the Quay, or from the Quay to Stakes, to tow her in or out, or to carry ropes on shore or to the buoys, as may be necessary; for which service there shall be paid the sum of 10s.

The pilots shall at all times, when required by the master or owner, lend their assistance to work any vessel to or from the quay, into or out of the harbour; for which service they shall be paid as follows, viz.—For working a vessel to or from the bay, 5s. per man; to or from Brownsea, 3s. ditto; and to or from Stakes, 2s. ditto; and the same for the boat they attend in; and 4s. per day each man, if detained on board after the first day.

Coasting vessels to pay 2-3ds of the above rates of pilotage.

Port Glasgow.

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
Harbour dues. If a foreign voyage	0 1 0 per ton	0 0 6 per ton
Above 30 tons coasting	0 0 6 —	0 0 3 —
Pilotage. From any place between Cumray Light & the Clough Light, or from the anchorage at Fairlee Roads, Rothsay Bay, or Quarantine Station, Holy Lock, to Greenock Roads, mooring and berthing, or vice versa	0 0 2½ —	0 0 1½ —
From any place inside the Clough Light, or from the anchorage at Gourock Roads, or the Pill of the Rank	0 0 1½ —	0 0 1 —
Vessels inward bound, not boarded until nearer Gourock than the Bay of Quirk	0 0 0½ —	0 0 0½ —
From Greenock to Port Glasgow, which rate is to be added to above for vessels from any of those stations for that port	0 0 1½ —	0 0 1 —

Portsmouth and Cowes District, viz.—From the Owers, within and without the Isle of Wight, to Peverel, and vice versa; and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits.

N. B.—The pilots of this district have authority to supersede such of the London or Cinque Port pilots as are licensed for the charge of vessels to the Isle of Wight, when they arrive near the channels leading into the ports and harbours within the Isle of Wight; but no master of a vessel is compelled to take a Portsmouth or Cowes pilot till within 5 miles of Bembridge Ledge, or 3 miles of Dunnose, St. Catharine's, or the Needles, (or till at St. Helen's, if he is piloted thereto by a duly licensed London or Cinque Port pilot,) but if he do take on board a pilot between the Owers and Peverel, it must be one of the district pilots.

Rates of Pilotage, for piloting Ships within the Portsmouth and Cowes District.—From 5 miles without Bembridge Ledge, or 3 miles without Dunnose or St. Catharine's, or 3 miles from the Needles' Point, coming in at that passage.

To Spithead, Motherbank, Stokes Bay, or Cowes Road.

	Per Foot. *s. d.*
For ships of every draught, as far as 17 feet inclusive	5 0
From 17 feet to 20 feet draught inclusive	6 0
Above 20 feet draught	7 0

But if the ship be boarded within 3 miles of the buoys off Bembridge, or within 3 miles of the Needles' Point, the rate to be 1s. per foot less than the above for each foot the ship draws. And the same rates as the above for pilotage outwards.

Ships inward bound, boarded between the Needles and Hurst Castle, to pay 2s. per foot. Between Hurst Castle and Newton Creek, 1s. per foot.

Ships anchoring and remaining at St. Helen's, Yarmouth, or Lymington, either inward or outward bound, to pay 1-3 the rate of pilotage.

Pilots taken on board by the captain without the above limits, to receive the following pay; viz.—

	L. s. d.
If at 3 leagues from the Wight	3 3 0
6 ditto ditto	4 4 0
10 ditto ditto	6 6 0

and proportionately for any intermediate distances.

Ships coming into Cowes Harbour to pay 1s. 6d. per foot, and the same on going out, as harbour pilotage.

Pilots of ships drawing 17 feet water and under, are to have 6s. per foot in addition to the pilotage from sea, from any place within the Isle of Wight to Portsmouth Harbour, or to Southampton, or to Buckler's Hard, or to Langstone Harbour and Lymington; and for all vessels drawing above 17 feet water, 3s. per foot.

Ships coming from the Downs with a London or Cinque Port pilot, to the Isle of Wight, and he continuing the charge into any of the places within the said islands, no duly licensed pilot offering, is to be allowed 1-2 pilotage from St. Helen's to the anchorage, but not otherwise.

For transporting vessels from one berth to another in Portsmouth harbour—

As far as 200 tons	10s. 6d.
200 to 300 —	15s.
Above 300 —	21s.

For the pilotage of vessels from Southampton to Redbridge, Eling, Fortham, or Chapel, and vice versa, 1s. per foot; and from Southampton to Humble, Bursledon, Leap, Buckler's Hard, or Beaulieu, and vice versa, 1s. 6d. per foot; and for any intermediate distance, a proportionate rate.

Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more of the rates of pilotage than stated in the above Table.

If a master choose to retain or employ a pilot while at anchor, the rate for the lay days is to be 7s. 6d. per day, not including the day coming in or going out.

For every 10 leagues beyond the meridian of Peveril Point, for ships not exceeding 14 feet water, 3l. 3s.; for the same distance, for ships of more than 14 feet water, 4l. 4s.; and proportionately for intermediate distances.

All vessels belonging to the port of Southampton, bound to or from foreign parts, are to pay no more than 1-2 the foregoing rates of pilotage, when navigating within the limits of either the Cowes or Portsmouth districts, provided such vessels shall at the time be actually bound to or from the port of Southampton.

All vessels trading to or from the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney or Sark, are to pay no more than 1-4 the foregoing rates of pilotage when navigating within the limits of the Portsmouth or Cowes districts.

Scilly District, viz.—To and from, and into and out of, all ports and places in and about the Scilly Islands.

Rates of Pilotage, for piloting Vessels within the Scilly District, in and out.

	L. s. d.
Coasting vessels of 60 —	1 1 0
60 to 75	1 11 6
75 — 100	2 2 0
100 — 200	2 12 6
200 tons	3 3 0
Vessels from foreign ports 60 tons	2 2 0
100 —	2 12 6
200 —	4 4 0
300 —	5 15 6
400 —	6 6 0

and in proportion for greater tonnage.

Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more than is above stated.

Sligo.

	Foreign Rate.		British Rate.	
	L. s. d.		*L. s. d.*	
Harbour dues	0 0 9 per ton		0 0 6 per ton	
	From April 1. to Sept. 30.	From Oct. 1. to Mar. 31.	From April 1. to Sept. 30.	From Oct. 1. to Mar. 31.
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
Inward.				
Pilotage from the Wheaten Rock to the Oyster Island	2 0	2 6	1 6	2 0
Rochley Point to do.	1 6	2 0	1 3	1 6
Outside the Bar to do.	1 1	1 3	0 10	1 0
Sligo side the Bar to do.	0 5	0 7	0 4	0 6
The Island to the Quay	1 6	1 6	1 0	1 0
Do. to the Pool	0 9	0 9	0 6	0 6
Outward.				
From any place to the sea	2 0	2 6	2 0	2 6

per foot draught of water.

Stockton.

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
Tees Navigation dues. Vessels trading to or from the river Tees from or to any foreign port (except laden with Norway timber only)	0 1 6 per ton	0 0 9 per ton
If laden with Norway timber only	0 1 0 —	0 0 6 —
Town dues	0 3 0 per ves.	0 2 6 per ves.
Pilotage from Sea to the eighth buoy	0 1 9 per foot	0 1 3 per foot
From Sea to Cargo Fleet	0 3 0 —	0 2 0 —
From Cargo Fleet to Middlesborough	0 1 0 —	0 0 9 —
From Cargo Fleet to Newport or Portrack	0 2 6 —	0 1 8 —
From Cargo Fleet to Stockton	0 3 0 —	0 2 0 —

and vice versâ.

N. B.—5s. per vessel extra, if with leeboards.

Waterford.

Pilotage. Taking pilots at the following distances.		12 Feet and upwards, between 25th March and 29th September, per Foot.									
		Above Creaden Head, and the Further Lake.		To Creaden Head and Glenbush Beach, and no further.			Above Passage and Glenbush Beach, or Waterford.				
Wexford.	*Eastward.*	Br.	Fo.	Br.	Fo.		Br.	Fo.			
		s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*		*s. d.*	*s. d.*			
St. Newlown Head	Saltees	1 8	3 0	2 7	4 6		4 0	5 10			
Folkskirt	Bag & Bun Hd.	1 4	2 7	2 5	4 0		3 6	5 4			
Below Duncannon, and nearer than Folkskirt or Bag and Bun		1 0	2 1	2 0	3 6		3 4	4 11			
		Between 29th September and 25th March, per Foot.									
St. Newlown Head	Saltees	2 1	3 3	3 0	4 11		4 5	6 3			
Folkskirt	Bag & Bun Hd.	1 8	3 0	2 7	4 5		4 0	5 10			
Below Duncannon, and nearer than Folkskirt or Bag and Bun		1 4	2 7	2 5	4 0		3 8	5 4			
		More than 6 and less than 12 Feet, between 25th March and 29th Sept., per Foot.									
St. Newlown Head	Saltees	1 2	2 7	1 11	3 6		3 2	4 11			
Folkskirt	Bag & Bun Hd.	1 0	2 1	1 9	3 0		3 0	4 5			
Below Duncannon, and nearer than Folkskirt or Bag and Bun		0 9	1 8	1 8	2 7		2 9	4 0			
		Between 29th September and 25th March, per Foot.									
St. Newlown Head	Saltees	1 8	3 0	2 4	4 0		3 8	5 4			
Folkskirt	Bag & Bun Hd.	1 6	2 7	2 1	3 6		3 6	4 11			
Below Duncannon, and nearer than Folkskirt or Bag and Bun		1 2	2 1	1 10	3 0		3 2	4 5			

Pilotage outwards, the same as Folkskirt, or Bag and Bun Head.

	Foreign Rate.	British Rate.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
Tonnage dues. Vessels reporting at the Custom-house (vessels, two thirds of whose cargo shall be coals, or from any port of Ireland, excepted)	0 0 5 per ton	0 0 2½ per ton
Vessels, two thirds of whose cargo shall be coals	0 0 3 —	0 0 1½ —
Vessels arriving from any port in Ireland	0 0 2 —	0 0 1 —

	If above the River or Pill of Kilmacow and below the Cove.	If between the River or Pill of Kilmacow and the Cove.	
		If by Lighters.	If at Ballast Quay.
	Per Ton. *L. s. d.*	*Per Ton.* *L. s. d.*	*Per Ton.* *L. s. d.*
Ballast dues. Taken on board British	0 3 3	0 1 10	0 1 4
foreign	0 4 6	0 2 8	0 2 2
Thrown out British	0 1 10	0 0 11	0 0 9
foreign	0 2 9	0 1 7	0 1 5

Wexford District.—From St. Alban's Head to Lyme, and vice versa; and to and from, and into and out of, all ports and places within those limits.

N. B.—No master of a vessel is compelled to take a pilot within this district, until he comes within a line drawn from Lulworth Cove to the Shambles, or within the Race, into the ports of Portland and Weymouth, and off those of Bridport and Lyme; but if he do take a pilot between St. Alban's Head and Lyme, it must be one of the district pilots, if one offer.

Rates of Pilotage, for piloting Ships within the Weymouth District.

From	To	Under 6 Feet.	From 6 Feet to 10 Feet.	Above 10 Feet.
		Per Foot.	*Per Foot.*	*Per Foot.*
A line drawn from Lulworth to the outer part of the Race or Shambles	Weymouth or Portland Roads or Bay	*s. d.* 2 0	*s. d.* 2 6	*s. d.* 3 0
Weymouth or Portland Roads or Bay	Weymouth Harbour	2 0	2 6	3 0
Sea	Bridport Harbour	2 0	2 6	3 0
Ditto	Lyme Harbour	2 0	2 6	3 0

The same rates of pilotage to be paid outwards.

Ships not having British registers to pay 1-4 more of the rates of pilotage than is stated in the above Table.

The pilot of any vessel shall, if required by the owner or master only, provide a boat with 4 men to attend her, from the roads to the quay, or from the quay to the roads, to tow her in or out, or carry ropes on shore or to the posts, &c., as may be necessary, for which service each man is to be paid 4*s.* per tide; the owner of the boat to be paid the same as a man.

Masters of ships taking a pilot at sea (which is optional to them) to pay as follows, viz.—

	L. s. d.
From St. Alban's Head or Bill of Portland, to off Bridport or Lyme	2 2 0
If 3 leagues from the limits of Weymouth, Bridport, or Lyme	3 3 0
If 6 ditto ditto	4 4 0
If 10 ditto ditto	6 6 0

Yarmouth.—Rates of Pilotage for piloting Ships within the Yarmouth District.—For ships above 14 feet draught of water.

From	To	Amount.
		L. s.
The Dudgeon Light, its parallel of latitude, or the northward thereof, and vice versa	Orfordness	10 10
	Yarmouth Road, within or without the sands	7 7
	Downs	2 0
Yarmouth, and vice versa	Orfordness	5 5
	Downs	16 16
Yarmouth Roads	Sea, through the Cockle, St. Nicholas, or over the Stanford	3
Sea	Yarmouth Roads, through any of the channels	5 5
	Orfordness	5 5
Smith's Knoll, and vice versa	The entrance of the Gatways leading into Yarmouth Roads	3 3
Orfordness	The entrance of the Gatways leading into Yarmouth Roads	3 3

For ships of 14 feet draught of water, and under, 2-3ds of the above rate.

Into and out of the Harbours of Yarmouth and Southwold.—For all laden ships,

	L. s. d.
Of above 50 and not exceeding 60 tons	1 0
60 — 70 —	1 4 0
70 — 80 —	1 6 0
80 — 90 —	1 8 0
90 — 100 —	1 10 0
100 — 110 —	1 13 0
110 — 120 —	1 16 0
120 — 130 —	2 0 0
130 — 140 —	2 4 0
140 — 150 —	2 8 0
150 — 175 —	2 15 0
175 — 200 —	3 0 0

The pilotage for ships in ballast is to be 1-3d part of the pilotage of laden ships; and ships returning into port by distress of weather, contrary winds, or on account of accident, are to pay 2-3ds of their common pilotage. Ships not having British registers are to pay 1-4 more of the rates of pilotage than stated in the above Table.

PIMENTO, ALLSPICE, or JAMAICA PEPPER (Fr. *Poivre de Jamaïque*; Ger. *Nelkenpfeffer*; It. *Pimenti*), the fruit of the *Myrtus pimenta*, a beautiful tree which grows in great plenty on the hills on the north side of Jamaica. The berries are spherical, and, when ripe, of a black or dark purple colour. But, as the pulp is in this state moist and glutinous, the berries are plucked when green; and being exposed in the sun to dry, they lose their green colour, and become of a reddish brown. They are packed in bags and hogsheads for the European market. The more fragrant and smaller they are, the better are they accounted. They have an aromatic, agreeable odour, resembling that of a mixture of cinnamon, cloves, and nutmegs, with the warm pungent taste of the cloves. Pimento is used in medicine; but its principal use is in the seasoning of soups and other dishes.

"The return," says Mr. Bryan Edwards, "from a pimento walk in a favourable season are prodigious. A single tree has been known to yield 150 lbs. of the raw fruit, or 100 lbs. of the dried spice;

there being commonly a loss in weight of ¼ in curing; but this, like many other of the minor productions, is exceedingly uncertain, and perhaps a very plenteous crop occurs but once in 5 years. The price in the British market, as may be supposed, fluctuates accordingly; but I believe its average for some years past may be set down at 7d. per lb., exclusive of the duty (3d.)."—(Vol. ii. p. 372. ed. 1819.) The price of pimento in bond, in the London market, has varied of late years from 4d. to 5½d. per lb.

At the period when Mr. Edwards's work was published, the annual imports of pimento from Jamaica amounted to about 672,000 lbs., and were decreasing every year—(*loc. cit.*). But at an average of the 3 years ending with 1832, the annual imports were 2,349,893 lbs., the annual exports 1,927,731 lbs., and the annual entries for home consumption 316,348 lbs. There has been, however, a considerable falling off in the imports of 1831 and 1832, which do not amount to much more than the half of those of the previous 4 years. The duty of 5d. per lb., being more than 100 per cent. on the price of the article, produces, at a medium, about 7,000*l.* a year. It ought to be repealed altogether. Jamaica furnishes more than 9-10ths of the pimento brought to England.

PINCHBECK (Ger. *Tomback*; Du. *Tombak*; Fr. *Tambac, Similor*; It. *Tombaco*; Sp. *Tambac, Tumbaga*), a name given to one of the many imitations of gold. By melting zinc in various proportions with copper or brass, some alloys result, the colours of which approach more or less to that of gold. This composition is frequently employed as a substitute for gold, in the formation of watch-cases, and various other articles of a like description. Pinchbeck is sometimes called *Tambac*, and sometimes *Similor* and *Petit-or*.

PINE, OR FIR, a species of forest tree, next, if not superior, to the oak, in point of utility and value. There are above 20 species of pines. They do not bear flat leaves, but a species of spines, which, however, are real leaves. They are mostly, though not all, evergreens; but the appearance of the tree, as well as the quality of the timber, varies with the species, and also with the situation in which it grows. Generally speaking, the timber is hardest and best in exposed cold situations, and where its growth is slow. We shall only notice those species, the timber of which is most in use in this country.

1. SCOTCH PINE (*Pinus Sylvestris*), is a native of the Scotch mountains, and of most northern parts of Europe; being common in Russia, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Lapland. It is straight, abruptly branched, rising in favourable situations to the height of 80 or 90 feet, and being from 3 to 4 feet in diameter. It is at perfection when 70 or 80 years old. The colour of the wood differs considerably; it is generally of a reddish yellow, or of a honey yellow, of various degrees of brightness. It has no larger transverse septa, and it has a strong resinous odour and taste. In the best timber, the annual rings are thin, not exceeding $\frac{1}{10}$th of an inch in thickness; the dark parts of the rings of a bright reddish colour; the wood hard and dry to the feel, neither leaving a woolly surface after the saw, nor filling its teeth with resin. The best Norway is the finest of this kind, and the best Riga and Memel are not much inferior. The inferior sorts have thick annual rings; in some, the dark parts of the rings are of a honey yellow, the wood heavy, and filled with a soft resinous matter, feels clammy, and chokes the saw. Timber of this kind is not durable, nor fit for bearing strains. In some inferior species, the wood is spongy, contains less resinous matter, and presents a woolly surface after the saw. Swedish timber is often of this kind.

Scotch fir is the most durable of the pine species. It was the opinion of the celebrated Mr. Brindley, "that red Riga deal, or pine wood, would endure as long as oak in all situations." Its lightness and stiffness render it superior to any other material for beams, girders, joists, rafters, &c. It is much used in joiners' work, as it is more easily wrought, stands better, is much cheaper, and is nearly, if not quite, as durable as oak.

Scotch fir is exported from Norway and Sweden, under the name of *redwood*. Norway exports no trees above 18 inches' diameter, consequently there is much sap wood; but the heart wood is both stronger and more durable than that of larger trees from other situations. Riga exports a considerable quantity under the name of masts and spars; pieces from 18 to 25 inches' diameter are called *masts*, and are usually 70 or 80 feet in length; those of less than 18 inches' diameter are called *spars*.—(See RIGA.) Yellow deals and planks are imported from various ports of Norway, Sweden, Prussia, Russia, &c. Tar, pitch, and turpentine, are obtained from the Scotch fir.—(See these titles.) When the tree has attained to a proper age, it is not injured by the extraction of these products.

2. SPRUCE PINE.—Of this there are 3 species: the Norway spruce, or *Pinus abies*; white spruce, or *Pinus alba*; and black spruce, or *Pinus nigra*. These are noble trees, rising in straight stems from 150 to 200 feet in height. They yield the timber known by the name of *white fir*, or *deal*, from its always being imported in deals or planks.

Deals imported from Christiania are in the highest estimation.—(See CHRISTIANIA.) The trees are usually cut into 3 lengths, generally of about 12 feet each; and are afterwards cut into deals by saw-mills, each length yielding 3 deals. The Norway spruce thrives very well in Britain, and produces timber little inferior to the foreign: it is somewhat softer, and the knots are extremely hard.

The white spruce, or *Pinus alba*, is brought from British North America. The wood is not so resinous as the Norway spruce: it is tougher, lighter, and more liable to twist in drying.

The black spruce, or *Pinus nigra*, is also an American tree; but it is not much imported into this country. The black and white spruce derive their names from the colour of the bark; the wood of both being of the same colour.

The colour of spruce fir, or white deal, is yellowish or brownish white; the hard part of the annual ring a darker shade of the same colour; it often has a silky lustre, *especially* in the American and British grown kinds. Each annual ring consists of two parts; the one hard, the other softer. The knots are generally very hard. The clear and straight-grained kinds are often tough, but not very difficult to work, and stand extremely well when properly seasoned. White deal, as imported, shrinks about $\frac{1}{11}$th part in becoming quite dry.

3. Weymouth Pine, or White Pine (*Pinus strobus*), is a native of North America, and is imported in large logs, often more than 2 feet square and 30 feet in length. It is one of the largest and most useful of the American trees, and makes excellent masts; but it is not durable, nor fit for large timbers, being very subject to dry rot. It has a peculiar odour.

4. Silver Fir (*Pinus picea*), is a native of the mountains of Siberia, Germany, and Switzerland, and is common in British plantations. It is a large tree, and yields the Strasburgh turpentine. The wood is of good quality, and much used on the Continent both for carpentry and ship building. The harder fibres are of a yellow colour, compact, and resinous; the softer nearly white. Like the other kinds of fir, it is light and stiff, and does not bend much under a considerable load; consequently, floors constructed of it remain permanently level. It is subject to the worm. It has been said to last longer in the air than in the water; and, therefore, to be fitter for the upper parts of bridges than for piles and piers.

5. Larch (*Pinus larix*). There are 3 species of this valuable tree; 1 European, and 2 American. The variety from the Italian Alps is the most esteemed, and has lately been extensively introduced into plantations in Great Britain. It is a straight and lofty tree, of rapid growth. A tree 79 years of age was cut down at Blair Athol, in 1817, which contained 252 cubic feet of timber; and one of 80 years of age, at Dunkeld, measured 300 cubic feet. The mean size of the trunk of the larch may be taken at 45 feet in length, and 33 inches' diameter. The wood of the European larch is generally of a honey yellow colour, the hard part of the annual rings of a redder cast; sometimes it is brownish white. In common with the other species of pine, each annual ring consists of a hard and a soft part. It generally has a silky lustre; its colour is browner than that of the Scotch pine, and it is much tougher. It is more difficult to work than Riga or Memel timber; but the surface is better when once it is obtained. It bears driving bolts and nails better than any other species of resinous wood. When perfectly dry, it stands well; but it warps much in seasoning.

It is in all situations extremely durable. It is useful for every purpose of building, whether external or internal; it makes excellent ship timber, masts, boats, posts, rails, and furniture. It is peculiarly adapted for flooring boards, in situations where there is much wear, and for staircases: in the latter, its fine colour, when rubbed with oil, is much preferable to that of the black oaken staircases to be seen in some old mansions. It is well adapted for doors, shutters, and the like; and, from the beautiful colour of its wood when varnished, painting is not necessary.—We have abstracted these particulars from *Mr. Tredgold's* excellent work, *The Principles of Carpentry*, pp. 209—217.

PINE-APPLE, or ANANAS, though a tropical fruit, is now extensively cultivated in hothouses in this country, and is well known to every one. When of a good sort and healthy, it is the most luscious, and, perhaps, the best fruit that this country produces; and when carefully cultivated, is equal in point of quality to that produced in the West Indies. A pine-apple raised at Stackpool Court, Pembrokeshire, and served up at the coronation dinner of George IV., weighed 10 lbs. 8 oz.—(*Vegetable Substances*, p. 379., *Lib. Entert. Knowledge.*)

PINT, a measure used chiefly in the measuring of liquids. The word is High Dutch, and signifies a little measure of wine. The English pint used to be of 2 sorts; the one for wine, the other for beer and ale. Two pints make a quart; 2 quarts a pottle; 2 pottles a gallon, &c. The pint, Imperial liquid measure, contains 34·659 cubic inches.

PIPE, a wine measure, usually containing 105 (very nearly) Imperial, or 126 wine gallons. Two pipes, or 210 Imperial gallons, make a tun. But, in practice, the size of the pipe varies according to the description of wine it contains. Thus, a pipe of port contains 138 wine gallons, of sherry 130, of Lisbon and Bucellas 140, of Madeira 110, and of Vidonia 120. The pipe of port, it is to be observed, is seldom accurately 138 gallons, and it is usual to charge what the vessel accurately contains.

PIPE-CLAY, a species of clay abounding in Devonshire, and other parts of England, employed in the manufacture of various sorts of earthenware, and in bleaching.

PIRACY, consists in committing those acts of robbery and violence upon the seas, that, if committed upon land, would amount to felony.

Pirates hold no commission or delegated authority from any sovereign or state, empowering them to attack others. They can, therefore, be only regarded in the light of robbers or assassins. They are, as Cicero has truly stated, the common enemies of all (*communes hostes omnium*); and the law of nations gives to every one the right to pursue and exterminate them without any previous declaration of war; but it is not allowed to kill them without trial, except in battle. Those who surrender, or are taken prisoners, must be brought before the proper magistrates, and dealt with according to law.

By the ancient common law of England, piracy, if committed by a *subject*, was held to be a species of treason, being contrary to his natural allegiance; and, by an *alien*, to be felony only: but since the statute of treasons (25 Edw. 3. c. 2.), it is held to be only felony in a subject. Formerly this offence was only cognisable by the admiralty courts, which proceed by the rules of the civil law; but it being inconsistent with the liberties of the nation that any man's life should be taken away, unless by the judgment of his peers, the statute 28 Hen. 8. c. 15. established a new jurisdiction for this purpose, which proceeds according to the course of common law.

It was formerly a question whether the Algerines, and other African states, should be considered pirates: but, however exceptionable their conduct might have been on many occasions, and however hostile their policy might be to the interests of humanity, still, as they had been subjected to what may be called regular governments, and had been admitted to enter into treaties with other powers, they could not be treated as pirates.

Pirates having no right to make conquests, or to seize upon what belongs to others, capture by them does not divest the owner of his property. At a very early period of our history, a law was made for the restitution of property taken by pirates, if found within the realm, whether belonging to strangers or Englishmen: but any foreigner suing upon this statute must prove that, at the time of the capture, his own sovereign and the sovereign of the captor were in mutual amity; for it is held that piracy cannot be committed by the subjects of states at war with each other.

Piracy was almost universally practised in the heroic ages. Instead of being esteemed infamous, it was supposed to be honourable.—(*Latrocinium maris gloriæ habebatur.*—*Justin.* lib. xliii. c. 3.) Menelaus, in the Odyssey, does not hesitate to inform his guests, who admired his riches, that they were the fruit of his piratical expeditions—(lib. iv. ver. 90.); and such, indeed, was the way in which most of the Greek princes amassed great wealth.—(*Goguet, Origin of Laws*, vol. i. p. 383. Eng. trans.)

The prevalence of this piratical spirit in these early ages may, perhaps, be explained by the infinite number of small independent states into which the country was divided, and the violent animosity constantly subsisting amongst them. In this way ferocious and predatory habits were universally diffused and kept alive; and it is not to be supposed that those who were at all times liable to be attacked by hosts of enemies, should very accurately examine the grounds upon which they attacked others. According, however, as a more improved system of government grew up, Greece, and a few states, as Athens, Corinth, &c., had attained to distinction by their naval power, piracy was made a capital offence: but though repressed, it was never entirely put down. Cilicia was at all times the great stronghold of the pirates of antiquity: and in consequence of the decline of the maritime forces of Athens, Rhodes, &c., which had kept them in check, they increased so much in numbers and audacity as to insult the majesty of Rome herself; so that it became necessary to send Pompey against them, with a large fleet and army, and more extensive powers than had been ever previously conferred on any Roman general.

During the anarchy of the middle ages, when every baron considered himself a sort of independent prince, entitled to make war on others, piracy was universally practised. The famous Hanseatic League was formed chiefly for the purpose of protecting the ships of the confederated cities from the attacks of the pirates by which the Baltic was then infested. The nuisance was not finally abated in Europe till the feudal system had been subverted, and the ascendency of the law everywhere secured. In more modern times, some of the smaller West India islands have been the great resort of pirates: latterly, however, they have been driven from most of their haunts in that quarter. They are still not unfrequently met with in the Indian seas east of Sumatra.

Besides those acts of robbery and depredation upon the high seas, which, at common law, constitute piracy, some other offences have been included under that term. Thus, by the stat. 11 & 12 Will. 3. c. 7., if any natural-born subject commits any act of hostility upon the high seas against others of his Majesty's subjects, under colour of a commission from any foreign power, this, though it would only be an act of war in an alien, shall be construed piracy in a subject. And further, any commander or other seafaring person betraying his trust, and running away with any ship, boat, ordnance, ammunition, or goods, or *yielding them up voluntarily to a pirate*, or conspiring to do these acts; or any person assaulting the commander of a vessel, to hinder him from fighting in defence of his ship, or confining him, or causing or endeavouring to cause a revolt on board, shall for each of these offences be adjudged a pirate, felon, and robber, and shall suffer death, whether he be principal, or merely accessory by setting forth such pirates, or abetting them before the fact, or receiving them, or concealing them or their goods after it; and the stat. 4 Geo. 1. c. 2. expressly excludes the principals from the benefit of clergy. By the stat. 8 Geo. 1. c. 24., the trading with known pirates, or furnishing them with stores or ammunition, or fitting out any vessel for that purpose, or in any wise consulting, combining, confederating, or corresponding with them; or the forcibly boarding any merchant vessel, though without seizing or carrying her off, and destroying or throwing any of the goods overboard, shall be deemed piracy; and such accessories to piracy as are described by the statute of King William are declared to be principal pirates, and all pirates convicted by virtue of this act are made felons without benefit of clergy. To encourage the defence of merchant vessels against pirates, the commanders and seamen wounded, and the widows of such seamen as are slain in any engagement with pirates, are entitled to a bounty, to be divided among them, not exceeding the *one fiftieth* part of the value of the cargo saved; and the wounded seamen are entitled to the pension of Greenwich Hospital.—(11 & 12 *Will. 3.* c. 7.; 8 *Geo.* 1. c. 24.) The first of these statutes also enacts, that if any mariner or inferior officer of any English ship decline or refuse to fight when commanded by the master, or shall utter any words

to discourage the other mariners from defending the same, he shall lose all the wages due to him, together with such goods as he hath in the ship, and be imprisoned and kept to hard labour for 6 months.

The 8 Geo. 4. c. 49. enacts that a bounty shall be paid to the officers and crews of such of his Majesty's ships of war as may be engaged in the actual taking, sinking, burning, or otherwise destroying any vessel or boat manned by pirates, of 20*l.* for each pirate taken or killed during the attack, and of 5*l.* for every other man of the crew not taken or killed, who shall have been alive on board the said piratical vessel at the attack thereof.

The same statute (§ 3.) enacts that vessels and other property taken from pirates, proved to have belonged to any of his Majesty's subjects, are to be delivered up to them, on their paying a sum of money, as salvage, equal to 1-8th part of the true value of the same.

[See *Kent's Commentaries on American Law*, Lecture 9th.—*Am. Ed.*]

PISTACHIA OR PISTACHIO NUTS (Ger. *Pistaschen*; Du. *Pistasjes*; Fr. *Pistaches*; It. *Pistacchi, Fastucchi*; Sp. *Alfocigos*; Lat. *Pistaciæ*), the fruit of the *Pistachia vera*, a kind of turpentine tree. It grows naturally in Arabia, Persia, and Syria; also in Sicily, whence the nuts are annually brought to us. They are oblong and pointed, about the size and shape of a filbert, including a kernel of a pale greenish colour, covered with a yellowish or reddish skin. They have a pleasant, sweetish, unctuous taste, resembling that of sweet almonds; their principal difference from which consists in their having a greater degree of sweetness, accompanied with a light grateful flavour, and in being more oily. Pistachias imported from the East are superior to those raised in Europe.—(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*)

PITCH (Ger. *Pech*; Fr. *Poix, Brai*; It. *Pece*; Sp. *Pez*; Rus. *Smola gustaja*), the residuum which remains on inspissating tar, or boiling it down to dryness. It is extensively used in ship building, and for other purposes. Large quantities are manufactured in Great Britain. The duty on pitch, which is 10*d.* a cwt., produced, in 1829, 448*l.*, so that 10,752 cwt. must have been entered for home consumption.

An allowance is to be made for tare on pitch, of 93 lbs. each on Archangel casks, 36 lbs. each on Swedish do., and 56 lbs. each on American do.

PLANE, a forest tree, of which there are 2 species; the Oriental plane (*Platanus Orientalis*), and the Occidental plane (*Platanus Occidentalis*).

The Oriental plane is a native of the Levant, and other Eastern countries, and is considered one of the finest of trees. It grows to about 60 feet in height, and has been known to exceed 8 feet in diameter. Its wood is much like beech, but more figured, and is used for furniture and such like articles. The Occidental plane is a native of North America, and is one of the largest of the American trees, being sometimes more than 12 feet in diameter. The wood of the Occidental plane is harder than that of the Oriental. It is very durable in water.

The tree known by the name of plane in England is the sycamore, or great maple (*Acer pseudo-platanus*). It is a large tree, grows quickly, and stands the sea spray better than most trees. The timber is very close and compact, easily wrought, and not liable either to splinter or warp. It is generally of a brownish white or yellowish white colour, and sometimes it is very beautifully curled and mottled. In this state it takes a fine polish, and bears varnishing well. It is chiefly used in the manufacture of saddle trees, wooden dishes, and a variety of articles both of furniture and machinery. When kept dry, and protected from worms, it is pretty durable; but it is quite as liable as beech to be attacked by them.—(*Tredgold*, p. 196.)

PLANKS (Ger. and Du. *Planken*; Da. *Planker*; Sw. *Plankor*; Fr. *Planches, Bordages*; Rus. *Tolstülle olosku*), thick strong boards, cut from various kinds of wood, especially oak and pine. Planks are usually of the thickness of from 1 inch to 4. They are imported in large quantities from the northern parts of Europe, particularly from the ports of Christiania, Dantzic, Archangel, Petersburgh, Narva, Revel, Riga, and Memel, as well as from several parts of North America.

PLANTAIN, OR BANANA, the pulpy fruit of the *Musa paradisiaca*, an herbaceous plant, extensively cultivated in most intertropical countries, but especially in Mexico. It is not, like most other fruits, used merely as an occasional luxury, but is rather an established article of subsistence. Being long and extensively cultivated, it has diverged into numerous varieties, the fruit of which differs materially in size, flavour, and colour. That of some is not above 2 or 3 inches long, while that of others is not much short of a foot; some sorts are sweet, and of a flavour not unlike nor inferior to that of a good mellow pear; but the larger kind are, for the most part, coarse and farinaceous. The latter are either used fresh or dried in the sun, in which latter state they are occasionally ground into meal and made into bread. In Mexico, the sweeter sorts are frequently pressed and dried, as figs are in Europe; and, while they are not very inferior to the last mentioned fruit, they are infinitely cheaper.

"I doubt," says M. Humboldt, "whether there be any other plant that produces so great a quantity of nutritive substance in so small a space. Eight or 9 months after the sucker is planted, it begins to develope its cluster. The fruit may be gathered in the 10th or 11th month. When the stalk is cut, there is always found, among the numerous shoots that have taken root, a sprout (*pimpollo*), which, being 2-3ds the height of its parent plant, bears fruit 3 months later. Thus a plantation of bananas perpetuates itself, without requiring any care on the part of man, further than to cut the stalks when the fruit has ripened, and to stir the earth gently once or twice a year about the roots. A piece of ground of 100 square metres of surface will contain from 30 to 40 plants. During the course of a year this same piece of ground, reckoning the weight of the cluster at from 15 to 20 kilog. only, will yield 2,000

kilog., or more than 4,000 lbs., of nutritive substance. What a difference between this product and that of the cereal grasses in most parts of Europe! The same extent of land planted with wheat would not produce above 30 lbs.; and not more than 90 lbs. of potatoes. Hence the product of the **banana** is to that of wheat as 133 to 1, and to that of potatoes as 44 to 1."—(*Essai sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, tom. ii. p. 388. 3d ed.)

The banana forms a principal part of the food of the people of Mexico; and the apathy and indolence of the natives in the *tierras calientes*, or hot regions, has been ascribed, and probably with good reason, to the facility with which it supplies them with subsistence. It is by no means in such extensive use in tropical Asia; and comes nowhere in it into competition with corn as an article of food.

PLATE, the denomination usually given to gold and silver wrought into articles of household furniture.

In order partly to prevent fraud, and partly for the purpose of collecting a revenue, the manufacture of plate is placed under certain regulations. Those who carry it on are obliged to take out a licence, renewable annually on the 31st of July.—(See *ante*, p. 137.) Assay offices are established in different places; and any one selling any article previously to its having been assayed and marked, forfeit 50*l*.—(24 *Geo.* 3. c. 53.) No plate is passed at the assay offices, unless it be of the fineness of the old standard, or 11 oz. and 2 dwts., or of the new standard of 11 oz. and 10 dwts. Gold plate, with the exception of gold watch-cases, is to pay a duty of 17*s.* an oz., and silver plate a duty of 1*s.* 6*d.*; but watch-cases, chains, tippings, mountings, collars, bottle tickets, teaspoons, &c. are exempted. The 5*th* Geo. 3. c. 143. made the counterfeiting, or the transference from one piece of plate to another, of the marks, stamps, &c. impressed on plate by the assayers, felony without the benefit of clergy. But the offence is now punishable by transportation or imprisonment only.—(1 *Will.* 4. c. 66.)

In his able speech on the state of the country, 18th of March, 1830, Mr. Huskisson said, "The rate of duty upon silver wrought plate, in 1804, was 1*s.* 3*d.*, upon gold 16*s.* an ounce; it was afterwards raised to 1*s.* 6*d.* upon silver, and 17*s.* on gold. But what has been the increase in the nett produce of the duty? It has risen from less than 5,000*l.* in 1804, to 105,000*l.* in 1828; a rise of more than twenty-fold notwithstanding the greatly diminished supply from the mines, and the consequent increasing value of the precious metals. It may be further remarked, that this augmentation shows how large a portion of gold and silver is annually diverted from the purposes of coin to those of ornament and luxury."

A Return, showing the Annual Nett Produce of the Duty levied on wrought Gold and Silver Plate, in each Year from 1806 to 1833, both inclusive; distinguishing, as far as possible, Gold from Silver and also the Rate of Duty in each Year.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 246. Sess.. 1833.)

Years ending 5th of January.	Rate of Duty. Gold.	Rate of Duty. Silver.	Gold. £. s. d.	Silver. £. s. d.	Duty not distinguishable. £. s. d.
	Per oz.	*Per oz.*			
1806	16s.	1s. 3d.	4,828 11 10	55,288 1 8	3,952 9 1
1807	—	—	4,244 16 2	56,806 10 11	10,781 11 3 1 4
1808	—	—	4,798 1 5 1 2	59,057 7 2 1 2	10,849 18 7 1 2
1809	—	—	4,906 1 2 3 4	63,730 16 8 1 4	11,042 8 5 1 4
1810	—	—	5,033 9 9 1 4	69,452 2 0 3 4	12,333 12 11 3 4
1811	—	—	5,640 15 5	74,028 18 11	14,451 14 0 1 2
1812	—	—	4,902 7 5	62,977 5 0	12,192 5 7 3 4
1813	—	—	4,858 14 5	55,171 10 10	11,397 4 7 1 2
1814	—	—	4,839 7 0	50,600 12 11	10,765 12 5 3 4
1815	—	—	5,361 12 10	53,145 11 5	12,023 1 11
1816	16s. & 17s.	1s. 3d. & 1s. 6d.	5,574 14 6	58,916 17 2	13,542 13 6 3 4
1817	17s.	1s. 6d.	5,174 4 5	57,416 15 10	12 564 8 9 1 2
1818	—	—	2,971 3 7	40,150 12 6	13,038 15 6 3 4
1819	—	—	2,869 4 6 1 4	39,610 14 6 1 2	
1820	—	—	3,708 0 5 3 4	55,519 15 8 1 2	
1821	—	—	2,478 17 6 1 2	72,551 7 0 1 4	
1822	—	—	3,398 1 0	67,864 14 5 1 4	
1823	—	—	4,783 15 6 1 4	71,220 9 5 1 2	
1824	—	—	5,422 18 6 1 4	73,197 0 5	
1825	—	—	6,481 0 7 1 2	89,116 4 8 1 4	
1826	—	—	7,081 1 10 1 2	105,218 11 6 1 4	
1827	—	—	5,459 6 8 1 2	80,512 12 5 1 4	
1828	—	—	6,037 0 5 3 4	78,206 9 5 3 4	
1829	—	—	5,969 8 7 1 4	86,526 0 11 2	
1830	—	—	5,990 13 5 1 2	78,589 1 5 3 4	
1831	—	—	4,852 19 3 1 2	74,439 19 4 1 4	
1832	—	—	5,840 6 7 1 2	92,473 13 5	
1833	—	—	4,398 5 6	62,586 16 10 3 4	

Note.—The produce of the duties on gold and silver plate cannot be distinguished for the country prior to the year ended 5th of January, 1819, the same not having been distinguished in the accounts of the distributors.

We endeavoured to show, in the former edition of this work, that Mr. Huskisson had been deceived by trusting to false or defective information; and that, instead of the increase of the duties, and, consequently, of the consumption of plate, being nearly so great as he had represented, it fell far short of what might have been fairly expected from the increasing wealth and population of the country. The preceding Table shows that our criticism was well founded. The stationary amount of duty may, perhaps, be accounted for by the facility with which the duties are evaded. The increase of duty in 1826 is a curious phenomenon.

PLATINA, a metal which, in respect of scarcity, beauty, ductility, and indestructibility is hardly inferior to gold, was unknown in Europe till about the middle of last century, when it began to be imported in small quantities from South America. It has since been discovered in Estremadura in Spain, and, more recently, in the Ural Mountains in Asiatic Russia, where it is now raised in very considerable quantities.

Platina is of a white colour, like silver, but not so bright, and has no taste or smell. Its hardness is intermediate between copper and iron. Its specific gravity is about 21·5, that of gold being 19·3; so that it is the heaviest body with which we are acquainted. It is exceedingly ductile and malleable; it may be hammered out into very thin plates, and drawn into wires not exceeding 1-1940th of an inch in diameter. In these properties it is probably inferior to gold, but it seems to surpass all the other metals. Its tenacity is such, that a wire of platina 0·078 inch in diameter is capable of supporting a

weight of 374·31 lbs. avoirdupois without breaking. It is one of the most infusible of all metals; but pieces of it may be welded together without difficulty when heated to whiteness. It is not in the smallest degree altered by the action of air or water.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

The late Dr. Wollaston discovered a method of fusing platina, and, consequently, of rendering it easily available in the arts. The Russians have, within these few years, issued platina coins of the value of 3, 6, and 20 silver roubles. Platina first began to be an object of attention in Russia in 1824, when 1 pood 33 lbs. were collected. In 1830, the produce amounted to 303 poods 14 lbs. In 1831, a piece of native platina was discovered at Demidoff's gold mines, weighing 20 lbs. 2½ zolt.—(*Official Statements* published by the Russian Government.)

PLATTING, slips of bast, cane, straw, &c. woven or plaited for making into hats, &c.—(See HATS, STRAW.)

PLUMS, the fruit of the *Prunus domestica*, are too well known to require any description. They were introduced into England in the 15th century, and are cultivated in all parts of the country. There are said to be nearly 300 varieties of plums.

PLUMBAGO. See BLACK LEAD.

POMEGRANATE, POMEGRANATES (Ger. *Granatäpfel*; Fr. *Grenades*; It. *Granati, Melagrani*; Sp. *Granadas*), the fruit of the pomegranate tree (*Punica granatum*). This tree, which grows to the height of 15 or 20 feet, appears to be a native of Persia, whence it has been conveyed, on the one side, to Southern Europe, and on the other, to the tropical parts of Asia, and eventually to the New World. The fruit is a pulpy, many-seeded berry, the size of an orange, covered with a thick, brown, coriaceous rind. The pulp has a reddish colour, and a pleasant subacid taste. The value of the fruit depends on the smallness of the seed and the largeness of the pulp. The finest, called by the Persians, *badana*, or seedless, is imported into India from Caubul and Candahar, where the pomegranate grows in perfection. The tree thrives all the way to the equator; but, within the tropics, the fruit is hardly fit for use. The pomegranates brought to England from the south of Europe and the West Indies are very inferior to those of Persia.—(*Private information.*)

POPLAR (Ger. *Pappel, Pappelhaum*; Du. *Popelier*; Fr. *Peuplier*; It. *Pioppa*, Sp. *Alamo*; Lat. *Populus*). Of the poplar (*Populus* of botanists), there are about 15 species described; of these, 5 are common in England; viz. the common or *White*, the *Black*, the *Aspen* or trembling poplar, the *Abele* or great white poplar, and the Lombardy poplar. In most favourable situations, the white poplar grows with great rapidity, sometimes sending forth shoots 16 feet long in a single season. The wood is soft, and not very durable, unless kept dry; but it is light, not apt either to swell or shrink, and easily wrought. The Lombardy poplar grows rapidly, and shoots in a complete spire to a great height; its timber does not differ materially from that of the white poplar. It is very light; and is, therefore, well adapted for the manufacture of packing-cases. None of the species is fit for large timbers.—(*Tredgold's Principles of Carpentry; Veget. Sub., Lib. of Entert. Knowledge.*)

POPULATION. To attempt giving in this place any explanation of the laws which regulate the progress of population, would be quite inconsistent with the objects and limits of this work. It may, indeed, be thought that the word has no business here. However, as it is frequently of importance in commercial questions, and in others materially affecting commercial interests, to be able to compare the consumption of an article with the population, we believe we shall gratify our readers by laying before them the following Tables, showing the results of the different censuses that have been taken of the population of Great Britain and Ireland, [and of the United States.

Population of the United States.

States.	Pop. 1790.	Pop. 1800.	Pop. 1810.	Pop. 1820.	Pop. 1830.	Slaves. 1790.	Slaves. 1800.	Slaves. 1810.	Slaves. 1820.	Slaves. 1830.
Maine	96,540	151,719	228,705	298,335	399,955					
New Hampshire	141,899	183,762	214,360	244,161	269,328	158	8			
Vermont	85,416	154,465	217,713	235,764	280,652	17				
Massachusetts	378,717	422,245	472,040	523,287	610,408					
Rhode Island	69,110	69,122	77,031	83,059	97,199	952	381	108	48	17
Connecticut	238,141	251,002	262,042	275,202	297,665	2,759	951	310	97	25
New York	340,120	586,756	959,949	1,372,812	1,918,608	21,324	20,343	15,017	10,088	75
New Jersey	184,139	211,049	249,555	277,575	320,823	11,423	12,422	10,851	7,657	2,254
Pennsylvania	434,373	602,365	810,091	1,049,458	1,348,233	3,737	1,706	795	211	403
Delaware	59,096	64,273	72,674	72,749	76,748	8,887	6,153	4,177	4,509	3,292
Maryland	319,728	341,548	380,546	407,350	447,040	103,036	105,635	111,502	107,398	102,994
Virginia	748,308	880,200	974,622	1,065,379	1,211,405	293,427	345,796	392,518	425,153	469,757
North Carolina	393,751	478,103	555,500	638,829	737,987	100,572	133,296	168,824	205,017	245,601
South Carolina	249,073	345,591	415,115	502,741	581,185	107,094	146,151	196,365	258,475	315,401
Georgia	82,548	162,101	252,433	340,987	516,823	29,264	59,404	105,218	149,656	217,531
Alabama			20,845	127,901	309,527				41,879	117,549
Mississippi			8,850	40,352	75,448	138,621	5,459	17,088	32,814	65,659
Louisiana				76,556	153,407	215,739		34,660	69,064	109,588
Tennessee	35,791	105,602	261,727	422,813	681,904	3,417	13,584	44,535	80,107	141,603
Kentucky	73,077	220,955	406,511	564,317	687,917	11,830	4,031	80,561	126,732	165,213
Ohio			45,365	230,760	581,434	937,903					
Indiana				4,875	24,520	147,178	343,031			190		
Illinois				12,282	55,211	157,455			168	917	747
Missouri				20,845	66,586	140,445			3,011	10,222	25,091
District of Columbia			14,093	24,023	33,039	39,834		5,244	5,395	6,377	6,119
Florida Territory						34,730					15,501
Michigan Territory				4,762	8,896	31,639			24		32
Arkansas Territory					14,273	30,388				1,617	4,576
Total	3,929,827	5,305,925	7,239,814	9,638,131	12,866,920	697,897	893,041	1,191,364	1,538,064	2,009,031

I. Population of Great Britain in 1801, 1811, 1821, and 1831, showing its Amount at each Period in each County of England and Scotland, and in the entire Principality of Wales; with the Ratio of Increase.

Counties.	1801.	Increase per Cent.	1811.	Increase per Cent.	1821.	Increase per Cent.	1831.
England.							
Bedford	63,393	11	70,213	19	83,716	14	95,393
Berks	109,215	9	118,477	11	131,977	10	145,240
Buckingham	107,444	9	117,650	14	134,068	9	146,128
Cambridge	89,346	13	101,109	20	121,909	19	145,555
Chester	191,731	18	227,031	19	270,993	24	336,410
Cornwall	188,269	15	216,687	19	257,447	17	301,340
Cumberland	117,230	14	133,744	17	156,124	10	169,681
Derby	161,142	15	184,897	15	213,393	11	237,170
Devon	343,001	12	383,308	15	439,040	13	494,468
Dorset	115,319	8	124,693	16	144,499	10	158,772
Durham	160,361	11	177,625	17	207,673	22	253,427
Essex	226,437	11	252,473	15	289,424	10	317,210
Gloucester	250,809	12	280,514	18	335,819	15	386,704
Hereford	89,191	5	94,075	10	103,243	7	110,952
Hertford	97,577	14	111,654	16	129,714	10	142,541
Huntingdon	37,568	12	42,208	15	48,771	9	53,149
Kent	307,624	21	373,095	14	428,016	12	479,155
Lancaster	672,731	23	828,309	27	1,052,859	27	1,336,854
Leicester	130,081	16	150,419	16	174,571	13	197,503
Lincoln	208,557	14	237,891	19	283,058	12	317,311
Middlesex	818,129	17	953,276	20	1,144,531	19	1,358,541
Monmouth	45,582	36	62,127	16	71,923	36	98,130
Norfolk	273,371	7	291,949	18	344,368	13	390,054
Northampton	131,757	7	141,358	15	162,483	10	179,276
Northumberland	157,101	9	172,161	15	198,965	12	222,912
Nottingham	140,360	16	162,900	15	186,878	20	225,329
Oxford	109,620	9	119,191	15	136,971	11	151,748
Rutland	16,356	. .	16,380	18	19,487	5	19,265
Salop	167,639	16	194,298	6	206,153	6	222,501
Somerset	273,750	12	303,180	17	355,314	15	409,998
Southampton	219,646	12	245,080	15½	283,298	11	314,393
Stafford	239,153	21	295,153	17	345,895	19	410,445
Suffolk	210,451	11	234,211	15	270,542	9	294,364
Surrey	269,045	20	323,851	23	398,654	22	486,135
Sussex	159,311	19	190,083	22	233,019	17	272,329
Warwick	208,190	40	294,735	20	274,392	23	336,994
Westmoreland	41,617	10	45,922	12	51,339	7	55,041
Wilts	185,107	5	193,868	15	222,157	8	240,191
Worcester	139,333	15	160,546	15	184,424	15	211,536
York (East Riding)	110,992	16	134,437	14	154,010	10	169,661
City of York and Ainsley	24,393	12	27,304	12	30,451	17	35,582
York (North Riding)	158,235	7	169,391	11	187,452	2	190,873
(West Riding)	565,282	16	655,042	22	801,274	22	976,415
	8,331,434	14½	9,538,827	17½	11,261,437	16	13,089,395
Wales.	541,546	13	611,788	17	717,438	13	805,236
Scotland.							
Aberdeen	123,082	10	135,075	16	155,387	14	177,611
Argyle	71,839	19	85,585	14	97,316	4	101,421
Ayr	84,308	23	103,954	22	127,239	14	145,005
Banff	35,807	2	36,668	19	43,561	12	48,964
Berwick	30,624	1	30,779	6	33,385	2	34,053
Bute	11,791	2	12,043	15	13,797	3	14,151
Caithness	22,609	4	23,419	29	30,233	14	34,525
Clackmannan	10,856	11	12,010	10	13,263	11	14,729
Dumbarton	20,710	17	24,149	13	27,317	22	33,311
Dumfries	54,597	15	62,960	10	70,578	4	73,779
Edinburgh	122,954	21	148,807	28	191,514	15	219,992
Elgin	26,705	5	28,108	11	31,162	10	34,231
Fife	53,743	8	101,272	13	114,556	12	128,869
Forfar	90,127	8	107,264	6	113,400	23	139,936
Haddington	26,996	4	31,164	15	35,727	3	36,915
Inverness	74,282	5	78,336	15	90,157	5	94,757
Kincardine	26,349	4	27,430	6	29,118	8	31,431
Kinross	6,725	8	7,245	7	7,762	17	9,073
Kirkcudbright	29,211	15	33,584	15	38,933	4	40,380
Lanark	146,699	31	191,752	27	244,387	30	316,819
Linlithgow	17,844	9	19,451	17	22,685	3	23,391
Nairn	8,237	. .	8,251	9	9,006	4	9,354
Orkney and Shetland	46,924	. .	46,153	15	53,124	10	58,229
Peebles	8,735	14	9,951	1	10,048	5	10,578
Perth	126,386	7	135,093	5	139,060	3	142,894
Renfrew	78,056	19	92,590	21	112,175	19	133,445
Ross and Cromarty	55,543	10	60,855	13	68,828	9	74,892
Roxburgh	33,682	11	37,330	10	40,982	7	43,903
Selkirk	5,070	16	5,899	13	6,677	2	6,855
Stirling	80,825	14	58,174	12	65,376	11	72,531
Sutherland	23,117	2	23,629	. .	23,840	7	25,599
Wigton	22,918	17	26,891	23	33,240	9	36,240
	1,599,068	14	1,805,688	16	2,093,456	13	2,365,807

SUMMARY OF GREAT BRITAIN.

England	8,331,434	14½	9,538,827	17½	11,261,437	16	13,089,395
Wales	541,546	13	611,788	17	717,438	12	805,236
Scotland	1,599,068	14	1,805,688	16	2,093,456	13	2,365,807
Army Navy, &c.	470,598	. .	640,500	. .	319,300	. .	277,611
	10,942,646	16½	12,596,804	14	14,391,631	15	16,537,989

II. Population of Ireland, as determined by the Censuses taken in 1813, 1821, and 1831, showing its Amount at each Period in each County, with the Rates of Increase.

Counties, &c.	1813.	Increase per Cent.	1821.	Increase per Cent.	1831.
Province of Leinster.					
Carlow	69,566	13	78,962	3 decrease	81,676
Drogheda Town	16,123	12	18,118	4 increase	7,365
Dublin County	110,437	35	150,011	22	183,042
City	176,610	5	185,881	9	2 3,6: 2
Kildare	85,138	16	99,066	9	108,401
Kilkenny County	134,664	17	158,716	6	169,283
City	*	*	23,330	2	23,741
King's County	113,226	15	131,068	9	143,029
Longford	95,917	12	107,570	4	112,391
Louth	*	*	101,011	7	108,168
Meath	142,479	11	159,183	11	177,023
Queen's County	113,857	17	134,276	8	145,143
Westmeath	*	*	128,819	6	136,799
Wexford	*	*	170,806	7	182,991
Wicklow	83,109	32	110,767	10	124,301
Total	.	.	1,757,492	9	1,927,967
Province of Munster.					
Clare	180,608	29	208,089	24	258,262
Cork County	523,936	20	629,786	12	705,926
City	64,394	56	100,658	6	107,041
Kerry	178,622	21	216,185	22	264,559
Limerick County	105,865	110	218,434	6	233,530
City	*	*	59,045	12	66,576
Tipperary	290,531	19	346,896	16	404,598
Waterford County	119,457	7	127,842	15	148,077
City	23,467	12	26,279	*	28,891
Total	.	.	1,935,612	14	2,215,364
Province of Ulster.					
Antrim	231,548	13	262,260	19	314,608
Armagh	121,449	62	197,427	11	220,051
Carrickfergus Town	6,136	30	8,023	8	8,698
Cavan	*	*	195,076	16	228,050
Donegal	*	*	248,270	20	298,104
Down	287,290	13	325,410	8	352,571
Fermanagh	111,250	17	130,997	14	149,555
Londonderry	186,181	4	193,869	14	2?2,416
Monaghan	140,433	24	174,697	11	19?,532
Tyrone	250,746	4	261,865	15	302,943
Total	.	.	1,998,494	14	2,283,128
Province of Connaught.					
Galway	140,995	119	309,599	27	394,287
Town	24,694	12	27,775	10	30,140
Leitrim	94,095	32	124,765	12	141,303
Mayo	237,371	23	293,112	25	367,866
Roscommon	158,110	52	208,729	14	239,903
Sligo	*	*	146,229	17	171,508
Total	.	.	1,110,229	22	1,348,077

SUMMARY.

Provinces.	1813.	1821.	1831.	Increase per Cent. on 1821.
Leinster	. .	1,757,492	1,927,967	9
Munster	. .	1,935,612	2,215,364	14
Ulster	. .	1,998,494	2,293,128	14
Connaught	. .	1,110,229	1,348,077	22
Total	. .	6,801,827	7,784,536	14½

PORCELAIN, or CHINA WARE, a very fine species of earthenware. The first specimens of this fabric were brought to Europe from China and Japan. The best Chinese porcelain is of a very fine texture, white, semi-transparent, and sometimes beautifully coloured and gilt; is infusible, and not subject to break by the sudden application of heat or cold. The Chinese term for the article is *tse-ki*. But the Portuguese, by whom it was first brought in considerable quantities into Europe, bestowed on it the name of porcelain, from *porcella*, a cup.

Common earthenware, sometimes of a very good quality, is manufactured in Canton, Fokien, and several other provinces of China. But it is a curious fact, that the beautiful porcelain imported into Europe is made only in the town of Kingteseng, in the province of Kyangsi. Its manufacture is fully described by Duhalde, in his account of China, under the head "Porcelain and China ware." The porcelain of Japan is decidedly inferior to that of China; very little is imported, and it is valued only as a curiosity.

After porcelain began to be imported, its beauty soon brought it into great request, notwithstanding its high price, as an ornament for the houses and tables of the rich and the great. The emulation of European artists was in consequence excited. Very little information was, however, obtained as to the mode of manufacturing porcelain till the early part of last century, when the process was developed in a letter from a French Jesuit in China, who had found means to make himself pretty well acquainted with the subject. The knowledge that thus transpired, and the investigations of Reaumur and other chemists, prepared the way for the establishment of the manufacture in Europe. It was first commenced at Dresden, which has been famous ever since for the beauty of its productions; but the finest and most magnificent specimens of European china have been produced at Sèvres, in France, in the factory carried on at the expense of the French government.

British Porcelain Manufactures.—This, though unable to boast of such fine specimens of costly workmanship as have been produced at Sèvres and Dresden, is of much greater national importance

* *N. B.*—Not enumerated in 1813.

Instead of exclusively applying themselves to the manufacture of articles fitted only for the consumption of the rich, the artists of England have exerted themselves in preference to produce China ware suitable for the middle classes; and have succeeded in producing articles at once excellent in quality, elegant in form, and cheap. We are principally indebted for the improvements made in this important manufacture, to the genius and enterprise of the late Mr. Josiah Wedgwood. This extraordinary man owed none of his success to fortuitous circumstances. Devoting his mind to patient investigation, and sparing neither pains nor expense in accomplishing his aims, he gathered round him artists of talent from different countries, and drew upon the stores of science for aid in pursuing the objects of his praiseworthy ambition. The early and signal prosperity that attended his efforts served only as an incentive to urge him forward to new exertions, and as means for calling forth and encouraging talent in others, in a manner calculated to promote the welfare of his country. Previously to his time, the potteries of Staffordshire produced only inferior fabrics, flimsy as to their materials, and void of taste in their forms and ornaments; the best among them being only wretched imitations of the grotesque and unmeaning scenes and figures portrayed on the porcelain of China. But such have been the effects resulting from the exertions and example of this one individual, that the wares of that district are now not only brought into general use in this country, to the exclusion of all foreign goods, which had been largely imported, but English pottery has since been sought for and celebrated throughout the civilised world, and adopted even in places where the art was previously practised. An intelligent foreigner, M. Faujas de St. Fond, writing on this subject, says,—"Its excellent workmanship, its solidity, the advantage which it possesses of sustaining the action of fire, its fine glaze impenetrable to acids, the beauty and convenience of its form, and the cheapness of its price, have given rise to a commerce so active and so universal, that in travelling from Paris to Petersburgh, from Amsterdam to the farthest part of Sweden, and from Dunkirk to the extremity of the south of France, one is served at every inn upon English ware. Spain, Portugal, and Italy are supplied with it; and vessels are loaded with it for both the Indies and the continent of America."—(See the quotation in the *Account of the Porcelain Manufacture*, p. 16., in *Dr. Lardner's Cyclopædia*; for the statistical details with respect to the manufacture, see the article EARTHENWARE, in this work.)

The British porcelain manufacture is principally carried on at the potteries in Staffordshire, and at Worcester, Derby, Colebrook Dale, and other places.

Murrhine Cups.—It was long a prevalent opinion among modern critics, that the *vasa murrhina*, so famous in Roman history, were formed of porcelain. Pompey was the first who brought them to Rome from the East, about 61 years before the Christian era. They were used as drinking cups, and fetched enormous prices; Nero having given, according to the common method of interpreting, 8,000*l.* for a single cup! The extravagance of the purchaser may, in this instance, be supposed to have increased the price; so that the degree of estimation in which these cups were held may be more accurately inferred from the fact, that, of all the rich spoils of Alexandria, Augustus was content to select one for his share.—(*Sueton.* lib. ii. c. 71.) Pliny (lib. xxxvii. c. 2.) says they were made in Persia, particularly in Karamania. But those who contend they were China ware, chiefly found on the following line of Propertius:—

Murrheaque in Parthis pocula COCTA FOCIS.—(Lib. iv. Eleg. 5. lin. 26.)

In despite, however, of this apparently decisive authority, M. Le Blanc and M. Larcher have, in two very learned dissertations (*Mémoires de Littérat.* tom. xliii.), which Dr. Robertson has declared are quite satisfactory, endeavoured to prove that the *vasa murrhina* were formed of transparent stone, dug out of the earth in some Eastern provinces, and that they were imitated in vessels of coloured glass.—(*Robertson's Disquisition on India*, note 30.) Dr. Vincent (*Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients*, vol. ii. p. 793.) inclines to the opposite opinion; but the weight of authority is evidently on the other side. At all events, it is plain that if the murrhine cups were really porcelain, it had been exceedingly scarce at Rome, as their price would otherwise have been comparatively moderate. But it is most probable that the ancients were wholly unacquainted with this article; which, indeed, was but little known in Europe till after the discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope.—(For some further details on this question, see *Kippingii Antiq. Rom.* lib. iv. c. 3.)

PORK, the flesh of the hog. Salted and pickled pork forms a considerable article of export from Ireland to the West Indies and other places.

Pork and Bacon exported from Ireland in the under-mentioned Years.

Years.	Pork.		Bacon.		Years.	Pork.		Bacon.	
	Quantity.	Official Value.	Quantity.	Official Value.		Quantity.	Official Value.	Quantity.	Official Value.
	Cwt.	*L.*	*Cwt.*	*L.*		*Cwt.*	*L.*	*Cwt.*	*L.*
1815	154,719	214,226	236,349	327,252	1821	141,211	195,559	266,209	367,059
1816	103,585	143,425	237,668	315,205	1822	115,436	160,527	241,865	334,860
1817	133,095	184,285	191,025	264,496	1823	120,046	166,218	343,675	473,558
1818	118,315	163,862	214,956	297,631	1824	106,543	147,591	313,788	434,475
1819	120,334	166,616	224,134	310,340	1825	108,141	149,734	362,378	501,615
1820	142,431	197,212	262,736	363,797					

Most part of the bacon is exported to England—(See BACON),—and also a good deal of the pork. The account cannot be brought further down than 1825, the trade between Great Britain and Ireland having since then been placed on the footing of a coasting trade.

PORT. See WINE.

PORT-AU-PRINCE, the capital of Hayti, or St. Domingo, in lat. 18° 33′ 42″ N., lon. 72° 27′ 11″ W. Population variously estimated, probably from 18,000 to 20,000. It is situated on the west coast of the island, at the bottom of a large and deep gulf. It was founded in 1749; since which, with few intervals, it has been the capital of French St. Domingo, as it is now of the entire island. It is partially fortified; the harbour being protected by a battery on a small island at a little distance from the shore. The country round is low and marshy; and the heat in the summer months being excessive, the climate is then exceedingly unhealthy. The buildings are principally of wood, and seldom exceed 2 stories in height.

Harbour.—The entrance to the harbour is between White Island and the southern shore. The depth of water varies from about 18 feet at ebb to about 21 do. at full tide. It is customary, but not compulsory, to employ a pilot in entering the harbour. They are always on the look-out. Ships moor head and stern, at from 100 to 500 yards from shore; loading and unloading by means of boats, as there are

neither docks nor quays to assist these operations. The harbour is perfectly safe, except during hurricanes, which may be expected from August to November.

Hayti is, next to Cuba, the largest of the West India islands. It was discovered by Columbus, on the 5th of December, 1492. Its greatest length is estimated at about 160 leagues, and its greatest breadth at about 40. Its superfices is estimated at about 2,450 square leagues. Three principal chains of mountains (from which emanate smaller mountain arms) run from the central group of Cibao. The whole of these are described as fertile and susceptible of cultivation, even to their summits; affording great variety of climate, which, contrary to what is the fact in the plains, is remarkably healthy. The soil of the plains is, in general, a very rich vegetable mould, exceedingly fertile, and well watered. There are several large rivers, and an immense number of smaller streams, some tributary and others independent. The ports are numerous and good. The harbour of Cape St. Nicholas, the fortifications of which are now in ruins, is one of the finest in the West Indies; being inferior only to the Havannah. Timber of the finest description is most abundant; and mines of gold, silver, copper, tin, iron, and rock salt, besides other natural productions, are said not to be wanting. The French are, therefore, fully justified in designating this magnificent island, *La Reine des Antilles*. The principal towns, besides Port-au-Prince, are Cap Haïtien, formerly Cap François, on the north coast, St. Domingo on the south, Les Cayes, and Jacmel.

Previously to the revolt of the blacks, Hayti was divided in unequal portions between the French and Spaniards; the former possessing the west, and the latter the eastern and larger portion of the island. The revolution began in 1789; and terminated, after the most dreadful massacres, and the destruction of a vast deal of property, in the total abolition of slavery, and the establishment of an independent black republic. The Spanish part of the island and the French were finally consolidated in 1822.

Population.—In 1789, the French part of Hayti was by far the most valuable and flourishing colony in the West Indies. The population was estimated at 524,000; of which 31,000 were white, 27,500 people of colour, and 465,500 slaves. The Spanish part of the island was much less densely peopled; the number in 1785 being estimated at 152,640; of which 122,640 were free people of all colours, mostly mulattoes, and the rest slaves. The population of the entire island, in 1827, was estimated by M. Humboldt at 820,000 of whom 30,000 were whites; but there are good grounds for thinking that this estimate is exaggerated.

Imports.—The principal articles of import are provisions; such as flour, rice, mess and cargo beef, fish, &c. and timber, from the United States; cotton goods of all sorts, Irish and Scotch linens, earthenware, cutlery, ammunition, &c. from England; wines, satins, liqueurs, jewellery, toys, haberdashery, &c. from France; and linens, canvass, gin, &c. from Holland and Germany.

Exports.—There has been an extraordinary decline in the quantity and value of the articles exported from Hayti since 1789. Sugar, for example, has fallen off from 141,000,000 lbs. to almost nothing; coffee from about 77,000,000 lbs. to a little more than 32,000,000 lbs. in 1826; cotton from 7,000,000 lbs. to 620,000 lbs. in do.; indigo, from 758,000 lbs. to nothing, &c.! Mahogany is almost the only article, the exports of which have rapidly increased of late years. The following Table illustrates what has now been stated:—

A General Table of Exports from Hayti, during the Years 1789, 1801, and from 1818 to 1826, both inclusive.

Years.	Clayed Sugar.	Muscovado Sugar.	Coffee.	Cotton.	Cacao.	Indigo.	Molasses.	Dye Woods.	Tobacco.	Castor Oil.	Mahogany.	Cigars.
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Gal.*	*Feet.*	
1789	47,516,551	93,673,300	76,831,219	7,004,374	. .	758,629	23,749					
1801	16,540	18,518,572	43,420,970	2,490,340	648,518	804	99,419	6,768,634	. .	. .	6,217	
1818	188	5,443,567	26,065,200	474,118	434,368	. .	. .	6,819,3 0	19,140	121	129,982	
1819	157	3,790,143	30,240,918	216,103	370,439	. .	. .	3,094,409	38,698	711	14?,?77	
1820	2,797	2,514,402	25,127,758	346,839	566,424	. .	. .	1,919,748	97,600	157	125,509	
1821	. .	600,934	29,825,951	620,563	264,792	. .	. .	3,72-,186	76,40	. .	55,005	
1822	. .	900,454	24,235,372	592,368	464,154	. .	211,927	8,295,080	588,057	. .	2,622,977	279 000
1823	. .	14,920	33,802,837	532,256	335,540	. .	. .	6,307,30	387,014	. .	2,269,047	363,900
1824	. .	5,106	44,369,084	1,028,045	461,684	1,240	. .	3,85?,15?	718,679	. .	2.1?1,747	175,000
1825	. .	2,020	36,084,300	916,697	339,937	. .	. .	5,948,190	503,42?	. .	2,986,469	
1826	. .	32,864	32,189,784	620,972	457,592	. .	. .	5,307,745	340,588	. .	2,136,984	179,500

Gum Guaiacum, in 1822, 7,338 lbs.—1823, 15,056 lbs.—1824, 68,692 lbs.

The destruction caused by the deplorable excesses which accompanied the revolution explains a part of this extraordinary falling off: but the greater part is to be accounted for by the change in the condition of the inhabitants. It could not reasonably be expected that the blacks were to make the same efforts in a state of independence they made when goaded on by the lash to exertions almost beyond their powers. It may, however, be fairly anticipated that they will become more industrious, according as the population becomes denser, and as they become more civilised, and acquire a taste for conveniences and luxuries. Hitherto industry in Hayti cannot be said to be free. It is enforced and regulated by the *Code Rural*, which is, in fact, a modification of the old French regulations as to slavery embodied in the *Code Noir*. "The provisions are as despotic as those of any slave system that can be conceived. The labourer may almost be considered *adscriptus glebæ*; he is deemed a vagabond, and liable to punishment, if he venture to move from his dwelling or farm without notice; he is prohibited from keeping a shop; and no person can build a house in the coun

try unconnected with a farm. The code determines the mode of managing landed property; of forming contracts for cultivation between proprietor and farmer—farmer and labourer; of regulating grazing establishments, the rural police, the inspection of cultivation and cultivators; of repressing vagrancy; and of the repair and maintenance of the public roads. Lastly, it affixes the penalty of fine in some cases, and in others of indefinite imprisonment at the option of the judge of the peace."—(*Mr. Consul Mackenzie's Despatch; Parl. Paper*, No. 18. Sess. 1829.)

Another serious obstacle to industry seems to be the enormous weight of the taxes imposed to defray the French indemnity. These are greatly beyond the means of the Haytians; so that the stipulated payments are in arrear, and will have to be abandoned.

Besides the articles specified in the above Table, hides, tortoise-shell, wax, ginger, and bullocks' horns are exported in considerable quantities. Hides are principally exported from the eastern, or, what was, the Spanish part of the island. They constitute a valuable article.

In despite, however, of these unfavourable circumstances, it appears abundantly certain that a considerable increase has taken place within these few years in the exports of coffee, cotton, mahogany, tobacco, and some other articles. But it is very difficult to arrive at the exact truth with respect either to this or any other matter connected with Hayti. During the discussions on the slave trade, both parties referred to it in support of their peculiar views; and the most contradictory statements were put forth as to the numbers and condition of the people, the extent of trade, &c. A good deal of smuggling is also carried on; so that even the official statements are not to be depended on. The subjoined account of the exports of 1832 is taken from the *Anti-Slavery Record* of the 6th of June, 1833. We do not pretend to guarantee its authenticity; but we have been assured by competent judges that it does not involve any material error:—

"Computed amount of exports for 1832, according to the Custom-house books:

Coffee exported from		
Port-au-Prince	18,000,000 lbs.	
Gonaives	2,000,000	
Cap Haitien	8,000,000	
Jérémie	3,000,000	
Les Cayes	8,000,000	
Jacmel	5,000,000	
Partie de l'Est	6,000,000	
	50,000,000 lbs.	
Cotton, from all parts	1,500,000 —	
Mahogany —	6,000,000 feet.	
Tobacco —	800,000 lbs.	
Cacao, from all parts	800,000 lbs.	
Dye woods —	8,000,000 —	
Hides —	80,000	
Tortoise-shell —	12,000 lbs.	
Cigars —	800,000	

"The value of the crop of coffee is estimated at about 1,000,000*l.* sterl. The duties realised on this sum, 1st, by the imports required to purchase it, and 2dly, the exports, which are subject to a duty of 13 dollars the 1,000, are estimated at 25 per cent. on the value of the crop. This would give 250,000*l.* on the coffee. Thus, at 7 Haytian dollars to the pound sterling, makes 1,750,000 dollars of revenue realised by this commodity alone."

The duties on imports amount, at an average, to about 900,000 dollars a year. The total receipts of the treasury may be estimated at about 2,500,000 dollars, which is, however, exceeded by the expenditure.

The Americans, British, French, and Germans carry on almost the whole trade of Hayti. The imports from England are very decidedly larger than those from any other country; but the exports to America exceed those destined for us. As the articles carried to Hayti from the United States are, for the most part, bulky, consisting of flour, salt fish, and provisions of all sorts, timber, &c., the number of American vessels engaged in the trade very materially exceeds those trading under any other flag.

Arrivals.—The arrivals of shipping at Port-au-Prince and Cap Haïtien, in 1829, 1830, and 1831, have been as under:—

Places.		1829.	1830.	1831.
Port-au-Prince	vessels	130	157	171
	tonnage	18,268	22,623	23,648
Cap Haïtien	vessels	77	77	69
	tonnage	10,596	11,787	9,070

Port Charges.—The charges on a native and foreign ship of 300 tons are the same, and as follows:—

	Dollars.
Tonnage duty*	300
Administrative	12
Commandante de place	12
Commissaire de guerre	12
Commandante de port	12
Director of customs	12
Interpreter	12
Treasurer	12
Doctor	12
Stamps for entry and clearing	16 50
Fountain tax	20
Pilotage	2
Total, currency	434 50

Custom-house Regulations.—On arrival, the master of the vessel proceeds to the Custom-house with the interpreter, where he makes his declaration whether he discharges his cargo in the port. If he discharge, his invoices are translated, and the goods verified in the presence of the consignee, who is allowed to land and store them. On clearing outwards, the merchant pays the duties on the cargoes both ways, and exhibits a receipt at the office of the commissaire de guerre, commandante de place, and commandante de port, who sign a certificate that the vessel may depart.

Warehousing.—The warehousing and bonding system is established by law, but there are at present no buildings appropriated to the reception of bonded goods. Until very recently, goods were permitted to be bonded under this law in the merchants' stores; a late order has, however, suspended that indulgence. The rate is 1 per cent. per year, and no allowance made for waste or loss. Goods exported in the same vessel they arrive in, pay, if landed, 1-2 per cent. and wharfage 7½.

Money.—The weight of the dollar is 216 grains; the 1-2 and 1-4 dollar being in proportion. But nearly 1-2 the weight of the coin consists of tin or other alloy; so that the value of the dollar does not exceed 1*s.* 6*d.* sterling.

Weights in Hayti are divided as in avoirdupois and apothecaries' weight; but they are about 8 per cent. heavier than British weights.

Measures.—Same as those used in France.

Regulations as to Trade.—It is enacted, that all persons carrying any trade or profession, excepting that of cultivating the soil, must be provided with a patent or licence to carry on such trade or profession; that all strangers admitted as merchants into the republic must, in the first place, procure the permission of the president to take a patent, which, when obtained, only authorises them, under heavy penalties, to carry on a wholesale business, not with each other, but with the Haytians, in the open ports, which are Port-au-Prince, Gonaives, Cap Haïtien, Port-à Plate, Santo Domingo, Jacmel, Les Cayes, and Jérémie. The minimum quantities of goods that may be sold are fixed by the same law. The Haytian consignee may be also a retailer, on taking out a corresponding patent.

A charge of 2,000 dollars is made for each patent to a foreign trading to Port-au-Prince; 1,800 for Les Cayes, Cap Haïtien, and Jacmel; and 1,600 for each of the remaining ports.

Duties.—The duties on all imported commodities consigned to foreign merchants are 17 1-2 per cent on an established rate, whether they be brought in native or foreign ships, with the exception of those from the United States, which pay an additional 5 per cent. on the amount of the duties. Goods consigned to native merchants pay only 16 1-2 per cent.

The following articles are duty free in all bottoms:—Shot of all sizes, grenades, howitzers, bomb-shells, and other projectiles of artillery; iron and bronze cannon, mortars, muskets and fusees, carbines, pistols, and cavalry sabres, briquets, or short swords for infantry; machines and instruments for simplifying and facilitating the cultivation of the soil, and the preparation of its products; breed cattle, mules, asses, gold and silver coin; classical and elementary works, sewed in boards, or bound in parchment, for the instruction of youth.

The following is a list of articles absolutely prohibited, without reference to their place of growth:—Mahogany, logwood, Spanish

* This is the present consul's statement. Mr. Consul Mackenzie says, that as Haytian vessels pay for a licence, they are not subject to the tonnage duty. Perhaps, however, the regulation in this respect has been changed since his "Notes" were published.

...ton, coffee, cotton wool, cocoa, raw and clayed sugar, rum, ...ware, ...linens; cars, whips, and umbrellas, containing ...ench, silencers, or other arms; books, and other works, opposed ...d morals.

...ides the export, there is also territorial duty levied equally on ...the produce of the soil, whether exported in national or foreign ships.

The export of the following articles is strictly prohibited:—Gold ...d silver coin, silk and fire arms, munitions, and other articles of ...war, old or new iron and copper; horses, brood mares, mules, asses, ...and wood for ship building.

The coasting trade is entirely confined to Haytian citizens.

The commerce of Port au-Prince is carried on by various classes of persons. The imports from Europe and America are principally ...d supplied to European and North American commission houses, ...besides a few Haytian establishments. The capital is one of the ports in which foreign merchants are confined by the law of patents; but they are, or at least were during the time of my residence, restricted by heavy penalties to wholesale business. Of course they cannot deal with the consumers, but with the native retailers, who are chiefly women, styled "marchandes;" these employ hucksters, also women, who traverse the country, attend the markets, and give an account of their transactions to their employers, either every evening, once a week, or once a month, according to their character for integrity.

In the payments of the importer are generally in money, and there is only one important article of export—coffee—the purchases for return can only be made after the crops have been gathered; and these are effected by brokers, who often bargain with a class of natives called coffee speculators, from their dealing for the chance of the market with the cultivators, and either sell to the best advantage, or fulfil contracts previously entered into.

Among the respectable *marchands* there is said to be much good faith; but with the great body of the customers, I believe, the merchants are obliged to use the utmost circumspection.

All the ordinary tradesmen, such as tailors and shoemakers, and even a water proof hat manufacturer, are to be found at Port-au-Prince. And I confess I was struck with the respectable appearance of several booksellers' shops, having looked in vain for such things both in Barbadoes and Antigua. The books are generally elementary, French publications, and romances. The works of Voltaire, Rousseau, and others of the same class, abound.

There are also two printing presses; one at which the government Gazette *Le Télégraphe* is printed, and the other from which the *Feuille du Commerce* issues. The former rarely contains more than the documents issued by the government; the latter occasionally some spirited papers, and is conducted by M. Courtois, who was for a short time director of the post office.

The apothecaries' shops are numerous, as they ought to be in such a horrible climate, and are well supplied with all the contents of the French Pharmacopœia. There are also some tanneries, in which the bark of the mangrove is used as the tanning material. As far as I could ascertain, the great bulk of the border people were either of that class of Europeans called in the French time "*petits blancs*," or people of colour. The labourers in town and country are generally black.

With the exception already referred to, we have derived these details with respect to Hayti partly from the communications to government, and the published *Notes* of Charles Mackenzie Esq., late consul in that island; and partly from Mr. Consul Courtenay's *Answers* to the *Circular Queries*.

PORTERS AND PORTERAGE. Porters are persons employed to carry messages or parcels, &c.

In London, they are divided into different classes. It is enacted by 39 Geo. 3. c. 58., that the following rates shall be the maximum charge upon all parcels not exceeding 56 lbs. weight, in London, Westminster, Southwark, and the suburbs; viz.—

	s.	d.
For any distance not exceeding 1-4 of a mile	0	3
Not exceeding 1-2 a mile	0	4
Not exceeding 1 mile	0	6
Not exceeding 1 1-2 mile	0	8
Not exceeding 2 miles	0	10

And so in like manner the additional sum of 3d. for every further distance not exceeding 1-2 a mile.

Tickets to be made out at the inns, and given to the porters, who are to deliver them with the parcels; and any innkeeper not making out such tickets to forfeit not exceeding 40s. nor less than 5s.; porters not delivering, or defacing the same, to forfeit 40s.; and if they make any overcharge they are to forfeit 20s. Parcels brought by coaches to be delivered within *six hours*, under a penalty not exceeding 20s. nor less than 10s. Parcels brought by wagons to be delivered within *twenty-four hours*, under a like penalty. Parcels directed to be left till called for, to be delivered to those to whom the same may be directed, on payment of the carriage, and 2d. for warehouse room, under like penalty. If parcels be not sent for till the expiration of a week, 1d. more for warehouse rent may be charged. Parcels not directed, to be left till called for, to be delivered on demand, under the above penalty. *Misdemeanour* of porters may be punished by a fine not exceeding 20s. nor less than 5s. The porters of London have the exclusive privilege of taking up and carrying goods within the city, and the employment of any one else may be punished by fine.

Porters (Tackle-House), are regulated by the city of London. They have the privilege of performing the labour of unshipping, landing, carrying, and housing the goods of the South Sea Company, the East India Company, and all other goods, except from the East country, the produce of the British plantations and Ireland, and goods coastwise. They give bond for 500l. to make restitution in case of loss or damage, and are limited to rates fixed by the corporation.

Porters (Packet), are persons appointed by the city of London, and have granted to them the exclusive privilege of unshipping, loading, and housing pitch, tar, soap, ashes, wainscot, fir, poles, masts, deals, oars, chests, tables, flax and hemp, brought to London from the East country; also, iron, cordage, and timber, and all goods of the produce of Ireland and the British plantations, and all goods coastwise, except lead. They are freemen of the city, give security in 100l. for fidelity, and have their names and numbers engraved on a metal badge. They are under the tackle porters; who may, in performing the business of the port, employ other labourers, if ticket porters be not at hand. (*Montefiore's Dictionary.*)

Any person may bring goods into the city of London; but he is liable to a fine if he either take up, or carry, any within the city. It is astonishing that such absurd regulations should be still kept up: why should not the merchants of London, as well as those of Manchester, be allowed to employ any one they please in the conveyance of goods? Does any one doubt that competition would, in this, as in every thing else, be productive of the greatest advantage? The regulations in question merely tend to keep up oppressive privileges, injurious to the public interests, and disadvantageous even to those in whose favour they are enacted.

PORT LOUIS, on NORTHWEST PORT, the capital of the Mauritius, in lat. 20° 9′ 56″ S., lon. 57° 28′ 41″ E. It is situated at the bottom of a triangular bay, the entrance to which is rather difficult. Every vessel approaching the harbour must hoist her flag and fire 2 guns; if in the night, a light must be shown; when a pilot comes on board, and steers the ship to the entrance of the port. It is a very convenient port for careening and repairing; but provisions of all sorts are dear. In the hurricane months, the anchorage in Port Louis is not good; and it can then only accommodate a very few vessels. The houses are low, and are principally built of wood. The town and harbour are pretty strongly fortified. Almost all the foreign trade of the island is carried on here.

The Mauritius was so called by the Dutch in honour of Prince Maurice; but it was first settled by the French in 1720; and is indebted for most part of its prosperity to the skilful management of its governor, the famous M. de la Bourdonnais. It was taken by the English in 1810; and was definitively ceded to us in 1814.

Exports and Imports, &c.—Mauritius is pretty fertile, a considerable part of the surface being, however, occupied by mountains. Its shape is circular, being about 150 miles in circumference. The climate is healthy, but is very subject to hurricanes. The principal product of the island is sugar, which is now cultivated to the almost total neglect of every thing else; but it also produces excellent coffee, indigo, and cotton. The blackwood or ebony of the Mauritius is very abundant, and of a superior quality. Very little corn or grain of any kind is raised in the island; most articles of provision being imported. Previously to 1825, the sugar and other articles brought to Great Britain from the Mauritius were charged with the same duties as the like articles from India: but in the above-mentioned year this distinction was done away, and it was enacted (6 Geo. 4. c. 111. § 44.), that all goods of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the Mauritius, should, upon importation into any port of the United Kingdom, be subject to the same duties and regulations as the like goods being of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the British colonies in the West Indies: and that the trade with the Mauritius should be placed as nearly as possible on the same footing as that of the West India islands.

This was a great boon to the Mauritius, and the exports of sugar from it, have since rapidly increased. According to Mr. Milburn (*Oriental Commerce*, vol. ii. p. 568.), they amounted, in 1812, to about 5,000,000 lbs. In 1818, they amounted to about 8,000,000 lbs.; and in 1824, to 23,234,533 lbs. They have since been as under:—

1826	-	42,489,416 lbs.	1830	-	54,399,320 lbs.
1827	-	40,616,254 —	1831	-	57,965,936 —
1828	-	48,638,780 —	1832	-	59,042,872 —
1829	-	33,371,396 —			

The cultivation of sugar being found more profitable than that of coffee, the exports of the latter, though of excellent quality, have declined so far, that in 1832 we only obtained from the Mauritius 26,646 lbs. The exports of cotton are also inconsiderable. The exports of ebony in 1826 amounted to 2,002,783 lbs., of the estimated value of 9,017*l.* The value of the tortoise-shell exported in the same year was also estimated at about 9,000*l.* Considerable quantities of Indian piece goods are exported. The principal imports consist of provisions, particularly grain and flour; the supply required for the use of the island being almost entirely derived from the Cape of Good Hope, Madagascar, India, Bourbon, &c. Earthenware, machinery, furniture, hardware, piece goods, wine, &c. are also largely imported. The total estimated value of the imports in 1831 amounted to 705,583*l.*; the estimated value of the exports for the same year being 606,684*l.* In 1831, 342 ships cleared outwards, of the burden of 90,462 tons; of which 22 ships, of the burden of 5,937 tons, were for Britain.

In 1826, the population of the Mauritius amounted to 91,624 souls; of which 8,111 were whites (exclusive of the king's troops), 15,444 free blacks, 69,076 slaves, 1,736 troops, and 257 resident strangers. The population of the Seychelles—small islands dependent on the Mauritius—amounted at the same time to 7,665, of whom 6,525 were slaves.

Monies, Weights, and Measures.—According to the regulations of government, the franc is deemed equal to 10*d.*, and the Spanish dollar to 4*s.* 4*d.* The government accounts are kept in sterling money; but merchants, shopkeepers, &c. keep their accounts in dollars and cents, and dollars, livres, and sous.

The measures and weights are those of France previously to the Revolution. 100 lbs. French = 108 lbs. English; the French foot is to the English foot as 100 to 93·89, but in practice they are supposed to be as 16 to 15. The velte = 1 gallon 7·8 pints English; but in commercial transactions it is always taken at 2 gallons.

Duties, &c.—A duty of 6 per cent. *ad valorem* is laid on all goods imported for consumption in British vessels from all quarters of the world. The duties on the goods imported in foreign ships are, for the most part also, 6 per cent. A duty of 25 cents, or 1*s.* 1*d.* per cwt. is laid on all sugar exported in British bottoms, to all places except Bourbon; and an additional duty of 6 per cent. *ad valorem* is laid on all goods exported in foreign bottoms. The charges for pilotage, wharfage, &c. are fixed by government, and may be learned at the Custom-house. For the most part they are very moderate.

Finance.—In a financial point of view, the Mauritius does not seem to be a very valuable acquisition. During the 15 years ending with 1825, the expenditure of government in the island exceeded the revenue by no less than 1,026,208*l.*! According to the estimate of the commissioners of inquiry, the probable future revenue of the Mauritius may be estimated at 184,233*l.* a year; but the commissioners state that the expenditure in the island in 1828 amounted to 166,509*l.*, and the expenditure in Great Britain on account of the island to 77,857*l.*; making together 244,366*l.*—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 194, Sess. 1831.) It appears from the accounts published by the Board of Trade, that the total revenue of the colony in 1831 amounted to 232,438*l.*, and the expenditure to 249,824*l.*—(Vol. i. p. 246.) We believe, however, that, by enforcing a system of unsparing retrenchment, this unfavourable balance might be considerably diminished: at present, both the number of functionaries and their salaries seem quite excessive.—(This article has been almost entirely compiled from official documents.)

PORTO-RICO, the capital of the valuable Spanish island of the same name, in lat. 18° 29′ 10″ N., lon. 66° 13′ 15″ W. It is situated on the north side of the island, on a peninsula joined to the main land by a narrow isthmus. The fortifications are very strong: the town which stands on a pretty steep declivity, is well built, clean, and contains from 20,000 to 30,000 inhabitants.

Harbour.—The harbour of Porto-rico has a striking resemblance to that of the Havannah, to which it is but little inferior. The entrance to it, about 300 fathoms in width, has the Morro Castle on its east side, and is defended on the west side by forts erected on 2 small islands. Within, the harbour expands into a capacious basin, the depth of water varying from 5 to 6 and 7 fathoms. On the side opposite to the town there are extensive sand banks; but the entrance to the port, as well as the port itself, is unobstructed by any bar or shallow.

The island of Porto-rico lies in the same latitude as Jamaica. Though the smallest of the greater Antilles, it is of a very considerable size. Its form is that of a parallelogram; being about 115 miles in length from east to west, with a mean breadth of about 35, containing an area of 4,140 square miles. The surface is plentifully diversified with hills and valleys, and the soil generally fertile. It has, however, suffered much from hurricanes; those of 1742 and 1825 having been particularly destructive. Since the breaking up of the old Spanish colonial system, the progress of Porto-rico has hardly been less rapid than that of Cuba. Her population, which in 1778 was estimated at 80,650, amounted, according to a census taken in 1827, to 288,473, of which only 28,408 were slaves. A large proportion of the free inhabitants are coloured: but the law knows no distinction between the white and the coloured *roturier*; and this circumstance, as well as the whites being in the habit of freely intermixing with people of colour, has prevented the growth of those prejudices and antipathies that prevail between the white and the black and coloured population in the United States, and in the English and French islands.—(*Balbi, Abrégé de la Géographie*, p. 1175; *Poinsett's Notes on Mexico*, Lond. ed. pp. 4—11.)

Trade.—Sugar and coffee are by far the greatest articles of export. Next to them are cattle, tobacco, molasses, rum, cotton, &c. The imports consist principally of flour, fish, and other articles of provision, lumber, &c. from the United States; cottons, hardware, machinery, &c. from England; wines, silks, jewellery, perfumery, &c. from Spain and France; linen from the Hanse Towns; iron from Sweden, &c. Large quantities of rice, maize, &c. are raised in the island.

Account of the Value of the Imports into, and the exports from, the Island of Porto-rico in 1830; specifying those made by the Spaniards, Americans, English, &c.

Flags.	Imports.	Exports.
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*
Spanish (from Spain)	267,816-0-09	233,794-2-08
Do. (cabotage) *	1,181,446-3-25	885,916-2-18
American	602,390-1-11	1,660,957-7-14
English	60,750-5-00	158,891-6-09
Hamburgh	97,726-7-32	136,049-5-27
German		
Bremen		

Flags.	Imports.	Exports.
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*
French	57,958-6-26	248,014-1-25
Holland	1,288-2-15	2,043-0-27
Danish	8,496-4-32	73,787-0-12
Sardinian	591-2-00	15,302-0-10
Swedish	848-5-00	390-0-00
Totals	2,309,941-5-13	3,511,845-3-14

The Quantity and Value of the principal Articles of Export in 1830 were—

	Quantity.	Value.
Cotton	4,078 quint.	59,743 dollars.
Sugar	340,163 —	1,360,655 —
Coffee	168,119 —	1,542,484 —
Molasses	2,484,739 quart.	82,215 —
Rum	873 puncb.	96,218 —
Tobacco	34,902 quint.	139,609 —
Hides, cattle, &c.		202,205 —
		3,219,129 dollars.

The Custom duties collected at the different ports of the island in 1830 amounted to 564,990 dollars. The city of Porto-rico has from 1-3d to 1-4th part of the trade of the island. The other principal ports are Mayagues, Ponce, Aguadilla, Guayama, and Fazardo.—(These statements have been taken from the *Balanza Mercantil*, published at Porto-rico, 20th of June, 1831.)

Shipping.—Arrivals in 1830.

	Vessels.	Tons.
Spaniards	840	15,163
Americans	213	29,906
English	36	4,103
French	67	5,790
Danes	25	1,923
Sardinians	2	284
Swedes	4	529
Dutch	7	251
Hanse towns	7	1,184
	1,221	59,526

Monies, *Weights*, and *Measures*, same as those of Havannah, which see.

PORTS. See HARBOURS.

POSTAGE AND POST-OFFICE. Postage is the duty or charge imposed on letters or parcels conveyed by post; the Post-office being the establishment by which such letters or parcels are conveyed.

1. *Establishment of Post-offices.*—Regular posts or couriers were instituted at a very early period, for the safe, regular, and speedy transmission of public intelligence. Herodotus informs us (lib. viii. c. 98.) that in Persia, men and horses, in the service of the monarch, were kept at certain stations along the public roads; and that the despatches, being given to the first courier, were by him carried to the second, and so on, with an expedition that neither snow, nor rain, nor heat, nor darkness could check. A similar institution, under the name of *cursus publicus*, was established at Rome by Augustus, and was extended and improved by his successors. Horses and carriages were kept in readiness at the different stations along the public roads, not only for the transmission of despatches, but also for the conveyance of official personages, or others who had obtained an order from authority allowing them to travel post. By this means government was speedily apprised of whatever took place in the remotest corners of the empire; and instructions or functionaries could be sent to, or recalled from, the most distant provinces, with a celerity that would even now appear considerable.—(*Bergier, Histoire des Grands Chemins*, liv. iv. c. 4.; *Bouchaud sur la Police des Romains*, pp. 136—151.)

Posts appear to have been established, for the first time, in modern Europe, in 1477, by Louis XI. They were originally intended to serve merely, as the ancient posts, for the conveyance of public despatches, and of persons travelling by authority of government. Subsequently, however, private individuals were allowed to avail themselves of this institution; and governments, by imposing higher duties or rates of postage, on the letters and parcels sent through the Post-office than are sufficient to defray the expense of the establishment, have rendered it productive of a considerable revenue. Nor, while the rates of postage are confined within due limits, or not carried so high as to form any serious obstacle to correspondence, is there, perhaps, a more unobjectionable tax.

English Post-office.—The Post-office was not established in England till the 17th century. Post-masters, indeed, existed in more ancient times; but their business was confined to the furnishing of post-horses to persons who were desirous of travelling expeditiously, and to the despatching of extraordinary packets upon special occasions. In 1635, Charles I. erected a letter office for England and Scotland; but this extended only to a few of the principal roads, the times of carriage were uncertain, and the post-masters on each road were required to furnish horses for the conveyance of the letters at the rate of 2½*d.* a mile. This establishment did not succeed; and at the breaking out of the civil war, great difficulty was experienced in the forwarding of letters. At length a post-office, or establishment for the *weekly* conveyance of letters to all parts of the kingdom, was instituted in 1649, by Mr. Edward Prideaux, attorney-general for the Commonwealth; the immediate consequence of which was a saving to the public of 7,000*l.* a year on account of post-masters. In 1657, the Post-office was established nearly on its present footing, and the rates of postage that were then fixed were continued till the reign of Queen Anne.—(*Black. Com.* book i. c. 8.)

From the establishment of the Post-office by Cromwell, down to 1784, mails were con-

* This does not mean a coasting trade from port to port in the island; but the trade carried on under the Spanish flag with St. Thomas and other foreign colonies.

veyed either on horseback, or in carts made for the purpose; and instead of being the most expeditious and safest conveyance, the post had become, at the latter period, one of the slowest and most easily robbed of any in the country. In 1784, it was usual for the diligences between London and Bath to accomplish the journey in *seventeen* hours (it is now accomplished in *twelve* hours), while the post took *forty* hours; and on other roads their rate of travelling was in about the same proportion. The natural consequence of such a difference in point of despatch was, that a very great number of letters were sent by those conveyances; the law being very easily evaded, by giving them the form of small parcels.

Under these circumstances, it occurred to Mr. John Palmer, of Bath, comptroller general of the Post-office, that a very great improvement might be made in the conveyance of letters, in respect of economy, as well as of speed and safety, by contracting with the proprietors of the coaches for the carriage of the mail; the latter being bound to perform the journey in a specified time, and to take a guard with the mail for its protection. Mr. Palmer's plan encountered much opposition, but was at length carried into effect. The consequences have proved most beneficial: the use of mail-coaches has extended to every part of the empire; and while the mail is conveyed in less than half the time that was required under the old system, the coaches by which it is conveyed afford, by their regularity and speed, a most desirable mode of travelling. Mr. Palmer was the author of several other improvements in the economy of the Post-office; nor is there any other individual to whose exertions this department owes so much.—(*Macpherson's Hist. of Com.* anno 1784.)

The Scotch Post-office was established on its present footing in 1710: but, owing to the backward state of Scotland, the limited amount of its trade and population, and the extreme badness of the roads—(see ROADS),—it was very defective in most parts of the country till after the American war. In proof of this, we may mention that the first mail-coach, from London to Glasgow direct, arrived at the latter on the 7th of July, 1788. Previously to that period, the course of post from London to Glasgow was five days; this, however, is not to be entirely ascribed to the slowness of the conveyance by horseback; for the mail came round by Edinburgh, and was detained there *twelve hours*, or till the usual Edinburgh despatch was made up for Glasgow in the evening!

It does not really seem, though the contrary has been sometimes contended, that the Post-office could be so well conducted by any one else as by government: the latter alone can enforce perfect regularity in all its subordinate departments; can carry it to the smallest villages, and even beyond the frontier; and can combine all its separate parts into one uniform system, on which the public may confidently rely both for security and despatch. The number of letters and newspapers conveyed by the British Post-office is quite immense. The letters only, despatched from London, may, we believe, be estimated, at an average, at about 40,000 a day!—(See *App. to 18th Report of Revenue Commissioners*, p. 299.)

Laws relating to the Post-office.—The post-master general does not come under the denomination of a carrier, for he enters into no contract, and has no hire; the postage of letters being an article of revenue, and not a mere reward for the conveyance. He is, therefore, not liable to constructive negligence.

But the safety of letters by the post is provided for by numerous statutes; and for inferior offences, which do not amount to absolute crimes, by the regulations of the General Post-office, all inferior officers are punished by dismission, on complaint to the post-master general, or his deputies.

The early statutes for the protection of letters, before mail-coaches were invented, still apply to those roads on which such coaches are not established. The first necessary to be noticed is 5 Geo. 3. c. 25., which enacts, that if post-boys conveying the mail-bag shall quit the mail, or suffer any other person to ride on the horse or carriage, or shall loiter on the road, or not, if possible, convey the mail at the rate of 6 miles an hour, they shall, on conviction before 1 justice, on oath of 1 witness, be sent to the house of correction for not exceeding 1 month, nor less than 14 days. For unlawfully collecting letters to convey them, being convicted in like manner, shall forfeit for every such letter 10*s.* to informer, and be committed for 2 months, mitigable to 1. And any person *intrusted to take in letters, and receive the postage*, embezzling, or employing to their own use, the same; or burning or destroying said letters; or advancing the rate of postage, and not accounting for the money shall be guilty of felony.

The 7 Geo. 3. c. 5. extends the punishment to *all persons whatever employed in the business of the Post-office*, guilty of the like offences, and for stealing out of any letter, any bill, note, or other security for money, and makes the offence felony without benefit of clergy. This statute did not extend to embezzling money itself, or to *parts* of securities.

The 42 Geo. 3 c. 81. extends the punishment of felony without benefit of clergy to all such persons, stealing *parts* of notes, bills, or other securities, out of letters, as also to all persons buying or receiving the same; and the accessaries may be tried whether the principals be apprehended or not, and the offence may be tried either where it was committed or the offender apprehended.

And, by the same statute, if any person shall wilfully secrete, or detain, or refuse to deliver to any officer of the Post-office authorised to demand the same, any letter or bag of letters intended to be conveyed by the mail, which he shall have found or picked up, or which shall by accident or mistake have been left with any other person, he shall be guilty of a misdemeanour, and punished by fine and imprisonment.

By 52 Geo. 3. 143., if any deputy, clerk, agent, letter-carrier, post-boy or rider, or any other officer employed by or under the Post-office, on receiving, stamping, sorting, changing, carrying, conveying, or delivering letters or packets, in any way relating to the Post-office, shall secrete, embezzle, or destroy any letter, packet, or bag or mail of letters, which shall have come into his hands in consequence of such employment, containing the whole, or any part of any bank note, bank post bill, bill of exchange, Exchequer bill, South Sea or East India bond, dividend warrant of the same, or any other company, society, or corporation; navy, or victualling, or transport bill; ordnance debenture, seaman's ticket, state lottery ticket, or debenture, bank receipt for payment on any loan, note of assignment of stock in the funds, letter of attorney for receiving dividends or selling stock in the funds, or

belonging to any company; American provincial bill of credit, goldsmiths' or bankers' letter of credit, or note relating to the payment of money, or other bond, warrant, draft, bill, or promissory note whatever, for payment of money; or shall steal and take out of any letter, with which he shall have been so intrusted, or which shall have come to his hand, the whole or any part of any such bank note, bank post-bill, &c.; shall be guilty of felony without benefit of clergy.

Any person stealing or taking away from any carriage, or from the possession of any person employed to convey letters sent by the post, or from any receiving-house for the Post-office, or from any bag or mail sent or to be sent by the same, any letter, packet, bag, or mail, shall suffer death without benefit of clergy.

And all persons who shall counsel, command, hire, persuade, promise, aid, or abet such persons, or shall with a fraudulent intention buy or receive any such securities, instruments, &c., shall suffer in like manner: accessaries may be tried before apprehension or trial of principals. Trials may be in the county where offenders are apprehended.

Exemptions from Postage, Franking, &c.—The statutes for regulating the rates of postage, and the exemptions from postage, from the 9th of Anne to the 53d of Geo. 3., are too numerous to be inserted, but the principal regulations are as follows:—

The king, the person filling the principal offices of government, the public Boards, and the Post-office may send and receive letters duty free.

Also all members of either house of parliament during the sitting of the same, or within 40 days before or after any summons or prorogation, not exceeding 1 ounce in weight, on condition that the names of the member, and the post town from which sent, the day of the month at full length, and the year, shall be endorsed thereon; also that the member directing it shall be at, or within 20 miles of the post town, on the day, or day before, the letter is put into the post-office; and also on condition that no member send more than 10, or receive more than 15, letters in one day.

Printed votes of parliament, and newspapers in covers open at the sides, &c. are exempted from postage.

But the post-masters may search to see if any thing else be contained in the cover; and if there be any such found, it shall be charged treble postage.

Persons altering the superscription of franked letters, or counterfeiting the handwriting of members on them to avoid postage, guilty of felony, and to be transported for 7 years.

But nevertheless, members who from infirmity are unable to write, may authorise and depute another to frank for them, sending notice thereof under hand and seal, attested by a witness, to the post-master general.

Bills of exchange, invoices, merchants' accounts, &c. written on the same piece of paper with a letter, or several letters written to several persons on one piece of paper, to pay as *one* letter.—(7 & 8 *Geo.* 4. c. 21.)

So writs or other legal proceedings.

Patterns and samples of goods in covers open at the sides, without any writing inside, to be charged as single letters. But, by 52 Geo. 3., if not open at the sides, and weighing only 1 oz., an additional rate of 2*d.*; but if less than 1 oz. and open at the side only, the additional rate of 1*d.*

Foreign letters suspected to contain prohibited goods may be opened in the presence of a justice, or magistrate, of the place, or district, on oath of person suspecting. If contraband goods found, to be destroyed, and the letter sent to the commissioners of customs; if none found, the letter to be forwarded with an attestation of the circumstances by the justice or magistrate.

By 9 Anne, c. 10., no person except the post-master, and persons authorised by him, shall carry or convey any letters, on pain of 5*l.* for every offence, and a penalty of 100*l.* per week besides, to be recovered in any court of record. And by 5 Geo. 4. c. 20., no person shall send or tender, or deliver to be sent, otherwise than by the authority of the post-master or his deputies, or to the nearest or most convenient post town to be forwarded by the post, any letter or packet, on pain of 5*l.* for each letter so sent, to be recovered in any court at Westminster.

Except letters *concerning goods* to be delivered *with such goods*, sent by a common carrier; letters of merchants, owners of ships or merchant vessels with cargoes to be delivered; such letters being carried without hire or reward; any commission or return thereof; process or return thereof out of any court, or any letter sent by any private friend in their way of journey; or by any messenger sent on purpose concerning private affairs.

Post-masters may make private agreements with persons living in places (not being post towns), for the receiving and sending to them respectively, letters to and from the post town; but for the delivery of letters within the limits of the post town, he is entitled to no remuneration.

CONVEYANCE OF LETTERS BY POST.

RECEIVING AND DESPATCHING OF LETTERS.—Speaking generally, letters may be put into the receiving boxes of the different post-offices throughout the country at all hours of the day, and mostly, also, of the night. The mails for particular places are made up at certain specified hours, of which public intimation is given; and letters put in after those hours are not of course despatched till next mail.

General Post-Office, London.—Letters to be despatched that day are received at the general post receiving houses till 6 P. M.; by the letter-carriers ringing bells, (on payment of 1*d.* with each letter or newspaper), from 5 to 6 P. M.; at the Branch post-offices, at Charing Cross, Vere Street, Oxford Street, and Borough, till ½ past 6 P. M., and at the General Post-office, in St. Martin's-le-Grand, and the Branch Post-office, Lombard Street, till 7 P. M.

Stamps.—The date shows when the letters were received at the General Post-office.

The circular stamp of black ink, when the postage is to be paid on delivery.

Ditto of red ink, with the word "Paid," when the postage has been paid at the time of posting the letter.

Ditto of red ink, with the word "Free," when letters are franked.

Overcharged Letters.—Overcharges returned, on presenting the letter at the window in the hall at the office, St. Martin's-le-Grand; or the letter may be sent to the office by the letter-carrier, and the overcharge will be returned with the letter in 2 days. When single letters are charged double, or double letters treble, if they are opened in presence of the letter-carriers who deliver them, that part having the direction and tax upon it will be sufficient to obtain return of the overcharge; but in cases of single letters being charged treble, such letters must be shown at the Post-office before return of overcharge can be made.

Ship Letter Office.—The postage for letters forwarded through this office, to the Cape of Good Hope, New South Wales, Isle of France, Bombay, Ceylon, Madras, Bengal, Singapore, and Prince of Wales' Island, is the full inland rate of postage to the port where the ship may be, and 2*d.* sea postage in addition, for every letter not exceeding 3 ounces, and 1*s.* per ounce for every letter above that weight.

Letters from the country for the above places are charged with the full inland postage to London, and 2*d.* sea postage in addition, for every letter not exceeding 3 ounces, and 1*s.* per ounce for every letter above that weight.

All letters from abroad, except the Cape of Good Hope, Isle of France, New South Wales, Bombay, Ceylon, Madras, Bengal, Singapore, and Prince of Wales' Island, are liable to a sea postage of 8*d* single, and 1*s.* 4*d.* double, and so on over and above all inland rates whatever; but those from the

Cape of Good Hope, Isle of France, Bombay, Ceylon, Madras, Bengal, Singapore, and Prince of Wales' Island, are liable to the full inland rates, and a sea postage of 4d. for every letter not exceeding the weight of 3 ounces and 1s. per ounce for every letter exceeding that weight.

N. B.—All letters forwarded through this Office must be paid for at the time they are put into the office.

Seamen's and soldiers' single letters are forwarded through this office to the East Indies and New South Wales, on payment of 1d. at the time of putting in; and such letters from the East Indies are chargeable with 1d., or 3d. if the post-office have to pay the gratuity of 2d. to the commander when landed in the United Kingdom.

Seamen and Soldiers, within any part of his Majesty's dominions, to and from which there are regular mails, can send and receive single letters on their own private concerns only, while they are employed on his Majesty's service, for 1d.

Letters coming from a Seaman, or from a Sergeant, Corporal, Trumpeter, Fifer, or private Soldier.—The penny must be paid at the time it is put into the post-office. The name of the soldier or sailor, his class or description, and the name of the ship or regiment, corps or detachment, to which he belongs, must be specified on the letter. And the officer having the command must sign his name, and specify the name of the ship or regiment, corps, or detachment, he commands.

Letters going to Seamen or Soldiers.—The penny must be paid at the time it is put into the post-office.

Printed votes and proceedings in Parliament sent from Great Britain and Ireland by packet boats to any of his Majesty's colonies are to be charged with a rate of *one penny half-penny per ounce*, and so on in proportion, in lieu of any sum payable under any former act, *to be paid on putting the said votes and proceedings into the Post-office.* Colonial legislative proceedings may be sent from the colonies to the United Kingdom by packet boat at the same rate.

Pamphlets, magazines, reviews, &c. may be sent by packet boat from Falmouth to any of His Majesty's colonies at the rate of 1s. if not exceeding six ounces in weight, and 3d. per ounce above that weight.

N. B.—If such printed vote, proceeding, pamphlet, magazine, &c. be not sent *without a cover, or in a cover open at the sides*, or if *any writing be thereon*, other than the superscription, or *any other paper or thing* be enclosed therein, the packet will be liable to the full rates of postage as a letter.

Bank Notes and Drafts.—Persons wishing to send bank notes or drafts by post, are advised to cut such notes or drafts in halves, and send them at two different times, waiting till the receipt of one half is acknowledged before the other is sent.

Money, Rings, or Lockets, &c.—When money, rings, or lockets, &c. are sent by the post from London, particular care should be taken to deliver the same to the clerk at the window at the General Post-office, and when any such letter is to be sent from the country, it should be delivered into the hands of the post-master: but it is to be observed, that this office does not engage to insure the party from loss.

Cautions to Masters of Vessels.—Masters of vessels opening sealed bags or letters intrusted to them, or taking thereout letters, or not duly delivering the bags at the post-office of the first port of arrival, forfeit 200*l.* Masters or others having letters in their possession after the master's delivering the letters at the post-office, forfeit 5*l.* for every letter found on board.—(55 *Geo.* 3. c. 153.)

Masters and commanders of vessels are required to deliver their ship's letters to the person appointed by the post-master general to demand the same; and if any letters not exempted by law, not exceeding the weight therein mentioned, be found on board after any such demand, the same penalty is incurred as on masters and commanders in whose possession letters are found after delivering their letters at the post-office.—(7 & 8 *Geo.* 4 c. 21.)

Masters and commanders of vessels are bound to deliver at the post-office of the first port at which they arrive, all letters on board not exempted by law, if they shall not have been previously demanded by some person specially appointed for that purpose by the post-master-general.

Rates of Postage, Great Britain and Ireland.

Rates of Postage to be taken in the Currency of the United Kingdom for the Port and Conveyance of Letters and Packets by the Post, from any Place in Great Britain to any Place in Ireland, or from any Place in Ireland to any Place in Great Britain.

Distance.	Single Letter.	Double Letter.	Treble Letter, or other under an Ounce Weight.	For every Ounce Weight, and for every Packet not exceeding an Ounce in Weight.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
If the distance of such places shall not exceed 15 miles, British measure	0 4	0 8	1 0	1 4
Exceeding 15, and not exceeding 20 such miles	0 5	0 10	1 3	1 8
20 — — 30 —	0 6	1 0	1 6	2 0
30 — — 50 —	0 7	1 2	1 9	2 4
50 — — 80 —	0 8	1 4	2 0	2 8
80 — — 120 —	0 9	1 6	2 3	3 0
120 — — 170 —	0 10	1 8	2 6	3 4
170 — — 230 —	0 11	1 10	2 9	3 8
230 — — 300 —	1 0	2 0	3 0	4 0
300 — — 400 —	1 1	2 2	3 3	4 4
400 — — 500 —	1 2	2 4	3 6	4 8
500 — — 600 —	1 3	2 6	3 9	5 0
600 — — 700 —	1 4	2 8	4 0	5 4
700	1 6	2 10	4 3	5 8
Letters and packets conveyed by packet boats between the ports of Portpatrick and Donaghadee, a packet postage over and above all other rates	0 4	0 8	1 0	1 4
Letters and packets conveyed by packet boats from or to Holyhead or Milford Haven, to or from any port in Ireland, a packet postage over and above all other rates	0 2	0 4	0 6	0 8
Letters and packets conveyed by packet boats to or from Liverpool, from or to Dublin, or any other port in Ireland, a packet postage over and above all other rates	0 8	1 4	2 0	2 8
Provided that no letter sent by way of Liverpool shall be chargeable with a higher rate of postage than if it were sent by way of Holyhead.				
Letters and packets to and from any part of Great Britain or Ireland, by way of Dublin and Holyhead, in addition to all other rates (Menai Bridge)	0 1	0 2	0 3	0 4
Letters and packets to and from any part of Great Britain or Ireland, by way of Conway and Chester, in addition to all other rates (Conway Bridge)	0 1	0 2	0 3	0 4
And so in proportion in all the aforesaid cases for any other letter or packet of greater weight than an ounce.				

Letters containing 1 enclosure are chargeable with 2 single rates. Letters containing more than 1 enclosure, and not exceeding 1 ounce, are chargeable with 3 single rates. Letters exceeding 1 ounce, whatever the number may be, are chargeable with 4 single rates; and for every 1-4 of an ounce above that weight, an additional single rate is chargeable.

Letters to soldiers and sailors, if single, and in conformity to the act of parliament, are chargeable with 1 penny only.

Great Britain.

	Postage of a Single Letter in Pence.
From any post-office in Great Britain to any place not exceeding 15 miles from such office	4
For any distance above 15 miles, and not exceeding 20 miles	5
20 — 30 —	6
30 — 50 —	7
50 — 80 —	8
80 — 120 —	9
120 — 170 —	10
170 — 230 —	11
230 — 300 —	12

And so in proportion; the postage increasing progressively 1d. for a single letter for every 100 miles.

Ireland.

	Postage of a Single Letter in Pence.
From any post-office in Ireland to any place within the same, not exceeding 7 Irish miles from such office	3
Exceeding 7 and not exceeding 15 Irish miles	3
— 15 — 25 —	4
— 25 — 35 —	5
— 35 — 45 —	6
— 45 — 55 —	7
— 55 — 65 —	8
— 65 — 90 —	9
— 90 — 120 —	10
— 120 — 150 —	11
— 150 — 200 —	12
— 200 — 250 —	13
— 250 — 300 —	14

And for every 100 miles, Irish measure, above 300 miles, a further sum of 1d. Double and treble letters charged according to the same scale of advance as in England.

Foreign Ports.—Postage of a single Letter to and from London.

	s.	d.
France	0	10
Dover and Calais	0	3
Italy	} 1	7
Ionian Isles and Turkey via France		
Germany	} 1	8
Norway		
Russia		
Prussia		
Denmark		
Sweden		
Switzerland	1	2

	s.	d.
Germany via France	1	4
Spain	1	7
Spain via Cadiz	2	2
Holland and the Netherlands	1	4
America	2	2
West India Islands	2	2
St. Domingo	2	2
Gibraltar	2	10
Malta and Mediterranean	3	2
Madeira	} 3	7
The Azores		
The Canaries		

	s.	d.
Portugal	2	6
Brazils	2	6
Buenos Ayres	} 3	4
Chili		
Peru		
Colombia		
La Guayra		
Honduras	} 3	0
Mexico		
Tampico		
Cuba	2	0
Portugal and Gibraltar, via France	1	7

Persons sending letters from the United Kingdom to *any part of France*, may, 1st, send them unpaid, allowing the whole postage to be paid by the receiver; or, 2nd, they may pay the *whole postage* in advance; or, 3rd, they may pay the *British postage* only to the frontier of *France*. But the full postage must be paid in advance, on all letters for other countries passing through France, and on all letters to any of the places and parts specified, above, (except the West India colonies and British America,) otherwise they will not be forwarded.

No letter addressed to any part in France will be chargeable with more than a single rate of British postage, *whatever the number of enclosures* may be, if it do not exceed 1-4 of an ounce weight; or double postage from 1-4 oz. and not exceeding 1-2 oz., and treble postage from 1-2 oz. and not exceeding 1 oz.

The postage in France is charged *wholly by weight*, without reference to the composition of the letter, and is at the rate of a single postage if under 1-4 oz., and so on in proportion. A single sheet of paper, weighing more than 1-4 oz. is therefore liable in France to additional charge.

Registered Letters.—Persons desirous of registering letters and packets for France, and passing through France, may have them entered on the letter-bill; such letters will be liable to a registration fee of 2s. 6d. each, in addition to the ordinary *British* rates, and to double the *French* postage, according to weight. The *whole payment to the place of destination* must be made in advance, and such letters must be brought to the General Post-office, for the purpose of being registered, before 6 o'clock in the evening on ordinary post-nights, and before 10 o'clock on *Tuesdays and Fridays*.

Mails made up in London as follows:

France, daily.

Belgium, *Ostend*, Monday, Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday.

Holland, *Hamburgh*, and *Sweden*, Tuesday and Friday.

America, first Wednesday, monthly.

Madeira, *Brazil*, and *Buenos Ayres*, first Tuesday, monthly.

Lisbon and *Madeira*, every Saturday.

Gibraltar, *Malta*, *Spain*, *Greece*, *Corfu*, *Egypt*, and *India*, 1st of every month.

Mexico and *Havannah*, 15th of every month.

Jamaica, *Hayti*, *Leeward Islands*, and *Carthagena*, 15th of every month.

Jamaica, *Leeward Islands*, *Hayti*, and *La Guayra*, 1st of every month.

Letters for Portugal, Brazil, and other foreign ports, will in future be received until the hour for closing the boxes for inland letters.

CONVEYANCE OF NEWSPAPERS BY POST.

The former acts relating to this department of the Post-office have been repealed and consolidated by the 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 54., of which the following official abstract has been published:—

United Kingdom.—Printed newspapers liable to the stamp-duty, and duly stamped, sent by the General Post, within the United Kingdom, will be delivered free of all charge, being no longer subject to penny or twopenny post rates as heretofore.

Newspapers not having passed, or to pass, through the general post, but which are put into and delivered through the penny or two-penny post of any city, town, or place, will be charged 1d. each on delivery.

British Colonies and Possessions.—Printed newspapers, duly stamped, addressed to any of his Majesty's colonies and possessions beyond seas, sent by his Majesty's packets, will be forwarded free of charge; if to be sent by private ships a postage of 1d. each must be paid on putting them into a post-office.

Newspapers sent to India, the Cape of Good Hope, New South Wales, &c. will no longer be charged by weight, but 1d. each.

Newspapers printed in the British colonies and possessions, brought to the United Kingdom by his Majesty's packets, will be delivered free of charge; if brought by private ships they will be charged 1d. each on delivery.

Newspapers may be sent from one British colony to another, *via* the United Kingdom, by his Majesty's packets, free of postage.

Foreign Parts.—In the former impressions of this work, we had occasion to point out and censure the objectionable practice that had long prevailed in the Post-office, of eking out the salaries of the clerks in the foreign department by allowing them to charge heavy sums on the newspapers transmitted to and received from foreign parts. To such an extent was this practice carried, that, while the annual cost of a daily London paper amounted (previously to the late reduction of the stamp-duty,) in any part of Great Britain, to 9*l.* 1*s.* a year, it could not be had at Calais or Boulogne for less than 13*l.* 5*s.*, the clerks in the Post-office being allowed to charge 4*l.* 4*s.* for their trouble in conveying it! The fees charged on the French papers brought to England were similar. It is not going too far to say, that this preposterous system opposed a far more serious obstacle to the diffusion of intelligence than any that could have grown out of the fears and efforts of the most arbitrary and powerful monarchs. Luckily, however, it is now wholly abolished; French papers being received in all parts of the United Kingdom on payment of ½d. of postage, and British papers being transmitted to all parts of France, subject only to a charge of 4 centimes on delivery. The regulations are as follows:—

Printed newspapers, duly stamped, addressed to the under-mentioned countries and places, may be forwarded by his *Majesty's Packets* free of charge, viz.:—

France	Buenos Ayres
Hamburgh	Colombia
Bremen	Caraccas
Denmark	Carthagena
Greece	Bogota
Corfu, and Ionian Islands	Hayti, or St. Domingo.

If sent by *private ships*, 1d. each must be paid on putting them into a post-office.

Newspapers published in any of the afore-named countries and places, brought by his Majesty's packets, will be delivered free of charge, except those from France, which are liable to 1-2d. each on delivery; if brought by private ships, they will be charged 1d. each.

Printed newspapers, duly stamped, and sent by his Majesty's packets, or by private ships, to other foreign countries and places not enumerated in the preceding list must be charged 2d. each when put into the post; newspapers from such countries, brought into the United Kingdom by his Majesty's packets, or by private ships, will be charged 2d. each upon delivery.

Newspapers intended to be sent either to the British colonies and possessions, or to foreign parts, must be put into the post within 7 days after the day on which they were published; and foreign newspapers must be printed in the language of the country from which they have been forwarded. On failure of either of these provisions, they will be charged as letters.

If the person to whom a newspaper, from the British colonies or from foreign parts, is directed, shall have removed from the place to which such newspaper shall be addressed, prior to the delivery thereof at the place of its address, it may (provided it has not been opened or used, but not otherwise), be redirected and forwarded to such person at any other place within the United Kingdom, free from any additional charge; but if it shall have been opened or used, it will, on re-direction, be charged with the rate of a single letter from

the place at which it shall have been re-directed or reposted to the place where delivered.

General Regulations.—All newspapers forwarded by post must be sent without covers, or in covers, open at the sides; they are otherwise chargeable with postage as letters.

Newspapers, British or foreign, containing any letter, paper, or thing enclosed, or with any writing or marks of reference or information whatever upon them, or upon the covers, other than the address, will be charged with treble the duty of letter postage.

Postmasters are authorised and required to examine and search all newspapers, to protect the revenue from fraud; and the Postmaster-General is empowered by the Act of Parliament to proceed against parties attempting any frauds upon the revenue through the medium of newspapers.

Twopenny Post-Office.—Besides the General Post-office, or that intended for the conveyance of letters from one part of the kingdom to another, and to and from foreign parts, letters are received in the metropolis, and other large towns, for delivery in the same. In London, these letters are charged 2*d.*; but in other towns they are only charged 1*d.* The limits of the twopenny post extend to all places within a circle of 12 miles from the General Post-office; there are daily several deliveries, and the establishment is extremely convenient. The Twopenny Post-office is dependent upon, though in some measure distinct from, the General Post-offices. Its principal office is at the General Post-office. There are a great number of receiving houses scattered up and down the town and the adjacent country.

The gross receipt and nett revenue derived from the two-penny post in the metropolis in the under-mentioned years, has been as follows:—

Years.	Gross Receipt.	Charge of Collection.	Nett Revenue.
	L.	*L.*	*L.*
1834	109,148	45,425	63,723
1835	112,994	47,510	65,414

Regulations of the Two-Penny Post-Office.—The principal office is at the General Post-office, St. Martin's-le-Grand, where letters may be posted 1 hour later at each despatch than at the receiving houses. For the accommodation of the western part of the metropolis, letters are received at the office at Charing Cross, corner of Craig's Court, and at the office in Regent Street, near Langham Place, 1-2 hour later at each despatch than at any of the other receiving houses. There are 8 deliveries and 6 collections of letters in London, daily; and by a recent regulation, the 7 o'clock delivery has been extended to all places in the environs of London, within the circle of 3 miles from the General Post-office; and most of these places have now 5 deliveries and 5 despatches, daily. Most other parts of the country districts have 3 deliveries, and two despatches daily.

The following are the places within the 3 mile circle that have 5 deliveries and 5 despatches daily:—Camden Town; Dalston; Hackney; Islington; Kent Road (Old), as far as St. Mary-le-Strand workhouse; Kennington; Kentish Town, as far as Mansfield Place; Kingsland; Newington Butts; Pentonville; Shacklewell; Somers Town; Vauxhall and Walworth.

The following places have 4 deliveries daily:—Bayswater; Bow; Brompton, Middlesex; Bromley, Middlesex; Camberwell; Chelsea; Little Chelsea, as far as Church Lane; Holloway; Highbury; Kensington, Paddington; and South Lambeth.

There is an extra despatch of letters from the last mentioned places in the middle of the day, and also from Clapham, Clapton, Hampstead, Homerton, Stockwell, and Stratford. Letters forwarded by this extra despatch, are delivered in London 3 hours earlier than those forwarded by the last despatch, and in most parts of the country districts, they are delivered the same night.

By command of the Postmaster General, the country delivery of this office has been extended to a circle of 12 miles from the General Post-office. The places that have been added to the country districts of the twopenny post by this extension, have also a delivery by the General Post. Letters intended for that delivery, must be put into general post-offices only.

The time by which letters should be put into the receiving houses, or the principal office, for each delivery of the day, and that by which they are despatched for delivery, are as follows:—

Letters going from one Part of the Town to another.

If put into the receiving houses by	Or the principal office by	They are sent out for delivery at
8 morning	9 morning	10 morning
10 —	11 —	12 —
12 —	1 afternoon	2 afternoon
2 afternoon	3 —	4 —
5 —	6 —	7 —
8 —	9 —	8 next morning.

And each delivery should be completed generally in about 1 1-2 hour after the despatch from the principal office, according to distance and number of letters, &c.

From London to the Country.

If put into the receiving houses by	Or either of the 2 principal offices by	They are despatched from the latter at
8 morning	9 morning	10 morning
2 afternoon	3 afternoon	4 afternoon
5 —	6 —	7 —

To places having but 2 deliveries a day, letters are sent off at the above hours of 10 in the morning and 4 or 7 in the afternoon. Such as go off at 10 are delivered at noon; those at 4 are delivered the same evening; and such as go off at 7 are for delivery early next morning. To places having only 1 post a day, they go off at 10, and are delivered the same day at noon.

The deliveries in the country should be completed, generally, between the hours of 11 and 1; between 6 and 8 in the evening; and by, or about 9 in the morning.

From the Country to London.—If put into the post in time for the morning despatch, they arrive in town between 10 and 11 o'clock, and are sent out at 12 from the principal office, for delivery in all parts of London. If put in for the afternoon despatch, they arrive between the hours of 5 and 6, and are sent out at 7 for delivery the same evening.

From one Part of the Country to another.—If going from one part of a ride or district to another part of the same ride or district, and put in for the morning despatch, they are delivered, through the means of a by-post arrangement, the same day at noon. If put in for the afternoon despatch, they are delivered the same evening, where an evening delivery is given. If going to parts not belonging to the same ride, they come to London, such letters put into the post for the morning despatch, are delivered in the country the same evening, when an evening delivery is given; if for the afternoon despatch, the next morning, where a morning delivery is given; or otherwise at noon.

Stamps.—The date stamp on letters, &c. if there be more than one, that having the latest hour, shows the day and time of day they were despatched for delivery; that on returned letters excepting, which shows the time they were returned to the office as dead letters. Persons having occasion to complain of the delay of their letters, are requested to transmit to the superintending president the cover, with a statement of the time of delivery, as the date and stamp will assist materially in tracing their course.

Postage.—The postage of each letter or packet posted at any office within a circle of 3 miles from the General Post-office, for delivery at any place within that limit, is 2*d.* To or from all places beyond this circle (being within the limits of this office) it is 3*d.*

All beyond the 3 mile circle, and within the 12 mile circle, pay 3*d.*

Soldiers and Sailors.—*Single* letters *from* or *to* soldiers and sailors, under certain restrictions, pass throughout both this and the general post, or either, for 1*d.* only, if paid at putting in.

Newspapers.—Newspapers posted at London, or at any place within the 12 mile circle, for delivery within that limit, are charged 1*d.* each; but they pass to or from the General Post free of postage.

Letters of Value.—This Office is not liable to make good the loss of property contained in letters. But, for the greater security of such property, it is recommended that notice of it be given to the office-keepers, at putting into the post. This, however, with the exception of bank or other notes, or drafts payable to bearer, which should be cut in halves and sent at twice, the first half to be acknowledged before the other is sent.

Weight.—No letters or packages exceeding the weight of 4 oz. can be sent by this post, except such as have first passed by, or are intended to pass by, the general or foreign mails.

Letters for this Post not to be put into the General Post.—Letters for the twopenny post are sometimes put into the general post, by which they are unavoidably delayed. It is, therefore, recommended that they be put into the twopenny post offices or receiving houses, that they may be regularly forwarded by their proper conveyance.

Letters not to be delivered back.—And to prevent the possibility of letters being surreptitiously obtained from the offices where put in, office-keepers are strictly forbidden returning, to any person whatsoever, letters that may be applied for, under whatever circumstance the recovery may be urged. This is moreover forbidden by the established principle, that the instant a letter is committed to the post, it is no longer the property of the sender.

Post-office Revenue.—The progress of the Post-office revenue of Great Britain has been very remarkable. Most part of its increased amount is, no doubt, to be ascribed to the greatly increased population of the country, and the growing intercourse among all classes of the community; but a good deal must also be ascribed to the efforts made in the early part of the reign of George III. to suppress the abuses that had grown out of the privilege of franking, and still more to the additions that have repeatedly been made to the rates. We believe, however, that these have been completely overdone; and considering the vast importance of a cheap and safe conveyance of letters to commerce, it will immediately be seen that this is a subject deserving of grave consideration. In point of fact the post-office revenue has *been about stationary since* 1814; though, from the increase of population and commerce in the intervening period, it is pretty obvious that, had the rates of postage n

been so high as to force recourse to other channels, the revenue must have been decidedly greater now than at the end of the war. Were the rates moderate, the greater despatch and security of the post-office conveyance would hinder any considerable number of letters from being sent through other channels. But, in the estimation of very many persons, the present duties more than countervail these advantages; and the number of coaches that now pass between all parts of the country, and the facility with which the law may be evaded, by transmitting letters in parcels conveyed by them, renders the imposition of oppressive rates of postage quite as injurious to the revenue as to individuals.

The *gross* produce of the post-office revenue of Great Britain, exclusive of Ireland, in the under-mentioned years, has been as follows:—

Years.	Duty.	Years.	Duty.	Years.	Duty.	Years.	Duty.
	£		£		£		£
1722	201,804	1810	1,675,076	1828	2,048,042	1832	2,034,603
1755	110,663	1814	2,005,987	1829	2,024,418	1833	
1775	345,321	1820	1,993,885	1830	2,053,720	1834	2,079,509
1793	745,238	1825	2,160,390	1831	2,064,334	1835	2,107,677
1800	1,083,950						

The progress of the Scotch branch of the post-office revenue has been quite extraordinary. In 1698, Sir Robert Sinclair of Stephenson had a grant from William III. of its entire produce, with an extra allowance of 300*l.* a year, on condition of his keeping up the post; but, after trial, he abandoned the undertaking as disadvantageous. In 1709, the Scotch post-office revenue was under 2,000*l.*: its amount in 1835 was 209,207*l. gross*, and 197,968*l. nett*; having increased nearly a *hundred* fold, in little more than a century! In 1781, the Glasgow post-office produced only 4,341*l.* 4*s.* 9*d.*, while its revenue is at present nearly 40,000*l.*!—(*Stark's Picture of Edinburgh*, p. 144; *Cleland's Statistics of Glasgow*; *Finance Book for* 1835, &c.)

The expenses of collecting the post-office revenue amount, at an average, to from 24 to 30 per cent. on the gross receipt. In 1835, they were, for Great Britain, 582,509*l.*, being at the rate of about 27½ per cent. After all deductions on account of collection, over-payments, drawbacks, &c., the total nett payments into the exchequer, on account of the post-office revenue of Great Britain, in 1835, amounted to 1,418,000*l.*

The British post-office is admitted on all hands to be managed with great intelligence. But there are several departments in which it is believed that a considerable saving of expense might be effected. In 1835, the packet service cost, freights deducted, 57,949*l.*; and the mileage to mail coaches, and the payments to guards, tolls, &c., amounted to about 90,000*l.* The conveyance of mails in Canada, Nova Scotia, and Jamaica, was an item of above 12,672*l.*!

There may, in all, be about 3,000 persons employed in the carriage and distribution of letters in Great Britain only; besides about 180 coaches, and from 4,000 to 5,000 horses.

Account of the Gross Receipt of the Post-office Revenue at the following Cities and Towns in 1833 1834, and 1835.

Places.	Years.			Places.	Years.		
	1833.	1834.	1835.		1833.	1834.	1835.
	L. s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.		*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.
London - -	642,671 0 7	660,411 11 4	664,189 5 2	Preston - -	5,190 8 11	5,146 9 6	5,230 1 8
Birmingham -	28,814 4 0	29,258 1 7	30,802 1 11	Sheffield - -	11,582 16 2	11,759 16 4	12,215 4 8
Bristol - -	38,242 13 8	38,210 17 8	38,730 4 6	Edinburgh -	41,864 16 0	41,680 6 9½	41,959 4 1½
Coventry - -	4,357 8 10	4,421 2 7	4,542 18 4	Aberdeen - -	8,479 12 1	8,596 15 0½	8,586 9 9
Hull - -	14,853 19 9	14,859 15 1	15,219 17 11	Dundee - -	7,904 8 2½	8,162 18 10	8,482 5 8
Leeds - -	31,331 18 0	30,670 6 5	32,192 11 10	Glasgow - -	36,481 0 3	36,483 3 5	38,914 4 5½
Leicester - -	6,439 9 5	6,463 6 6	6,710 14 4	Dublin - -	69,096 9 8	70,514 1 1	69,862 12 11
Liverpool - -	74,080 11 1	77,333 1 4	82,639 1 3	Belfast - -	9,457 13 11	10,312 1 9	10,971 17 10
Macclesfield -	1,955 2 5	2,054 10 2	2,053 2 0	Cork - -	11,721 10 11	12,516 12 8	13,022 5 0
Manchester -	56,287 16 11	60,621 13 6	61,373 7 8	Limerick - -	1,935 14 3	2,040 15 5	6,622 16 7
Norwich - -	9,766 6 11	9,589 18 0	9,657 10 3	Drogheda - -	6,357 6 1	6,967 2 0	2,057 18 5
Nottingham -	9,368 7 1	9,195 2 4	9,097 15 1	Londonderry -	3,510 19 10	3,654 2 8	3,796 19 7
Potteries & Newcastle (Staff.) -	6,858 7 3	6,891 11 9	7,106 10 6	Waterford - -	5,361 1 2	5,339 13 7	5,334 4 11

Irish Post-office.—The most gross and scandalous abuses were long prevalent in every department of the Irish post-office. The commissioners of Revenue Inquiry exerted themselves to abate the nuisance; but, as it would appear from the evidence of the Duke of Richmond before the committee of the House of Commons on public salaries, without much effect. His Grace, however, laboured with laudable activity and zeal to introduce something like honesty, order, and responsibility into this department. The gross revenue of the Irish post-office amounted, in 1835, to 245,665*l.*; the expenses of collection were 96,238*l.*; and the nett payments into the exchequer, 122,300*l.*

(*Postage of Letters.*—We stated in our last Supplement that it was probable that the Post-office regulations with regard to the postage and transmission of letters, would speedily be placed on an entirely different footing; and in that anticipation we have not certainly been disappointed. It was obvious, indeed, to any one at all acquainted with what has been going on for these few years past, that the late rates of postage could not be much longer maintained. The fact that the Post-office revenue had continued nearly stationary during the twenty years ending with 1838, notwithstanding the vast increase in that period of population and of the intercourse between the different parts of the empire, was a conclusive proof that the rates of postage had been carried to a vicious excess; and that in the arithmetic of the Post-office, as well as of the Customs, two and two, instead of always making four, sometimes make only one. The effectual reduction of these rates was, therefore, urgently required, not only because of the importance to a commercial and manufacturing community

of having the charge for the conveyance of correspondence fixed at a moderate amount, but because it was all but certain that moderate rates of postage would be more productive of revenue. It did not however follow, that because an average charge of 7*d.* or 7½*d.* each, on all letters conveyed by post, was very decidedly too much, that an invariable charge of 1*d.*, whether the letter were conveyed 1 mile or 1,000 miles, was the precise limit that should be adopted! This was to rush from one extreme to another, and to endanger a considerable amount of revenue without any equivalent advantage. It must, no doubt, be admitted that the proposal for a uniform penny rate of postage had many recommendations in its favour. Being calculated at once to obviate trouble and save expense, it could not fail to be acceptable (what reduction of taxation is not?) to a large portion of the public, particularly to persons engaged in business. We believe, however, that the scheme was more indebted for its popularity to the oppressiveness of the old rates of postage than to any intrinsic merits of its own. Had these been reduced four or five years ago to a reasonable amount—that is had letters of 1 oz. weight coming from Scotland or Ireland to London been reduced to 6*d.*, and other letters in proportion, and mercantile circulars been allowed to pass under covers open at the ends at 1*d.* or 2*d.* each, we venture to say that the clamour for a uniform rate of penny postage would not have made any way. But in this, as usually happens on similar occasions, those who delay to make reasonable and necessary concessions, at the outset, are, in the end, compelled to concede a great deal more than would at first have been satisfactory. This, at all events, has been eminently true in this instance. The clamour for a uniform penny rate became too powerful to be resisted; and parliament, whether it were so inclined or not, was obliged to lend its sanction to the measure. The act 2d and 3d Victoria, cap. 52., for regulating the duty on postage, did not indeed enact that the charge for conveying letters of a given weight should, in all cases, be reduced to 1*d.*; but it was introduced for the avowed purpose of enabling the Treasury to take the necessary steps to bring the change about with the least inconvenience to all parties. In this view it gave the Treasury power to alter and reduce the rates of postage, without reference to the distance which letters may be conveyed, according to the weight of the letters, and not to the number or description of their enclosures: it also gave them power to adopt such regulations as they might think expedient as to stamped covers or envelopes; to suspend parliamentary franking, &c.

In virtue of the powers so conveyed, the Treasury have issued regulations by which all inland letters, without regard to the number of enclosures or the distance conveyed, provided they be paid when posted or despatched, shall,

If not exceeding ½ oz. weight be charged 1*d.*; 1 oz. 2*d.*; 2 oz. 4*d.*; 3 oz. 6*d.*; and [illegible] being added for every additional ounce up to 16 oz., beyond which, with the following [illegible] no packet, whether subject to postage or not, is received:—

1. Parliamentary petitions and addresses to her Majesty.
2. Parliamentary proceedings.
3. Letters and packets addressed to or received from places beyond sea.
4. Letters and packets to and from public departments, and to and from public officers that formerly franked by virtue of their offices.
5. Deeds if sent open, or in covers open at the sides. They may be tied with string and sealed, in order to prevent inspection of the contents, but they must be open at the sides, that it may be seen that they are entitled to the privilege.

With these exceptions, all packets above the weight of 16 oz. will be immediately forwarded to the Dead Letter Office.

But all letters not paid when they are posted or despatched are charged *double the above rates.*

All parliamentary and official franking has been put an end to; but members of either house of parliament are entitled to receive petitions to parliament free of charge, provided such petitions be sent in covers open at the ends, and do not exceed 6 oz. weight.

N. B. The regulations as to the postage of foreign letters depend to a considerable degree on the varying regulations of foreign states, and could not, therefore, be advantageously noticed in this place.

An important part of the new plan, suggested by Mr. Hill, of enclosing letters in stamped envelopes, has not yet come into operation. But it is in a forward state; and when it is carried into effect, it will, by affording an opportunity for purchasing envelopes beforehand, obviate the trouble that is now occasioned by the payment of letters when they are posted.

Such are the more prominent features of the new system; and none can deny that it has the recommendations of simplicity and cheapness in its favour, and that it will greatly facilitate correspondence. But it may notwithstanding be doubted, whether its adoption was expedient. It is no doubt very convenient for merchants, bankers, middlemen, and retail dealers to get letters for 1*d.* that previously cost them 7*d.* or 7½*d.*; but their satisfaction is not the only thing to be attended to in forming a fair estimate of the measure. The public exigencies require that a sum of above fifty millions a year should be raised, one way or other; and so long as we are pressed by an unreasoning necessity of this sort, it is not much to say in favour of the repeal or diminution of any tax, that those on whom it fell with the greatest severity are delighted with the reduction. Sugar has in England become a necessary of life; and its consumption, to say the least of it, is quite as indispensable to the bulk of the people, and especially to the labouring classes, as the writing of letters. But would it, therefore, be a wise measure to repeal the duty on sugar, or to reduce it to 1*s.* a cwt.? It has been alleged, indeed, that taxes on the transmission of letters are objectionable on principle, and should therefore be repealed, independently altogether of financial considerations! But it is easier to make an allegation of this sort than to prove it. All taxes, however im-

posed, if they be carried (as was the case with the old rates of postage) beyond their proper limits are objectionable; but provided these be not exceeded, we have yet to learn why a tax on a letter should be more objectionable than a tax on the paper on which it is written, on the food of the writer, or on fifty other things.

It has, however, been contended, that in this instance there will be no loss of revenue, and that the increase of correspondence growing out of the reduction of the postage will be so vast as fully to balance the reduced rate of charge. That there will be a very large increase in the number of letters posted is abundantly certain; but, we apprehend, it will fall far short of this. Notwithstanding all that has been said about the *furor scribendi*, we believe that letter-writing is generally looked upon as a duty rather than a pleasure; and it does not follow, when the expense of postage is reduced, that the occasions for writing letters are proportionally increased. The period since the new system was introduced is much too short to allow of any fair estimate being formed of its results; though we believe that, in so far as the experiment has been tried, it has not realised the anticipations of its more sanguine advocates.

The following statement of the probable results of the new system was drawn up before it was commenced. Perhaps it will turn out not to be very wide of the mark.

The total *gross* receipt of the Post-office revenue of the United Kingdom, deducting overcharges and returned letters, amounted, in 1837, to 2,339,739*l.*: the expenses of the establishment for the same year amounted to 681,259*l.*, leaving a *nett* revenue of 1,658,480*l.* It is almost needless to say that there is no probability whatever that the expenses of the Post-office will be lessened by the rate of postage being reduced to 1*d.* On the contrary, it is all but certain, from the greatly increased number of letters, that these expenses will be very materially increased. Supposing, however, that the Post-office expenses remain constant, it will require the enormous number of 163,502,160 penny letters annually to pass through the Post-office to defray the cost of the establishment; and no fewer than 561,537,360 such letters would be required to prevent any loss of revenue. But though the number of letters passing through the Post-office under the penny rate may be fairly expected to exceed the first of these amounts, it is probable that a pretty long period will elapse before it comes up to half the second.

Taking the return published by the Postage Committee, of the number of letters passing through the Post-office in the week ending with the 22d of January, 1838, for a basis, it appears that, in the course of a year, the

General post letters in Great Britain and Ireland amounted, under the old system, to	48,945,624
Penny post letters	7,320,093
London twopenny and threepenny letters	12,058,800
Franked or privileged letters	6,390,204
Total letters	74,714,720

Now the question is, what will be the annual increase in the number of letters sent by post, under the new or penny rate? All answers to this question must, of course, be nearly hypothetical; and the following is precisely of this description:—

	Old System.		*New System.*
General post	48,945,624 letters per annum.		
Add for probable amount of those sent clandestinely	11,054,376		
Total	60,000,000	Supposed increase on general post letters 2½ times	150,000,000
Penny post letters	7,320,092	say	10,000,000
London twopenny and threepenny letters	12,058,800	Supposed increase 2½ times	30,000,000
Privileged letters and packets same as at present			7,000,000
New classes of advertisers, circular letters, &c.		Supposed	60,000,000
Increase in commercial travellers' letters			10,000,000
			267,000,000

Which, at 1*d.* per letter, would produce a *gross* revenue of 1,112,500*l.*; from which deducting 680,000*l.* for expenses, there remains a *nett* revenue of 432,000*l.*, being more than 1,200,000*l.* under its late amount.

But it is material to observe that the falling off in the revenue will not be so great as this, inasmuch as a very considerable number of letters exceed ½ oz. weight. The facility, under the new system, of transmitting small parcels by post, instead of, as formerly, by mail, has made great numbers of them be so conveyed; and their postage will, in so far, contribute to increase the amount of revenue. It appears from the parliamentary papers, No. 129, session 1840, that the total number of letters passing through the Post-office in the United Kingdom during the week ending the 24th of November, 1839, when the old system was in force, was 1,585,973; and that the number passing through the Post-office in the week ending the

23d of February, 1840, under the new system, was 3,199,637, being an increase of about *double*. But, as already stated, the new system has been too recently introduced to allow of its being subjected to the test of experience. Six months will be necessary, even after the country has been saturated with envelopes and stamps, to enable a fair experimental estimate to be formed of its merits. It may, also, be certainly anticipated, whatever be the amount of the Post-office revenue under the new system at the outset, that it will increase with the rapidly increasing commerce, wealth, education, and population of the country. But that does not show that the new plan has any peculiar merit; the revenue would have increased under any reasonably well-contrived system. All taxes on articles in general use are sure, provided they be not excessive, to increase with every increase of population and wealth.

Had there been a surplus revenue of one or two millions, the loss that will be occasioned by the adoption of the new postage system would have been of less importance; though if we estimate the loss at a million, it may be matter of doubt whether it would not have been more advantageous to have repealed those duties that bear hard on the great branches of national industry, as those on glass, raw cotton, &c. But the reduction has been forced upon the government, when the revenue is unequal to the expenditure, and when, consequently, the deficiency that it will occasion must be otherwise provided for. We, however, incline to think that by a judicious reduction and modification of some of the more oppressive and impolitic duties that still continue to disgrace our tariff, the whole, or, at all events, the greater part of the existing deficiency in the revenue may be made good without the imposition of any new tax, and without adding any thing to any one of the existing taxes. Any proposal for a new tax to meet the deficiency occasioned by the falling off in the Post-office revenue, will not tend much to increase the popularity of the uniform penny system.

The abolition of franking is a very great improvement. Franked letters were generally addressed to those who could best afford the expense of postage, and who thus escaped a burden that fell with its full weight on their less opulent and less known neighbours.—*Sup.*)

UNITED STATES.—We subjoin an account of the number of post-offices, the extent of post roads, the rates of postage, &c. in the United States.

Post-offices and Postage.

Post-offices in 1790	75	; extent of post roads in miles		1,875
— 1800	903		—	20,817
— 1810	2,300		—	36,406
— 1820	4,500		—	72,492
— 1839	8,004		—	115,000

Rates of Postage.

For Single Letters, composed of One Piece of Paper—

Any distance not exceeding	30 miles,	6	cents.		
Over 30,	and not exceeding	80	—	10	—
— 80	—	150	—	12 1-2	—
— 150	—	400	—	18 3-4	—
— 400 miles	.	.	.	25	—

Double letters, or those composed of 2 pieces of paper, are charged with double the above rates.

Triple letters, or those composed of 3 pieces of paper, are charged with triple the above rates.

Quadruple letters, or those composed of 4 pieces of paper, are charged with quadruple the above rates.

All letters weighing 1 ounce avoirdupois, or more, are charged at the rate of single postage for each 1-4 of an ounce, or quadruple postage for each ounce, according to their weight; and no letter can be charged with more than quadruple postage, unless its weight exceeds 1 ounce avoirdupois.

The postage on ship letters, if delivered at the office where the vessel arrives, is 6 cents; if conveyed by post, 2 cents in addition to the ordinary postage.

Newspaper Postage.—For each newspaper, not carried out of the State in which it is published, or if carried out of the State, but not carried over 100 miles, 1 cent.

Over 100 miles, and out of the State in which it is published 1½ cent.

Magazines and Pamphlets.—If published periodically, distance not exceeding 100 miles, 1 1-2 cent per sheet.

— over 100 — 2 1-2 —

If not pub. period. distance not exceeding 100 miles, 4 cts. per sheet.

— over 100 — 6 —

Small pamphlets, containing not more than a 1-2 sheet, are charged with 1-2 the above rates. Eight pages quarto are rated a *one sheet*, and all other sizes in the same proportion.

The number of sheets in a pamphlet sent by mail must be printed or written on one of the outer pages. When the number of sheets is not truly stated, double postage is charged.

Every thing not coming under the denomination of newspapers or pamphlets is charged with letter postage.

Account of the Postage received at the Post-offices of some of the principal Towns of the United States, during the Year ended the 31st of March, 1832.

Towns.	Dollars.	Towns.	Dollars.
New York	160,203	Richmond	18,715
Philadelphia	106,030	Cincinnati	15,940
Boston	62,270	Savannah	14,278
Baltimore	54,923	Pittsburgh	13,780
New Orleans	37,248	Albany	13,033
Charleston	26,423	Augusta	11,445

The post-master general of the United States stated, in a letter to a committee of Senate, 19th of May, 1833, that it was almost of daily occurrence, that a ton weight of newspapers was carried in one mail for hundreds of miles together. The total post-office revenue of the United States, in the year ended the 31st of March, 1832, amounted to 1,471,371 dollars; of which the newspaper postage made about 254,000 dollars.—(*American Almanac* for 1834.)

[The number of Post-offices in the United States, on the 1st of May, 1840, was 13,376.

The revenue of the Post-office department for the year ending the 30th June, 1838, was	$4,235,077 [illegible]
The expenditures were	4,601,857 [illegible]
Excess of expenditures,	366,780 [illegible]
This excess was made up by surplus funds of preceding years.	
The revenue of the year ending on the 30th of June last, was	$4,476,638 [illegible]
The engagements and liabilities of the department for the same year, were	4,624,117 [illegible]
Excess of engagements and liabilities,	147,479 [illegible]

Table of Mail Service for the 1st of July, 1838, and the Finances of the Post-Office Department for the Year ending the 30th of June, 1838.

States and Territories.	Mail Service.* Length of Routes.	Annual Transportation. Horse and Sulkey.	Stage and Coach.	Steamboat and Railroad.	Total.	Finances of the Post-Office Department. Letter Postage.	Newspapers and Pamphlets.	Compensation of Postmasters.	Nett Amount of Postage.
Maine	3,429	216,164	687,088	- -	903,252	D. 89,169·27	D.19,573·39	D. 33,570·26	D. 67,835·77
New Hampshire	2,561	124,124	782,756	- -	906,880	46,520·11	8,472·04	19,028·89	33,255·01
Vermont	2,388	85,112	864,604	- -	950,716	50,255·80	16,107·11	22,784·71	37,636·54
Massachusetts	4,413	84,264	1,559,220	374,664	1,918,148	298,477·66	31,239·56	60,459·69	217,895·44
Rhode Island	279	11,232	63,692	- -	79,924	33,477·65	4,344·21	7,169·24	25,812 69
Connecticut	2,134	104,624	611,416	29,120	745,160	90,977·35	14,063·53	29 760·96	66,250·24
New York	12,416	951,600	3,151,924	542,960	4,645,784	328,891·92	77,720·98	155,517·50	665,2 4·87
New Jersey	2,159	318,136	428,324	166,344	912,804	53,145·09	7,376 92	17,461·49	41,911·92
Pennsylvania	10,603	981,416	2,089,412	176,472	3,247,332	391,797·20	53,151·24	77,482·68	331,380·44
Delaware	607	27,144	140,712	24,252	192,068	11,153·47	2,250·55	5,010·32	8,227·07
Maryland	1,706	238,372	278,468	136,968	678,808	131,081·24	13,504·41	21,089·62	111,788·48
District of Columbia	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	40,755·15	2,747·23	5,454·11	22,814·36
Ohio	10,154	922,272	1,414,808	32,082	2,368,912	244,130·19	41,394·96	78,930·52	185,557·72
Virginia	10,223	906,890	943,384	113,308	1,963,572	181,270·05	28,543·38	56,899·66	138,833·11
North Carolina	6,375	628,244	808,496	- -	1,416,740	66,563·35	11,642·12	28,847·56	49,354·58
South Carolina	4,147	425,724	607,984	92,924	1,126,632	111,007·93	10,267·83	22,353·55	91,924·31
Georgia	6,250	588,276	778,128	- -	1,366,404	157,412·14	18,373·52	36,991·36	122,694·59
Florida	2,764	53,400	84,916	109,304	247,520	23,625·38	1,961·00	7,232·75	18,000·91
Alabama	3,971	277,368	327,704	23,296	628,368	62,444·34	9,427·89	21,078·66	41,073·35
Mississippi	6,227	581,048	719,056	- -	1,300,104	77,719·12	12,357·79	30,810·19	53,246·81
Indiana	6,578	389,014	1,151,772	87,808	1,574,994	61,017·80	10,792·27	28,544·11	59,642·91
Illinois	1,577	136,448	115,180	- -	251,628	13,312·62	1,442·16	4,661·26	9,860·78
Wisconsin	4,532	373,360	314,168	- -	687,528	58,199·81	6,875·84	14,858·26	44,136·81
Missouri	7,009	646,516	752,804	230,880	1,630,200	114,801·89	14,348·75	32,270·47	85,189·96
Kentucky	6,915	689,416	769,548	66,144	1,525,108	101,572·31	13,734·34	33,699·95	73,819·57
Tennessee	6,996	667,112	686,848	68,344	1,422,304	151,057·33	13 238·02	32,992·06	118,713·68
Alabama	4,726	568,776	313,768	188,240	1,070,784	81,884·32	8,399·96	24,552·74	62,600·15
Mississippi	2,737	331,968	152,672	- -	484,640	13,308·56	1,773·07	5,146·80	9,469·11
Arkansas	1,547	207,376	15,340	110,552	333,268	153,138·70	4,341·63	10,338·79	131,511·49
Louisiana	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	370·56	49·19	12 46	286·20
Iowa	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	44,514·13	4,827·34	10,494·19	29,845·44
Canada									
Total	134,818	11,573,916	20,693,192	2,413,062	34,680,202	2,776,125·24	458,737·73	933,948·11	2,966,823·49
Compensation		D. 831,023	1,889,782	410,486	3,131,308				

* Exclusive of the conveyance of letters and newspapers by steamboats on Long Island Sound, and Lakes Erie, Huron, and Michigan, under the 5th and 6th sections of the act of 1825, the aggregate length of which is about 1,229 miles, and the amount paid for which is about $16,000 for the year preceding the 1st of July, 1838.—*Am. Ed.*]

POST ENTRY. When goods are weighed or measured, and the merchant has got an account thereof at the Custom-house, and finds his entry, already made, too small, he must make a *post* or additional *entry* for the surplusage, in the same manner as the first was done. As a merchant is always in time, prior to the clearing of the vessel, to make his post, he should take care not to over-enter, to avoid as well the advance, as the trouble of getting back the overplus. However, if this be the case, and an over-entry has been made, and more paid or bonded for customs than the goods really landed amount to, the land-waiter and surveyor must signify the same, upon oath made, and subscribed by the person so over entered, that neither he nor any other person, to his knowledge, had any of the said goods over-entered on board the said ship, or anywhere landed the same without payment of custom; which oath must be attested by the collector or comptroller, or their deputies, who then compute the duties, and set down on the back of the certificate, first in words at length, and then in figures, the several sums to be paid.

POSTING, travelling along the public road with hired horses, and with or without hired carriages. Duties are charged upon the horses and carriages so hired.—(For the duties on the latter, see vol. i. p. 351.) The duties on post horses are regulated by the 4 Geo. 4. c. 62.

Duties.—Every post-master to pay 5*s.* annually for a licence. For every horse, mare, or gelding, let for hire by the mile, 1½*d.* for every mile; if let to go no greater distance than 8 miles, 1-5th part of the sum charged for such letting, or 1*s.* 9*d.*; if let to go no greater distance than 8 miles, and not to bring back any person, nor deviate from the usual line of road, 1*s.*; if let for any time less than 28 successive days, or in any other manner than by the mile, or to go no greater distance than 8 miles, in either case, 1-5th part of the sum charged on every such letting; or the sum of 2*s.* 6*d.* for each day not exceeding 3 days; and the sum of 1*s.* 9*d.* for each day exceeding 3, and not exceeding 13 days; and the sum of 1*s.* for each day exceeding 13, and less than 28 days. If let for 28 successive days, or for any lo[illegible]od, and returned in a *less* period of time than *twenty-eight* successive days, and not exchanged for another horse, mare, or gelding, in continuation of the same hiring, 1-5th part of the sum agreed to be received for such letting, or the sum of 2*s.* 6*d.* for each day not exceeding 3 days; and the sum of 1*s.* 9*d.* for each day exceeding 3, and not exceeding 13 days; and the sum of 1*s.* 3*d.* for each day exceeding 13, and less than 28 days, during the time every such horse, &c. shall have been under the direction of the person hiring the same.

The duties imposed by the act do not extend to horses used in stage or hackney coaches duly licensed; nor to any mourning coach or hearse, where the same is hired to go no greater distance than 10 miles from Temple Bar; nor to any cart or carriage kept for the conveyance of fish.

Persons letting any horse, mare, or gelding, *for hire*, without licence from the commissioners of stamps, are subject to a penalty of 10*l.* No post-master to keep more than 1 horse by virtue of 1 licence, under a penalty of 10*l.*; and the words *licenced to let horses* for hire to be painted in legible characters on the front of their houses, under a penalty of 5*l.* Postmasters are to give security by bond, renewable at the expiration of 3 years. The commissioners or collector of stamps to furnish *blank tickets* and *certificates* to postmasters, and *exchange* and *check tickets* to the toll-gate keepers: the former containing the name and abode of the post-master, the number of horses, whether let for a day or longer period; the latter, the name of the toll-keeper, the place where he lives, and the places the horses hired are going to. When horses are returned within the period for which they were hired,

check tickets are to be delivered up to the collector; penalty 20*l*. Improperly using a check ticket subjects to a penalty of 50*l*. Travellers are to deliver up their tickets at the *first* toll-gate, and to *ask for* and receive the necessary exchange and check tickets in return.

Letting of Duties to farm.—The commissioners of stamps, by authority of the Lords of the Treasury, are authorised to let the post-horse duties to farm for any period not longer than 3 years, either in whole, or divided into divisions or districts. The biddings are conducted under regulations issued by the commissioners; at least a month's notice being given of the time and place of letting the duties. The highest bidder being preferred, must forthwith execute a contract, and give bond with *three* or more securities for payment of the yearly rent contracted for at the head office of stamps in equal portions by *eight* several annual payments. The commissioners have also the power to appoint a time for making a deposit, and the amount thereof; and in case any bidder fail of making such deposit, or of executing a proper contract and giving security, the duties to be again put up. Duties not to be farmed by persons licensed to let post horses.

An Account of the Produce of the Duties on Posting, in each of the Eight Years ending the 1st of January, 1833.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 689. Sess. 1830, and *Annual Finance Accounts.*)

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
Year ending 1st of Jan. 1826 -	232,651	2	4	Year ending 1st of Jan. 1830 -	238,772	3	8
—— 1827 -	239,375	19	5	—— 1831 -	220,397	12	10
—— 1828 -	225,864	5	0	—— 1832 -	231,663	3	4
—— 1829 -	238,858	0	4	—— 1833 -	245,066	16	5

POTASH (Du. *Potaske*; Fr. *Potasse*; Ger. *Pottasche*; It. *Potassa*; Pol. *Potasz*; Rus. *Potasch*). If vegetables be burned, the ashes lixivated, and the solution boiled to dryness in iron vessels, the mass left behind is the *potash* of commerce—the impure carbonate of potass of chemists. It is intensely alkaline, solid, and coloured brown by the admixture of a small portion of vegetable inflammable matter, which generally becomes moist. When potash is calcined in a reverberatory furnace, the colouring matter is destroyed, it assumes a spongy texture, and a whitish pearly lustre; whence it is denominated *pearl-ash*. The latter generally contains from 60 to 83 or 84 per cent. of pure carbonate of potass.—(See vol. i. p. 29.)

The ashes of those vegetables only which grow at a distance from the sea, are employed in the manufacture of potash. Herbaceous plants yield the largest portion, and shrubs more than trees. It is principally manufactured in America, Russia, and Poland, the vast forests of which furnish an inexhaustible supply of ashes.

Potash is of great importance in the arts, being largely employed in the manufacture of flint glass and soft soap, the rectification of spirits, bleaching, making alum, scouring wool, &c. At an average of 1831 and 1832, the entries of pot and pearl ashes, for home consumption, amounted to 188,477 cwt. a year. Of 228,757 cwt. imported in 1831, 169,891 cwt. were brought from the British possessions in North America; 15,835 from the United States; the remainder being almost entirely furnished by Russia. The ashes of the United States are the purest, and bring the highest price.

The prices of pot and pearl-ash in the London market, in December, 1833, were as under:—

	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Canada, pot, 1st - -	- 1	4	6	to 0	0	0	United States, pearl, *bd.*-	- 1	4	0	to 0	0	0
pearl, 1st - -	- 1	5	6	— 0	0	0	Russia, do. do. - -	- 1	3	0	—1	5	0
United States, pot, *bd.* -	- 0	0	0	— 0	0	0							

Ashes from Canada are duty free; those from Russia and the United States pay a duty of 6*s.* a cwt.

POTATOES (Ger. *Kartoffeln*; Du. *Aardappelen*; Fr. *Pommes de terre*; It. *Patate, Pomi di terra*; Sp. *Patatas manchegas*; Rus. *Jabloki semlenïe*) the roots of the *Solanum tuberosum*, of innumerable varieties, and too well known to require any description.

1. *Historical Notice.*—The potato, which is at present to be met with everywhere in Europe, and forms the principal part of the food of a large proportion of its inhabitants, was entirely unknown in this quarter of the world till the latter part of the 16th century. It is a native of America, but whether of both divisions of that continent is doubtful.—(*Humboldt, Nouvelle Espagne*, liv. iv. c. 9.) Some authors affirm that it was first introduced into Europe by Sir John Hawkins, in 1545; others, that it was introduced by Sir Francis Drake, in 1573; and others, again, that it was for the first time brought to England from Virginia, by Sir Walter Raleigh, in 1586. But this discrepancy seems to have arisen from confounding the common, or Virginian potato (the *Solanum tuberosum* of Linnæus), with the sweet potato (*Convolvulus battatas*). The latter was introduced into Europe long before the former, and it seems most probable that it was the species brought from New Granada by Hawkins. Sweet potatoes require a warm climate, and do not succeed in this country; they were, however, imported in considerable quantities, during the 16th century, from Spain and the Canaries, and were supposed to have some rather peculiar properties. The kissing comfits of Falstaff, and such like confections, were principally made of battatas and eringo roots. On the whole, we are inclined to think that we are really indebted for the potato (as well as for tobacco) to Sir Walter Raleigh, or the colonists he had planted in Virginia. Gerarde, an old English botanist, mentions, in his *Herbal*, published in 1597, that he had planted the potato in his garden at London about 1590; and that it succeeded there as well as in its native soil, Virginia, whence he had received it. Potatoes were at first cultivated by a very few, and were looked upon as a great delicacy. In a manuscript account of the

household expenses of Queen Anne, wife of James I., who died in 1618, and which is supposed to have been written in 1613, the purchase of a very small quantity of potatoes is mentioned at the price of 2*s.* a pound. The Royal Society, in 1663, recommended the extension of their cultivation, as a means of preventing famine. Previously, however, to 1684, they were raised only in the gardens of the nobility and gentry; but in that year they were planted, for the first time, in the open fields in Lancashire,—a county in which they have long been very extensively cultivated.

Potatoes, it is commonly thought, were not introduced into Ireland till 1610, when a small quantity was sent by Sir Walter Raleigh to be planted in a garden in his estate in the vicinity of Youghal. Their cultivation extended far more rapidly than in England; and have long furnished from $\frac{3}{4}$ to $\frac{4}{5}$ of the entire food of the people of Ireland!

Potatoes were not raised in Scotland, except in gardens, till 1728, when they were planted in the open fields by a person of the name of Prentice, a day labourer at Kilsyth, who died at Edinburgh in 1792.

The extension of the potato cultivation has been particularly rapid during the last 40 years. The quantity that is now raised in Scotland is supposed to be from 10 to 12 times as great as the quantity raised in it at the end of the American war; and though the increase in England has not been nearly so great as in Scotland, it has been greater than during any previous period of equal duration. The increase on the Continent has been similar. Potatoes are now very largely cultivated in France, Italy, and Germany; and with the exception of the Irish, the Swiss have become their greatest consumers. They were introduced into India some 60 or 70 years ago; and are now successfully cultivated in Bengal, and have been introduced into the Madras provinces, Java, the Philippines, and China. But the common potato does not thrive within the tropics unless it be raised at an elevation of 3,000 or 4,000 feet above the level of the sea, so that it can never come into very general use in these regions. This, however, is not the case with the sweet potato, which has also been introduced into tropical Asia; and with such success, that it already forms a considerable portion of the food of the people of Java, and some other countries. So rapid an extension of the taste for, and the cultivation of, an exotic, has no parallel in the history of industry; it has had, and will continue to have, the most powerful influence on the condition of mankind.—(For further details with respect to the history of the potato, see *Sir F. M. Eden on the State of the Poor*, vol. i. p. 508.; *Humboldt, Essai sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, tome iii. pp. 460—465. 2d ed.; *Sir Joseph Banks on the Introduction of the Potato; Phillips's History of Cultivated Vegetables*, vol. ii. art. *Potato*.)

2. *Influence of the Cultivation of the Potato on the Number and Condition of the People.*—There is a considerable discrepancy in the statements of the best authors as to the number of individuals that might be supported on an acre of land planted with potatoes, as compared with those that might be supported on an acre sown with wheat; some stating the proportion as high as *six* to *one*, and others at only *two* to *one*. According to Mr. Arthur Young, 1 lb. of wheat is about equal in nutritive power to 5 lbs. of potatoes. But Mr. Newenham, who has carefully investigated this subject, states that "3 lbs. of good mealy potatoes are, undoubtedly, more than equivalent to 1 lb. of bread,"—(*Newenham on the Population of Ireland*, p. 340.); and his estimate is rather above Mr. Wakefield's. Supposing, however, that 1 lb. weight of wheat is fully equal to *four* pounds of potatoes, still the difference in favour of the superior quantity of food derived from a given quantity of land planted with the latter is very great. According to Mr. Young, the average produce of potatoes in Ireland may be taken at 82 barrels the Irish acre; which, at 20 stone the barrel, is equal to 22,960 lbs.; and this being divided by *four*, to bring it to the same standard, in point of nutritive power, as wheat, gives 5,740 lbs. Mr. Young further estimates the average produce of wheat, by the Irish acre, at 4 quarters; which, supposing the quarter to weigh 480 lbs., gives in all 1,920 lbs., or about $\frac{1}{3}$ part of the solid nourishment afforded by an acre of potatoes.—(*Tour in Ireland*, Appen. pp. 12. 24. &c. 4to ed.) This estimate must, however, be somewhat modified when applied to Great Britain; the soil of which, while it is better adapted to the growth of wheat, is generally supposed not to be quite so suitable for the potato as that of Ireland. But it notwithstanding admits of demonstration, that even here, "*an acre of potatoes will feed double the number of individuals that can be fed from an acre of wheat.*"—(*General Report of Scotland*, vol. i. p. 571.)

It is clear, therefore, on the most moderate estimate, that the population of a potato feeding country may become, *other things being about equal*, from 2 to 3 times as dense as it could have been, had the inhabitants fed wholly on corn. But it is exceedingly doubtful whether an increase of population, brought about by a substitution of the potato for wheat, be desirable. Its use as a subordinate or subsidiary species of food is attended with the best effects—producing both an increase of comfort and security; but there are certain circumstances inseparable from it, which would seem to oppose the most formidable obstacles to its advantageous use as a *prime* article of subsistence. The discussion of this subject can hardly be said properly to belong to a work of this sort; but its importance may, perhaps, excuse us for making a few observations with respect to it.

It is admitted on all hands, that the rate of wages is principally determined by the species of food made use of in a country. Now, as potatoes form that species which is produced at the very least expense, it may be fairly presumed, on general grounds, that wages will be reduced to a minimum wherever the labouring classes are mainly dependent on potatoes; and the example of Ireland shows that this conclusion is as consistent with fact as with principle. It is clear, however, that when the crop of potatoes happens to be deficient in a country thus situated, the condition of its inhabitants must be in the last degree unfortunate. During a period of scarcity men cannot go from a low to a high level: if they would elude its pressure, they must leave the dearer and resort to cheaper species of food. But to those who subsist on potatoes this is not possible; they have already reached the lowest point in the descending scale. Their wages being determined by the price of the least expensive sort of food, they cannot, when it fails, buy that which is dearer; so that it is hardly possible for them to avoid falling a sacrifice to absolute want. The history of Ireland abounds, unfortunately, in examples of this sort. Nothing is more common than to see the price of potatoes in Dublin, Limerick, &c. rise, because of a scarcity, to 5 or 6 times their ordinary price, and the people to be involved in the extreme of suffering; and yet it rarely happens, upon such occasions, that the price of corn is materially affected, or that any less quantity than usual is exported to England.

It may be said, perhaps, that, had potatoes not been introduced, wheat, or barley, or oats, would have been the lowest species of food; and that, whenever they happened to fail, the population would have been as destitute as if they had been subsisting on potatoes. It must, however, be observed, that the proportion which the price of wheat, or any species of grain, bears to the price of butcher's meat, tea, beer, &c. is always decidedly greater than the proportion which the price of potatoes bears to these articles: and it therefore follows, that a people who have adopted wheat, or any species of corn, for the principal part of their food, are much better able to make occasional purchases of butcher's meat, &c.; and will, consequently, be more likely to have their habits elevated, so as to consider the consumption of a certain quantity of animal food, &c. as indispensable to existence. And hence it appears reasonable to conclude, that a people who chiefly subsist on corn would, in most cases, subsist partially on butcher's meat, and would enjoy a greater or less quantity of other articles; so that it would be possible for them, in a period of scarcity, to make such retrenchments as would enable them to elude the severity of its pressure.

But, though the population in corn-feeding countries were dependent on the cheapest species of grain, not for a part only, but for the whole, of their food, their situation would, notwithstanding, be less hazardous than that of a population subsisting wholly on potatoes.

In the *first* place, owing to the impossibility, as to all practical purposes at least, of preserving potatoes, the surplus produce of a luxuriant crop cannot be stored up or reserved as a stock to meet any subsequent scarcity. The whole crop must necessarily be exhausted in a single year; so that, when the inhabitants have the misfortune to be overtaken by a scarcity, its pressure cannot be alleviated, as is almost uniformly the case in corn-feeding countries, by bringing the reserves of former harvests to market. Every year is thus left to provide subsistence for itself. When, on the one hand, the crop is luxuriant, the surplus is of comparatively little use, and is wasted unprofitably; and when, on the other hand, it is deficient, famine and disease necessarily prevail.

In the *second* place, the general opinion seems to be, that the variations in the quantities of produce obtained from land planted with potatoes, are greater than the variations in the quantities of produce obtained from land on which wheat, or any other species of grain, is raised.

And *lastly*, owing to the great bulk and weight of potatoes, and the difficulty of preserving them on shipboard, the expense of conveying them from one country to another is so very great, that a scarcity can never be materially relieved by importing them from abroad. In consequence, those who chiefly depend on potatoes are practically excluded from participating in the benevolent provision made by nature for equalizing the variations in the harvests of particular countries by means of commerce, and are thrown almost wholly on their own resources.

We should, therefore, be warranted in concluding, even though we were not possessed of any direct evidence on the subject, from the circumstances of the potato being a crop that cannot be kept on hand, from its natural fickleness, and from the incapacity of importing it when deficient, or of exporting it when in excess, that the oscillations in its price must be greater than in the price of wheat; and such, in point of fact, is the case. The oscillation in wheat is thought great when its price is doubled; but in a scarce year the potato is not unfrequently *six* times as dear as in a plentiful one!—(*Minutes of Evidence taken before the Agricultural Committee of* 1821, p. 212.) And the comparatively frequent recurrence of scarcities in Ireland, and the destitution and misery in which they involve the population, afford but too convincing proofs of the accuracy of what has now been stated.

It is, therefore, of the utmost consequence to the well-being of every people, and to their

protection in years of scarcity, that they should not subsist principally on the potato. In this country, the pressure of a scarcity is evaded by resorting to inferior species of food, such as potatoes, and a lower standard of comfort; but if our people were habitually fed on the potato, this would be impracticable. The chances of famine would thus be vastly increased; while, owing to the low value of the potato as compared with most other things, the labourers would have less chance of preserving or acquiring a taste for animal food, or other necessaries and luxuries; and, consequently, of changing, at any future period, their actual condition for a better.

It is not easy to form any very accurate estimate of the profit and loss attending the cultivation of potatoes to the farmer, as compared with other crops. This is a point as to which the statements of those best qualified to give an opinion differ very considerably. Mr. Loudon says, "they require a great deal of manure from the farmer; while, generally speaking, little is returned by them; they are a bulky, unhandy article, troublesome in the lifting and carrying processes, and interfering with the seed season of wheat,—the most important one to the farmer. After all, from particular circumstances, they cannot be vended unless when raised in the vicinity of large towns; hence they are in most respects an unprofitable article to the agriculturist. To him, the real criterion is the profit which potatoes will return in feeding beasts; and here we apprehend the result will be altogether in favour of turnips and *rutabaga*, as the most profitable articles for that purpose."

It seems difficult to reconcile this statement with the rapid progress of the potato cultivation: but those who assent to what has been previously advanced with respect to the mischievous consequences that arise from the mass of the population becoming dependent on the potato as a principal article of food, will not regret though it should turn out to be accurate.

Dr. Colquhoun estimated the entire value of the potatoes annually consumed in Great Britain and Ireland at the end of the late war at *sixteen millions* sterling. But it is needless to say that there are no materials by which to form an estimate of this sort with any pretensions to accuracy. The one in question has been suspected, like most of those put forth by the same learned person, of exaggeration: and we incline to think that, had he estimated the value of the yearly produce of potatoes in the empire at *twelve millions*, he would have been nearer the mark. But on a point of this sort it is not possible to speak with any thing like confidence.

POUND, the name given to a weight used as a standard to determine the gravity and quantity of bodies.—(See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

POUND, a money of account, = 20*s*.

POWDER, GUN. See GUNPOWDER.

PRECIOUS METALS, a designation frequently applied to gold and silver. We have given, under the articles GOLD, and SILVER, a short account of each metal; and we now propose laying before the reader a few details with respect to their supply and consumption.

To enter fully into this interesting and difficult subject would require a long essay, or rather a large volume. Mr. Jacob has recently published an "Historical Inquiry into the Introduction and Consumption of the Precious Metals," in which he takes up the subject at the earliest period, and continues it to the present day. This work, though neither so complete nor satisfactory as might have been expected, contains a good deal of valuable information, and deserves the attention of all who take an interest in such inquiries. We confess, however, that several of the learned author's statements and conclusions seem to us to be not a little wide of the mark. We shall notice one or two of them in the course of this article.

1. *Supply of the Precious Metals.*—Since the discovery of America, the far greater part of the supplies of gold and silver have been derived from that continent. Previously to the publication of Humboldt's great work, *Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, several estimates, some of them framed by individuals of great intelligence, were in circulation, of the quantities of gold and silver imported from America. They, however, differed widely from each other, and were all framed from comparatively limited sources of information.* But these have been wholly superseded by the more extensive and laborious investigations of M. Humboldt. This illustrious traveller, besides being acquainted with all that had been written on the subject, and having ready access to official sources of information unknown to the writers already alluded to, was well versed in the theory and practice of mining, and

*Humboldt has brought these estimates together as follows:—

Authors.	*Epochs.*	*Dollars.*
Ustariz	1492—1724	3,536,000,000
Solorzano	1492—1628	1,500,000,000
Moncada	1492—1595	2,000,000,000
Navarete	1519—1617	1,536,000,000
Raynal	1492—1780	5,151,000,000
Robertson	1492—1775	8,800,000,000
Necker	1762—1777	304,000,000
Gerboux	1724—1800	1,000,000,000
The Author of the *Recherches sur le Commerce*, Amst. 1779.	1492—1775	5,072,000,000

(*Essai sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, tome iii. p. 412.)

critically examined several of the most celebrated mines. He was, therefore, incomparably better qualified for forming correct conclusions as to the past and present productiveness of the mines, than any of those who had hitherto speculated on the subject. His statements have, indeed, been accused of exaggeration; and we incline to think that there are grounds for believing that this charge is, in some measure, well founded, particularly as respects the accounts of the profits made by mining, and of the extent to which the supplies of the precious metals may be increased. But this criticism applies, if at all, in a very inferior degree, to the accounts M. Humboldt has given of the total produce of the mines, and the exports to Europe. And, making every allowance for the imperfection inseparable from such investigations, it is still true that the statements in question, and the inquiries on which they are founded, are among the most valuable contributions that have ever been made to statistical science.

According to M. Humboldt, the supplies of the precious metals derived from America have been as follows:—

	Dollars a Year at an Average.		Dollars a Year at an Average.
From 1492 to 1500	250,000	From 1600 to 1700	16,000,000
— 1500 — 1545	3,000,000	— 1700 — 1750	22,500,000
— 1545 — 1600	11,000,000	— 1750 — 1803	35,500,000

(*Essai sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, tome iii. p. 424, 2d ed.)

The following is M. Humboldt's estimate of the annual produce of the mines of the New World, at the beginning of the present century:—

Annual Produce of the Mines of America at the Commencement of the Nineteenth Century.

Political Divisions.	Gold.		Silver.		Value of the Gold and Silver in Dollars.
	Marcs of Castile.	Kilogs.	Marcs of Castile.	Kilogs.	
Vice-royalty of New Spain	7,000	1,600	2,338,220	537,512	23,000,000
Vice-royalty of Peru	3,400	782	611,090	140,478	6,340,000
Captain-generalship of Chili	12,212	2,807	29,700	6,827	2,060,000
Vice-royalty of Buenos Ayres	2,200	506	481,830	110,764	4,650,000
Vice-royalty of New Granada	20,505	4,714	-	-	2,990,000
Brazil	29,900	6,873	-	-	4,560,000
Total	75,217	17,291	3,460,840	795,581	43,500,000

Taking the dollar at 4*s.* 3*d.*, this would give 9,243,750*l.* as the total annual produce of the American mines. M. Humboldt further estimated the annual produce of the European mines of Hungary, Saxony, &c., and those of Northern Asia, at the same period, at about 1,000,000*l.* more.

The *quantity* of gold produced in America at the beginning of the century, was to the quantity of silver as 1 to 46; in Europe, the proportions were as 1 to 40. The *value* of equal quantities of gold and silver were then in the proportion of 15 or 15½ to 1. Latterly, the quantity of gold produced has increased, as compared with the quantity of silver.

From 1800 to 1810, the produce of the American mines was considerably increased; but in the last-mentioned year the contest began, which terminated in the dissolution of the connection between Spain and the South American colonies. The convulsions and insecurity arising out of this struggle; the proscription of the old Spanish families, to whom the mines principally belonged, who repaired, with the wrecks of their fortunes, some to Cuba, some to Spain, and some to Bordeaux and the south of France; have caused the abandonment of several of the mines, and an extraordinary falling off in the amount of their produce. There are no means of accurately estimating the precise extent of this decline; but according to Mr. Jacob, who collected and compared all the existing information on the subject, the total average produce of the American mines, inclusive of Brazil, during the 20 years ending with 1829, may be estimated at 4,036,838*l.* a year; being less considerably than ½ of their produce at the beginning of the century!—(*Jacob*, vol. ii. p. 267.)

Since the publication of Mr. Jacob's work, some further light has been thrown on this subject, by the publication of returns obtained by the British consuls in South America, of the produce of the mines at different periods. They differ considerably from those given by Mr. Jacob. The following is an abstract of their results, comparing the 20 years ending with 1809 with the 20 years ending with 1829:—

Mines.	1790 to 1809.			1810 to 1829.		
	Gold.	Silver.	Total.	Gold.	Silver.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Mexico	4,523,378	94,429,303	98,952,681	1,913,075	45,588,729	47,501,804
Panama	223,518	-	223,518	23,603	-	23,603
Chili	863,974	944,736	1,808,710	1,904,514	878,188	2,782,702
Buenos Ayres	1,864,935	19,286,831	21,140,766	2,161,940	7,895,842	10,057,782
Total of America	7,475,805	114,660,870	122,134,695	6,003,132	54,162,759	60,165,891
Russia	-	-	- £.	3,703,743	1,512,981	5,216,724
			£.	9,706,875	55,665,740	65,372,615

There are so many sources of error attached to all investigations of this sort, that these results, though deduced from what may be reckoned good authority, cannot be altogether depended upon. The consular returns contain no account of the produce of the Peruvian mines, except in so far as they come under the head of Buenos Ayres; and in this respect they differ very widely from the statements given by Mr. Jacob, who estimates the produce of the mines of Peru and Buenos Ayres, during the 20 years ending with 1829, at about 18,500,000*l.*! We also incline to think that the mines and washings in Colombia are not quite so neglected as they are said to be by the consul. It will be observed, too, that the above account does not include the produce of the Brazilian mines. They are supposed to have yielded, since 1810, about 1,500,000 dollars a year; but this is not more than adequate for the wants of the country. The produce of the Russian mines were comparatively trifling till 1810; but it has since increased, and is continuing to increase with considerable rapidity.

Adding to the produce of the American, that of the Russian mines, and separating the gold from the silver, their total produce, according to the consular returns, during each of the 4 decennial periods ending with 1829, has been about—

	Gold.	Silver.	Both.
	L.	*L.*	*L.*
Ten years ending 1799	3,993,000	58,200,000	62,585,000
—— 1809	4,140,000	55,367,000	59,547,000
—— 1819	3,955,000	29,451,000	33,9[illegible],000
—— 1829	5,752,000	25,712,000	31,464,000

This gives 3,146,000*l.* for the average annual supply of the American and Russian mines during the 10 years ending with 1829. But the returns show that the produce of the Mexican mines had begun materially to increase in the latter years of this period; and we have to add to the above the produce of the Hungarian and Saxon mines. Hence, allowing for the increase that has taken place since 1829 in the productiveness of the Mexican and South American mines, exclusive of Brazil, and adding to their produce that of the Russian and other European mines, we may safely estimate (assuming the consuls not to have under-rated the American returns) the present annual supply of gold and silver from these sources at considerably more than 4,000,000*l.*

Exclusive of the sources now mentioned, the United States have recently begun to afford considerable quantities of gold. It was first discovered in North Carolina, in 1804; and from that period till 1829, about 109,000 dollars had been found. It has since been discovered in other States. The following Table exhibits the value of the gold annually produced in the United States since 1829.—(*American Almanac* for 1834.)

States.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
Virginia	2,500	24,000	26,000	24,000
North Carolina	134,000	204,000	294,000	458,000
South Carolina	3,500	26,000	22,000	45,000
Georgia		212,000	176,000	140,000
Alabama			1,000	
Tennessee			1,000	1,000
Total	140,000	469,000	520,000	678,000

This Table shows a considerable increase; the produce in 1832 being above 135,000*l.* It is principally obtained by washing the soil in the valleys. Taking this new supply into account, and including, as was done by M. Humboldt, the produce of the Brazilian mines; and further adding 530,000*l.* to the sums given in the consular returns, to cover the deficiencies which they certainly involve;* we may safely estimate the entire annual produce of the American, European, and Russo-Asiatic mines, as amounting, at this moment, to about 6,000,000*l.* a year; being 6-10ths of their annual produce when greatest.

2. *Consumption of the Precious Metals.*—Gold and silver are supplied either to serve as coin, or are made use of in the arts. There are no means whatever by which to discover the proportion in which they are applied, at any given period, to these purposes; and the proportion is perpetually varying with the varying circumstances of each country; as, for example, with the greater or less abundance of paper money, and the degree in which the use of coins is saved by the various devices resorted to by means of banking and otherwise for economising currency, the greater or less wealth of the inhabitants, the fashion as to plate, the feeling of security at the moment, and a thousand other circumstances,—all of which are liable to great and sometimes sudden changes.

According to Mr. Jacob, the value of the precious metals annually applied to ornamental and luxurious purposes in Europe may be estimated as follows: viz. Great Britain, 2,457,221*l.*; France, 1,230,000*l.*; Switzerland, 350,000*l.*; remainder of Europe, 1,605,499*l.*; making in all, 5,612,711*l.* And adding to this the sums directly applied to the same purposes in America, the whole will be about 6,000,000*l.*

The data upon which this estimate has been founded, are in the last degree vague and

* Even with this addition, their produce is materially under the sum mentioned by Mr. Jacob.

unsatisfactory. It can hardly, indeed, be looked upon as any thing better than a mere guess; and as such, we do not think that it is a very happy one. M. Chabrol (whose researches are far more worthy of confidence than those of M. Chaptal, to which Mr. Jacob refers) estimates the consumption of gold and silver in the arts at Paris at 14,552,000 francs a year —(*Récherches Statistiques sur la Ville de Paris*, 1823, Tab. No. 85.); which corresponds with the elaborate estimate of M. Benoiston de Châteauneuf—(*Récherches sur les Consommations de Paris en* 1817, 2de partie, p. 78.). Both these authorities agree that the consumption of the precious metals in the arts at Paris is double that of the rest of France; so that we have 21,828,000 francs, or 866,190*l.*, for the consumption of the whole kingdom, which is 333,810*l.* a year under Mr. Jacob's estimate.

We have been assured, by those who have good means of forming a correct opinion upon such a point, that the quantity assigned by Mr. Jacob for the consumption of Great Britain is over-rated in about the same proportion as the consumption of France, or about ⅓ part. There has, no doubt, been a considerable increase of late years in the consumption of plate and gilt articles; but it would require far better evidence than any hitherto laid before the public, to warrant the conclusion that so large a sum as 2,457,000*l.* is appropriated to such purposes.

The consumption of Switzerland, as set down by Mr. Jacob, is probably not far from accurate. But the sum assigned for the aggregate consumption of the rest of Europe seems to be quite as much exaggerated as that allowed for France and England.

According to this view of the matter, the consumption will be,—Great Britain, 1,842,216*l.*; France, 866,190*l.*; Switzerland, 350,000*l.*; rest of Europe, 1,204,118*l.*; in all, 4,263,224*l.* To this must be added 300,000*l.* for the consumption of America; making the entire consumption 4,563,224*l.*

Probably this valuation is still too high. According to M. Humboldt (*Nouvelle Espagne*, 2d edit. tome iii. p. 464.), the total consumption of the precious metals in Europe, for other purposes than those of coin, amounts to only 87,182,800 francs, equal, at the exchange of 25·20, to 3,459,714*l.*; and adding to this 300,000*l.* for the consumption of America, the grand total will be, in round numbers, 3,760,000*l.*; being 803,000*l.* under our estimate, and no less than 2,140,000*l.* under that of Mr. Jacob!

But a portion of the gold and silver annually made use of in the arts is derived from the fusion of old plate, the burning of lace, picture frames, &c. Here, however, we have to lament the impossibility of ascertaining the proportion the supply from this source bears to the total quantity wrought up. Mr. Jacob estimates it at only $\frac{1}{40}$th part, or 2½ per cent.; but so small a sum seems to be quite out of the question. Most part of the precious metals employed in plating, gilding, &c. is certainly destroyed; but the quantity of metal so made use of is admitted by every one to be decidedly less than the quantity used in the manufacture of plate, watch-cases, and other articles of that description. And these, when they either become unfashionable, or are broken or injured, are, for the most part, sent to the melting pot. According to the statement of Necker, quoted and sanctioned by Humboldt, a *half* of the gold and silver used in France by goldsmiths and others in the arts, is supposed to be obtained from the fusion of old plate, &c.—(*Nouvelle Espagne*, tome iii. p. 467.)

But, notwithstanding the high authority by which this estimate is supported, we believe that it is nearly as much above the mark as Mr. Jacob's is certainly below it. Assuming, therefore, that, at a medium, 20 per cent. or $\frac{1}{5}$th part of the precious metals annually made use of in the arts is obtained from the fusion of old plate, we shall have, by deducting this proportion from the 4,563,000*l.* applied to the arts in Europe and America, 3,650,000*l.* as the total annual appropriation of the new gold and silver dug from the mines to such purposes, leaving about 2,000,000*l.* a year to be manufactured into coin.

It is not much more easy to determine the consumption of the precious metals when manufactured into coin, than when in plate. Mr. Jacob has entered into some curious details (vol. ii. c. 28.) to determine the abrasion or loss of coins from wear, which he estimates at $\frac{1}{800}$th part a year for gold, and $\frac{1}{280}$th part for silver coins. This, however, does not give the total wear and tear of the coins. To determine the latter, the quantities lost by fire, shipwrecks, and other accidents, must be taken into account. The loss from these sources can only be guessed at; but adding it to the loss by abrasion, perhaps we shall not be far wrong in estimating the whole at 1 per cent.

It is singular that, in estimating the consumption of gold and silver, Mr. Jacob should not have made the slightest allusion to the practice which has uniformly prevailed in all countries harassed by intestine commotions, or exposed to foreign invasion, of burying treasure in the earth. Of the hoards so deposited, a very considerable proportion has been altogether lost; and there can be no doubt that this has been one of the principal means by which the stock of the precious metals has been kept down to its present level. Every one is aware that, during the middle ages, *treasure trove*, or money dug from the ground by chance finders, belonged to the Crown, and formed no inconsiderable part of the royal revenue of this and other countries. The practice has always prevailed to a very great extent in the East.—

(*Bernier, Voyage de Mogol*, Amst. 1710, tome i. p. 209.; *Scrafton on the Government of Hindostan*, p. 16. &c.) But it is not confined to that quarter. Wherever property is insecure, it is invariably resorted to. Mr. Wakefield tells us that it is common in Ireland.—(*Account of Ireland*, vol. i. p. 593.) It has always prevailed to a considerable extent in Russia and France; and in the latter, during the revolutionary anarchy, immense sums were buried, of which it is abundantly certain a large proportion will never be resuscitated. The wars and convulsions by which Europe was desolated for more than 20 years extended the practice to all parts of the Continent; withdrawing in this way from circulation a very considerable part of the increased produce of the mines.—(*Storch, Economie Politique*, tome i. p. 221 Paris, 1823.)

3. *Exportation of the Precious Metals to the East.*—It must be well known to all our readers, that from the remotest era down to a comparatively late period bullion has always formed one of the principal and most advantageous articles of export to the East. Humboldt estimated that, of the entire produce of the American mines at the beginning of this century, amounting, as already seen, to 43,500,000 dollars, no less than 25,500,000 were sent to Asia,—17,500,000 by the Cape of Good Hope, 4,000,000 by the Levant, and 4,000,000 through the Russian frontier.—(*Nouvelle Espagne*, tome iii. p. 443.) Latterly, however, this immense drain has not only entirely ceased; but *the current has, in fact, begun to set strongly in the opposite direction.* Thus it appears that the total imports of gold and silver from Europe and North and South America into Bengal, Madras, and Bombay, during the 3 years ending with 1830-31, amounted to 479,388*l.*; whereas the total exports of the precious metals from these 3 presidencies to Europe and America during the same 3 years were 1,119,973*l.*, being an excess of 640,585*l.*: so that India, instead of importing, as formerly, very large quantities of bullion from the Western World, supplied, during the period in question, about 213,000*l.* a year to its markets!—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 390. Sess. 1833.) The same is the case with China. During the year ending the 31st of March, 1832, silver was exported from Canton to England to the amount of 1,976,930 dollars, or 390,000*l.*, besides about as much more exported to India!—(See vol. i. p. 301.) A considerable part of this large export consists of native silver, of which there are mines in several provinces. China has also mines of gold; and in some late years her exports of that metal have been considerable: she is, however, an importer as well as an exporter of gold, having for a lengthened period drawn considerable supplies of that metal from Borneo, Celebes and the Malay peninsula. It appears, too, that the efflux of bullion from Russia to China has ceased; and that there, also, the current is setting the opposite way.—(*Jacob*, vol. ii. p. 320.) And if there be any sums still exported by way of the Levant, which is doubtful, they are certainly quite inconsiderable.

4. *Influence of the diminished Productiveness of the Mines on Prices.*—It has been customary in this country to ascribe almost the whole fall that has taken place in the price of most commodities since the peace, to the diminished supply of bullion from the mines. But we doubt whether this circumstance has not been fully counterbalanced by others, and whether it has had any influence in the way now mentioned. The cessation of the drain to the East, even admitting that M. Humboldt has somewhat over-rated its amount, would of itself have gone far to counteract the decreased productiveness of the mines; but we have just seen that it has not merely ceased, but that we are, in fact, deriving considerable supplies from that very quarter. In addition to this, the greater security and tranquillity enjoyed on the Continent since the peace, has not only checked that burying of money, formerly so prevalent, but has caused the bringing to light of a good many of the subterranean hoards. The institution of savings' banks, now so common everywhere, has also, no doubt, tended to prevent hoarding, and to bring a good deal of coin into circulation, that would otherwise have been locked up. These circumstances, coupled with others that might be mentioned, such as the cessation of the demand for military chests, the greater employment of bills in mercantile transactions, &c., afford the best grounds for doubting whether the quantity of the precious metals annually applicable to the purposes of circulation be not as great at present, as in 1809 or 1810. It is further to be observed, that the falling off in the produce of the mines has been in silver only; and that the supply of gold, instead of being diminished during the last 10 years, has been *very materially increased*: and as gold is the standard of our currency, it is obviously false to affirm that its value has been increased from its being less abundant than formerly.* It is contended, indeed, that in estimating the value of the precious metals, we cannot separate gold and silver; and that the fall that has taken place in the prices of *all* commodities since 1815, proves that the value of money has sustained a corresponding advance. But the value of gold is in no way dependent upon, or connected with, the value of silver. The exchangeable worth of each metal is wholly determined by the peculiar conditions under which it is supplied; and the circumstances of gold falling in value when silver is rising, is no more to be wondered at, than that lead should fall when iron rises, or conversely. Neither is it true that the fall in

* This fact shows the reliance to be placed on the information and opinions of those who recommend the adoption of a silver standard as a means of diminishing the public burdens!

the value of commodities since 1815 has been universal. We admit it has been very general; but we venture to affirm that there is not, without any exception whatever, a single commodity that has fallen in price since 1814, the fall of which may not be satisfactorily accounted for without reference to the supply of gold and silver.—(See vol. i. p. 81.) Multiplied proofs of what is now stated, will be found in various articles throughout this work. And we have little doubt that those who investigate the matter with any degree of care, will agree with us in thinking, that, even without distinguishing between gold and silver, were the influence of the decreased productiveness of the mines on prices estimated at from 3 to 5 per cent., it would be very decidedly beyond the mark. We believe its influence has been hardly perceptible.

5. *Probable future Supply of Gold and Silver.*—Nothing but conjectural statements can be made as to the probable future supply of the precious metals. On the whole, however, we should think that a very considerable increase may be fairly anticipated. The anarchy, in which the new South American States have hitherto been involved, will come to a close; and, with the increase of population and capital, renewed attention will, doubtless, be paid to the mines. It is reasonable also, we think, to anticipate that the supplies from the Russian mines will continue to increase.

[For the value of the gold received at the mint from the gold region of the United States, see article COINS.—*Am. Ed.*]

PREMIUM. See INSURANCE.

PRICES. By the price of a commodity is meant its value estimated in money, or simply, the quantity of money for which it will exchange. The price of a commodity rises when it fetches more, and falls when it fetches less money.

1. *Price of freely produced Commodities.*—The exchangeable value of commodities—that is, their power of exchanging for or buying other commodities—depends, at any given period, partly on the comparative facility of their production, and partly on the relation of the supply and demand. If any 2 or more commodities respectively required the same outlay of capital and labour to bring them to market, and if the supply of each were adjusted exactly according to the effectual demand—that is, were they all in sufficient abundance, and no more, to supply the wants of those able and willing to pay the outlay upon them, and the ordinary rate of profit at the time—they would each fetch the same price, or exchange for the same quantity of any other commodity. But if any single commodity should happen to require less or more capital and labour for its production, while the quantity required to produce the others continued stationary, its value, as compared with them, would, in the first case, fall, and in the second, rise; and, supposing the cost of its production not to vary, its value might be increased by a falling off in the supply, or by an increase of demand, and conversely.

But it is of importance to bear in mind, that all variations of price arising from any disproportion in the supply and demand of such commodities as may be *freely produced* in *indefinite quantities*, are *temporary* only; while those that are occasioned by changes in the cost of their production are *permanent*, at least as much so as the cause in which they originate. A general mourning occasions a transient rise in the price of black cloth: but supposing that the fashion of wearing black were to continue, its price would not permanently vary; for those who previously manufactured blue and brown cloths, &c. would henceforth manufacture only black cloth; and the supply being in this way increased to the same extent as the demand, the price would settle at its old level. Hence the importance of distinguishing between a variation of price originating in a change of fashion, or other accidental circumstances—such, for example, as a deficient harvest—and a variation occasioned by some change in the cost of production. In the former case, prices will, at no distant period, revert to their old level; in the latter, the variation will be lasting.

When the *price* of a freely produced commodity rises or falls, such variation may evidently be occasioned either by something affecting its value, or by something affecting the value of money. But when the generality of commodities rise or fall, the fair presumption is, that the change is not in them, but in the money with which they are compared. This conclusion does not, however, apply in all cases; and we believe that most part of that fall in the price of commodities, which has taken place since the peace, and which has been so generally ascribed to a rise in the value of money, occasioned by a decline in the productiveness of the mines, has been caused by the increased productiveness of industry, arising from the abolition of oppressive restraints on commerce, the opening of new and more abundant sources of supply, and the discovery of new means, and improved methods of production.—(See PRECIOUS METALS.)

2. *Price of monopolised Commodities.*—Exlusive, however, of the commodities now alluded to, there is a considerable class, whose producers or holders enjoy either an *absolute* or a *partial* monopoly of the supply. When such is the case, prices depend entirely or principally on the proportion between the supply and demand, and are not liable to be influenced, or only in a secondary degree, by changes in the cost of production. Antique statues and gems; the pictures of the great masters; wines of a peculiar flavour, produced

in small quantities in particular situations; and a few other articles; exist under what may be called absolute monopolies;—their supply cannot be increased; and their price must, therefore, depend entirely on the competition of those who may wish to buy them, without being in the slightest degree influenced by the cost of their production.

Monopolies are sometimes established by law; as when the power to supply the market with a particular article is made over to one individual or society of individuals, without any limitation of the price at which it may be sold; which, of course, enables those possessed of the monopoly to exact the highest price for it that the competition of the buyers will afford, though such price may exceed the cost of production in any conceivable degree. Monopolies of this sort used to be common in England, particularly in the reign of Elizabeth: but they were finally abolished by the famous act of the 21 Jac. 1. c. 3.—an act which, by establishing the freedom of competition in all businesses carried on at home, has been productive of the greatest advantage.—(See MONOPOLY.)

The corn laws establish a partial monopoly of the supply of Great Britain with corn in favour of the agriculturists; but, as competition is carried to as great an extent in agriculture as in any other business, this monopoly does not enable them to obtain a higher price for their produce than is sufficient to pay the expenses of its production: though, owing to the peculiar circumstances under which this country is placed, this price is higher than the price in the surrounding countries. Hence it results that the monopoly is injurious to the public, without being of any advantage to those engaged in the business of agriculture. Neither, indeed, can it be truly said to be advantageous to the landlords.—(See vol. i. p. 495.)

The rights conveyed by patents sometimes establish a valuable monopoly; for they enable the inventors of improved methods of production to maintain, during the continuance of the patent, the price of the article at a level which may be much higher than is required to afford them the ordinary rate of profit. This advantage, however, by stimulating invention, and exciting to new discoveries, of which it is the natural and appropriate reward, instead of being injurious, is beneficial to the public.—(See PATENTS.)

There are also partial monopolies, depending upon situation, connection, fashion, &c. These, and other inappreciable circumstances, sometimes occasion a difference of 30 per cent., or more, in the price of the same article in shops not very distant from each other.

Generally speaking, the supply of monopolized commodities is less liable to vary than those that are freely produced; and their prices are commonly more steady. But there are various exceptions to this rule, and of these the corn monopoly is one. The great variations in the harvests of particular countries, and their average equality throughout the world, exposes a nation which shuts foreign corn out of its ports to destructive vicissitudes of price, from which it would enjoy a nearly total exemption were the ports open.—(See vol. i. p. 493.) Sometimes the expiration of a monopoly—a patent, for example—has occasioned a sudden and extraordinary increase of supply, and consequent fall of price; entailing, of course, a serious loss on the holders of large stocks of goods produced under the monopoly.

3. *New Sources of Supply.*—The effects on prices produced by the opening of new markets, or new sources of supply, are familiar to every one. The fall that has taken place in the price of pepper, and of most sorts of commodities brought from the East, since the opening of the trade in 1814, is a conspicuous proof of what is now stated.

4. *Influence of War on Prices.*—The effect of war in obstructing the ordinary channels of commercial intercourse, and occasioning extreme fluctuations in the supply and price of commodities, is well known. In this respect, however, the latter part of the late war is, perhaps, entitled to a pre-eminence. We had then to deal with an enemy who had extended his sway over most part of the Continent; and who endeavoured, by every means in his power, to shut us out of the Continental markets. Mr. Tooke has given, in his elaborate and valuable work on *High and Low Prices*, a variety of details which strikingly illustrate the effect that the regulations then adopted by the belligerent powers had on prices. "Among the means," says Mr. Tooke, "devised by the ingenuity and enterprise of adventurers to elude or overcome the obstacles presented by the decrees of the enemy, one in particular, which was resorted to on an extensive scale, deserves mention, as illustrating in a striking manner the degree in which those obstacles were calculated to increase the cost to the consumer. Several vessels laden with sugar, coffee, tobacco, cotton twist, and other valuable commodities, were despatched from England at very high rates of freight and insurance to Salonica, where the goods were landed, and thence conveyed on mules and horses through Servia and Hungary to Vienna, for the purpose of being distributed over Germany, and, possibly, into France. Thus it might happen that the inhabitants of that part of the Continent most contiguous to this country could not receive their supplies from us, without an expense of conveyance equivalent to what it would be, if they were removed to the distance of a sea voyage twice round the globe, but not subject to fiscal and political regulations." And in consequence of these, and other causes of the same sort, Mr. Tooke mentions that the price of sugar in France, and other parts of the Continent, during the latter years of the war, was as high as 5*s.* and 6*s.* a pound; that coffee rose to 7*s.*; indigo to 18*s.*, and so on.

But the sums charged for freight and insurance were the most extraordinary. Mr. Tooke states, that he has known instances in which the licence, freight, and other charges on account of a vessel of about 100 tons burden, making a voyage from Calais to London and back, have amounted to the almost incredible sum of 50,000*l.*! A ship of which the whole cost and outfit did not amount to 4,000*l.*, earned, during the latter period of the war, a gross freight of 80,000*l.* on a voyage from Bordeaux to London and back! The freight of indigo from London to the Continent does not at present exceed 1*d.* a pound; whereas it amounted, at the period referred to, to about 4*s.* 6*d.*—(*High and Low Prices*, 2d ed. p. 212.)

5. *Influence of Taxes on Prices.*—It is unnecessary to dilate on a topic so familiar to every one. When a tax is laid on a commodity, its price necessarily rises in a corresponding proportion; for otherwise the producers would not obtain the ordinary rate of profit, and would, of course, withdraw from the business. The rise in the price of several of the articles in the annexed Table, is principally to be ascribed to the increase of taxation.

These statements will probably suffice to give our readers a general idea of the principles which determine the value of commodities. To go deeper into the subject would involve us in discussions that belong to political economy, and are among the most intricate in that science. The influence of speculation on prices must not, however, be passed over in a work of this sort.

6. *Influence of Speculation on Prices.*—It very rarely happens that either the actual supply of any species of produce in extensive demand, or the intensity of that demand, can be exactly measured. Every transaction in which an individual buys produce in order to sell it again, is, in fact, a speculation. The buyer anticipates that the demand for the article he has purchased will be such, at some future period, either more or less distant, that he will be able to dispose of it with a profit; and the success of the speculation depends, it is evident, on the skill with which he has estimated the circumstances that must determine the future price of the commodity. It follows, therefore, that in all highly commercial countries, where merchants are possessed of large capitals, and where they are left to be guided in the use of them by their own discretion and foresight, the prices of commodities will frequently be very much influenced, not merely by the actual occurrence of changes in the accustomed relation of the supply and demand, but by the anticipation of such changes. It is the business of the merchant to acquaint himself with every circumstance affecting the particular description of commodities in which he deals. He endeavours to obtain, by means of an extensive correspondence, the earliest and most authentic information with respect to every thing that may affect their supply or demand, or the cost of their production; and if he learned that the supply of an article had failed, or that, owing to changes of fashion, or to the opening of new channels of commerce, the demand for it had been increased, he would most likely be disposed to become a buyer, in anticipation of profiting by the rise of price, which, under the circumstances of the case, could hardly fail of taking place; or, if he were a holder of the article, he would refuse to part with it, unless for a higher price than he would previously have accepted. If the intelligence received by the merchant had been of a contrary description—if, for example, he had learned that the article was now produced with greater facility, or that there was a falling off in the demand for it, caused by a change of fashion, or by the shutting up of some of the markets to which it had previously been admitted—he would have acted differently: in this case he would have anticipated a fall of prices, and would either have declined purchasing the article, except at a reduced rate, or have endeavoured to get rid of it, supposing him to be a holder, by offering it at a lower price. In consequence of these operations, the prices of commodities, in different places and periods, are brought comparatively near to equality. All abrupt transitions, from scarcity to abundance, and from abundance to scarcity, are avoided; an excess in one case is made to balance a deficiency in another, and the supply is distributed with a degree of steadiness and regularity that could hardly have been deemed attainable.

It is obvious, from what has now been stated, that those who indiscriminately condemn all sorts of speculative engagements, have never reflected on the circumstances incident to the prosecution of every undertaking. In truth and reality, they are all speculations. Their undertakers must look forward to periods more or less distant; and their success depends entirely on the sagacity with which they have estimated the probability of certain events occurring, and the influence which they have ascribed to them. Speculation is, therefore, really only another name for foresight; and though fortunes have sometimes been made by a lucky hit, the character of a successful speculator is, in the vast majority of instances, due to him only who has skilfully devised the means of effecting the end he had in view, and who has outstripped his competitors in the judgment with which he has looked into futurity, and appreciated the operation of causes producing distant effects. Even in the securest businesses, such as agriculture and manufactures, there is, and must be a great deal of speculation. An unlooked for change of season frequently disappoints the apparently reasonable expectations of those who undertake the former; while the equally capricious variations of fashion have to be encountered by those engaged in the latter; and each is, besides, liable to be affected

by legislative enactments, by new discoveries in the arts, and by an endless variety of circumstances which it is always very difficult, and sometimes quite impossible, to foresee. On the whole, indeed, the gains of the undertakers are so adjusted, that those who carry them on obtain, at an average, the common and ordinary rate of profit. But the inequality in the gains of individuals is most commonly very great: and while the superior tact, industry, or good fortune of some enable them to realise large fortunes; the want of discernment, the less vigilant attention, or the bad fortune of others, frequently reduces them from the situation of capitalists to that of labourers.

The great cotton speculation of 1825 took its rise partly and chiefly from a supposed deficiency in the supply of cotton, partly from an idea that there was a greatly increased demand for raw cotton in this country and the Continent, and partly from a belief that the stocks on hand were unusually low. Now it is obvious, that the success of those who embarked in this speculation, depended entirely on two circumstances; viz. *first*, that they were right in the fundamental supposition on which the whole speculation rested, that the supply of cotton was no longer commensurate with the demand; and *second*, that their competition did not raise the price so high as to diminish the consumption by the manufacturers in too great a degree to enable them to take off the quantity to be actually brought to market. If the merchants had been well founded in their suppositions, and if their competition had not raised the price of cotton too high, the speculation would certainly have been successful. But, instead of being well founded, the hypothesis on which the whole thing rested was perfectly visionary.—There was no deficiency in the supply of cotton, but, on the contrary, a great superabundance; and though there had been such a deficiency, the excess to which the price was carried must have checked consumption so much as to occasion a serious decline. The falling off in the imports of cotton from America, in 1824, seems to have been the source of the delusion. It was supposed that this falling off was not accidental, but that it was a consequence of the price of cotton having been for a series of years so low as to be inadequate to defray the expenses of its cultivation. The result showed that this calculation was most erroneous. And besides, in entering on the speculation no attention was paid to Egypt and Italy,—countries from which only about 1,400,000 lbs. of cotton were obtained in 1824, but from which no less than 23,800,000 lbs. were obtained in 1825! This unlooked-for importation was of itself almost enough to overturn the combinations of the speculators; and, coupled with the increased importation from America and other countries, actually occasioned a heavy glut of the market.

The risk to which merchants are exposed, when they either sell off any commodity at a reduced price in anticipation of a fall, or buy at an advanced price in anticipation of a future rise, is a consequence principally of the extreme difficulty of ascertaining the true state of the fact with respect to the grounds on which an abundant or a deficient supply, or an increasing or decreasing demand, may be expected. Rules can here be of no service; every thing depends upon the talent, tact, and knowledge of the party. The questions to be solved are all practical ones, varying in every case from each other; the skill of the merchant being evinced by the mode in which he conducts his business under such circumstances, or by his sagacity in discovering coming events, and appreciating their character and the extent of their influence. Priority, but, above all, accuracy of intelligence, is, in such cases, of the utmost consequence. Without well authenticated data to go upon, every step taken may only lead to error. The instances, indeed, in which speculations, apparently contrived with the greatest judgment, have ended in bankruptcy and ruin, from a deficiency in this essential requisite, are so very numerous, that every one must be acquainted with them. Hence the importance of selecting acute and cautious correspondents; and hence, also, the necessity of maturely weighing their reports, and of endeavouring, by the aid of information gleaned from every authentic accessible source, to ascertain how far they may be depended upon.

When a few leading merchants purchase in anticipation of an advance, or sell in anticipation of a fall, the speculation is often pushed beyond all reasonable limits, by the operations of those who are influenced by imitation only, and who have never, perhaps, reflected for a moment on the grounds on which a variation of price is anticipated. In speculation, as in most other things, one individual derives confidence from another. Such a one purchases or sells, not because he has any really accurate information as to the state of the demand and supply, but because some one else has done so before him. The original impulse is thus rapidly extended; and even those who are satisfied that a speculation, in anticipation of a rise of prices, is unsafe, and that there will be a recoil, not unfrequently adventure, in the expectation that they will be able to withdraw before the recoil has begun.

It may, we believe, speaking generally, be laid down as a sound practical rule, to avoid having any thing to do with a speculation in which many have already engaged. The competition of the speculators seldom fails speedily to render an adventure that might have been originally safe, extremely hazardous. If a commodity happen to be at an unusually reduced price in any particular market, it will rise the moment that different buyers appear in the field; and supposing, on the other hand, that it is fetching an unusually high price, it will

An Account of the Contract Prices of the following Articles of Provision, &c. at the Royal Hospital, *Papers published by the*

Years.	Flesh, per Cwt.	Bread, per Lb.	Flour, per sack.	Butter, per Lb.	Cheese, per Lb.	Peas, per Bushel.	Oatmeal, per Bushel.	Salt, per Bushel.	Malt, per Quarter.	Hops, per Cwt.	Beer, per Barrel.
	£ s. d.	Averaged.	£ s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	£ s. d.	s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
1729	1 5 8	1d. for 10 $\frac{5}{16}$ oz.	- -	0 4½	0 3½	4 0	0 4 6	5 0	1 9 0	2 5 0	- -
1730	1 5 8	1d. for 14½ oz.	- -	0 5	0 3½	4 0	0 4 6	5 0	1 0 6	2 5 10	0 3 0
1735	0 16 11	1d. for 12¾ oz.	- -	0 3½	0 2½	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 0 3	3 9 6½	0 4 11
1740	1 8 0	1d. for 9 $\frac{13}{16}$ oz.	- -	0 5	0 3½	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 7 3½	2 10 7½	0 5 9½
1745	1 2 2	1d. for 15 $\frac{9}{16}$ oz.	- -	0 3½	0 2½	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 3 1	3 11 1	0 5 11
1750	1 6 6	1d. for 13¼ oz.	- -	0 5½	0 3½	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 4 0	5 4 0	0 5 6½
1755	1 7 9½	1d. for 14 $\frac{6}{16}$ oz.	- -	0 5½	0 3½	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 2 0	2 15 0	0 4 5½
1760	1 11 6	1d. for 13½ oz.	- -	0 5½	0 3½	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 4 9	4 13 4	0 5 7½
1765	1 7 3	1d. for 9½ oz.	- -	0 5½	0 3½	3 6	0 4 0	4 0	1 10 8	7 3 6	0 7 9½
1770	1 8 6	1d. for 11 $\frac{3}{16}$ oz.	- -	0 6½	0 3½	4 3	0 4 9	4 8	1 8 3	5 16 4	0 5 10
1775	1 13 5	1d. for 9 $\frac{5}{16}$ oz.	- -	0 6½	0 3½	7 6	0 5 3	4 8	1 17 3	4 16 6	0 7 11½
1780	1 12 6	1d. for 11 $\frac{6}{16}$ oz.	- -	0 6½	0 3½	7 6	0 5 3	4 8	1 11 1	2 14 8	0 7 3½
1785	1 17 6½	1d. for 10½ oz.	- -	0 6½	0 3½	7 6	0 5 3	4 8	2 0 3	5 6 4	0 8 9½
1790	1 16 10	- -	2 3 4	0 6½	0 4	7 6	0 5 3	4 8	1 15 6	6 13 9	0 8 7
1795	2 2 10	- -	3 5 8	0 8½	0 5½	9 6	0 6 4½	6 1½	2 8 3	7 7 10	0 10 4½
1800	3 4 4	- -	4 16 0	0 11½	0 6½	13 5	0 14 0	14 0	4 4 0	16 15 9	1 0 4½
1805	3 0 4	- -	4 2 3	0 11½	0 7½	7 9	0 12 0	16 10½	4 5 7	6 11 6	0 17 0½
1806	3 1 0	- -	3 9 6½	0 11½	0 7½	8 4½	0 10 3	19 9	3 16 0	6 7 9	0 16 3½
1807	3 3 0	- -	3 3 8½	1 0½	0 7½	14 4½	0 9 4½	19 9	3 13 1½	5 19 0	0 15 5
1808	3 3 0	- -	3 9 10½	1 0½	0 7½	19 2½	0 10 10	19 9	3 16 1½	4 12 6	0 16 5½
1809	3 6 6	- -	4 5 1½	1 1	0 8	14 10½	0 11 9	19 9	4 4 5½	7 6 8	0 17 0
1810	3 12 0	- -	4 8 4	1 1½	0 8½	9 5	0 11 7	19 9	4 4 5	7 6 8	0 17 10
1811	3 14 0	- -	4 11 0	1 2½	0 8½	8 9	0 11 6	19 9	3 13 6	7 13 6	0 16 3½
1812	3 18 0	- -	5 7 5	1 3½	0 8½	12 8½	0 13 3	19 9	4 18 6	9 17 0	1 0 9½
1813	4 5 0	- -	4 13 0	1 3	0 8½	13 8½	0 13 3	19 9	4 16 6	11 11 8	1 1 10½
1814	3 14 6	- -	3 10 6	1 2	0 8½	9 4	0 10 4	19 9	3 17 8	9 10 0	0 17 3½
1815	3 8 0	- -	2 4 9	1 2	0 8	6 7½	0 10 3	19 9	3 9 7½	9 13 7	0 15 4½
1816	2 11 4	- -	3 4 1	0 9½	0 6½	7 0½	0 9 2	19 9	3 9 4½	14 0 0	0 15 8
1817	2 11 4	- -	4 6 4	0 8½	0 5½	8 6½	0 13 9	19 9	4 6 10½	22 4 0	1 0 7
1818	2 17 1	Per lb. 2 $\frac{6}{12}$ d.	3 8 5½	0 11	0 6	9 3½	0 13 5½	19 9	4 1 8½	Pockets. 8 8 0	0 19 11½
1819	3 4 3	— 1 $\frac{11}{12}$	2 17 5	0 11	0 8	7 8	0 12 9	19 9	3 12 11½	4 12 0	0 15 3½
1820	3 10 4½	— 1 $\frac{6}{12}$	2 15 1	0 9½	0 7	7 5½	0 13 4½	19 9	3 8 8½	4 0 0	0 13 10½
1821	2 18 10	— 1 $\frac{11}{12}$	2 5 3½	0 8½	0 6	5 9	0 8 8½	19 4½	3 1 11	3 12 0	0 12 10½
1822	1 19 5½	— 1 $\frac{9}{12}$	1 17 5½	0 7½	0 5	5 0½	0 8 6	18 0	2 12 8½	3 10 0	0 11 5½
1823	2 2 7½	— 1½	2 2 5	0 7½	0 4	5 6	8s. 3d. ℔ bush. 15s. 6d. ℔ cwt.	4 10	2 19 11	9 19 0	0 12 5½
1824	2 2 8½	— 1 $\frac{5}{12}$	2 6 2	0 8½	0 4½	5 11	17s. ℔ cwt.	4 9	3 2 1	7 5 0	0 14 10½
1825	2 19 6½	— 1 $\frac{3}{12}$	2 13 4	0 10½	0 5½	split peas 11s.	0 17 6	2 10	3 11 10½	23 0 0	0 16 6½
1826	2 17 8	— 1 $\frac{3}{12}$	2 5 2½	0 9½	0 6½	11 0	0 19 0	1 10½	3 5 1	15 5 0	0 17 5½
1827	1 15 4½	— 1 $\frac{3}{12}$	2 3 6	0 8½	0 5½	10 6	1 5 0	1 8	3 4 10	4 10 0	0 13 8½
1828	2 10 7½	— 1 $\frac{3}{360}$	2 6 0½	0 8½	0 5½	9 6	0 18 6	1 10	3 1 7	- -	0 13 1
1829	2 6 3½	— 2 $\frac{1}{360}$	2 15 10½	0 8	0 5	8 9	0 18 6	1 8	3 1 10½	5 9 6	0 13 4
1830	2 3 6	— 1 $\frac{3}{360}$	2 14 11	0 6½	0 4	8 0	0 16 11	1 8	2 16 1½	- -	0 13 0½
1831	2 4 3½	— 2 $\frac{1}{360}$	3 0 5½	0 9½	0 4½	9 0	0 17 6	1 8	3 10 5½	5 11 0	0 16 0½
1832	2 6 2½	— 1 $\frac{2}{360}$	2 13 1	0 8½	0 3½	8 9	0 17 0	1 8	2 18 8	6 15 0	0 13 11
1833	2 6 6	— 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{360}$	2 4 1½	0 8½	0 4½	9 0	0 16 0	1 6	2 14 6	- -	0 13 2
1834	2 3 9	— 1 $\frac{2}{360}$	1 17 6½	0 7½	0 4½	8 6	0 13 6	1 0	2 15 1½	5 1 0	0 13 3½
1835	2 0 7½	— 1 $\frac{2}{360}$	1 11 0½	0 7½	0 4	8 0	0 14 6	1 3	3 1 4½	5 11 0	0 13 9½

It may be right to observe, that in the infancy of the Institution, the clothes and bedding were the blue cloth now used for the Pensioners' coats, &

Greenwich for the Years under-mentioned.—(From the *Parl. Papers*, Nos. 54. 72. and 87. Sess. 1830, and *Board of Trade.*)

Carpenters, per Day.	Bricklayers, per Day.	Masons, per day.	Plumbers, per Day.	Candles, per Doz. lb.	Shoes, per Pair.	Coals, per Chaldron.	Mops, each.	Stockings, per Pair.	Hats, each.	Complete Suits of Bedding.	Suits of Clothes.	Coats, each.	Hops, per Cwt.	Beer, per Barrel.
s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	£ *s. d.*	£ *s. d.*	*s.* *d.*	*s. d.*	£ *s. d.*	£ *s. d.*	£ *s. d.*	£ *s. d.*	£ *s. d.*
				6 5	4 0	1 8 5	0 0 10½	1 9	2 8	3 5 0	2 12 0		2 5 0	- -
- -	- -	- -	- -				per doz s.							
Corn. 2 6	2 6	2 6	2 0	6 4	4 0	1 4 6	0 10 0	1 6	2 8	2 13 0	2 12 0		2 5 10	0 3 9
Journ. 2 6										Blankets each.				
2 6	2 6	2 6	3 0	4 2	4 0	1 5 0	0 10 6	1 6	2 3	0 4 0	2 2 6		3 9 6½	0 4 1½
2 6	2 6	2 8	3 0	5 6	3 10	1 9 0	0 10 0	1 6	2 6	0 4 6	2 3 6		2 10 7½	0 5 2½
2 6		2 8												
2 6	2 6	2 8	3 6	6 0	3 6	1 10 0	0 11 0	1 6	2 0	0 4 6	- -	1 2 4	3 11 1	0 5 1½
2 6		2 8												
2 6	2 6	2 8	2 6	6 2	3 9	1 7 7½	0 10 9	1 6	2 0	0 4 6	- -	1 1 5	5 4 0	0 5 6½
2 6		2 8												
2 6	2 6	2 8	2 6	6 10	4 0	1 8 7½	0 11 0	1 8	2 0	0 4 4½	- -	1 1 6	2 15 0	0 4 5½
2 6		2 8												
2 6	2 6	2 8	2 6	6 6	4 0	1 12 8	0 12 0	1 8	2 0	0 4 4½	- -	1 1 6	4 12 4	0 5 7½
2 6		2 8												
2 6	2 4	2 8	3 0	6 2	4 0	1 12 4½	0 11 2	1 8	2 6	0 4 6	- -	1 1 6	7 3 6	0 7 9½
2 6		2 8												
2 6	2 4	2 8	3 0	6 10½	4 0	1 9 1½	0 11 0	1 6	2 6	0 4 6	- -	1 0 5	5 16 4	0 5 10
2 8														
2 6	2 4	2 10	3 0	6 3	3 10	1 10 11½	0 10 6	1 4	2 2	0 5 4½	- -	0 19 11	4 16 6	0 7 1½
2 6		2 8												
2 6	2 4	2 10	3 0	6 9½	3 11½	1 17 3½	0 12 0	1 6	2 2	0 5 4½	- -	0 19 5	2 14 8	0 7 3½
2 6		2 8												
2 6	2 4	2 10	3 3	6 6	3 6	1 14 2½	0 11 0	1 6	2 4	0 5 4½	- -	1 0 3	5 6 4	0 8 2½
2 6		2 8												
2 6	2 4	2 10	3 3	7 0	3 11½	1 14 4½	0 14 0	1 6	2 6	0 5 4½	- -	1 0 8	6 13 9	0 8 8 7
2 6		2 10												
2 6	2 0	2 10	3 3	9 3	4 0	1 19 9	0 15 0	1 6	2 3	0 6 6	- -	1 0 2	7 7 10	0 10 4½
2 6		2 10												
3 2	3 0	2 10	3 3	10 4	5 6	2 11 7	0 15 0	1 6	2 3	0 6 6	- -	1 0 0	16 15 9	1 0 4½
4 6	4 10	5 0	4 6	10 7	5 9	2 11 8½	0 17 0	2 2	3 0	0 8 9	- -	1 1 10	6 11 6	0 17 0½
4 6	4 8	5 0	4 6	10 3	5 9	2 13 4	0 17 0	2 2	3 0	0 8 9	- -	1 1 10	6 7 9	0 16 3½
5 0	4 8	5 0	4 6	9 10	5 0	2 14 0	0 17 0	2 2	3 0	0 8 9	- -	1 1 6	5 19 0	0 15 5
5 0	5 0	5 0	4 6	13 2½	5 0	2 15 9½	0 17 0	2 2	3 0	0 8 9	- -	1 1 4	4 12 6	0 16 5½
5 4	5 1	5 1	5 3	14 5½	5 6	3 0 9½	0 17 0	2 2	3 0	0 8 9	- -	1 1 4	7 6 8	0 17 0
5 8	5 2	5 3	5 9	12 0	5 6	3 0 8	0 17 0	2 2	3 0	0 8 9	- -	1 1 4	7 6 8	0 17 10
5 6	5 5	5 9	5 9	10 9½	4 11	3 1 6	0 17 0	2 2	3 0	0 8 9	- -	1 2 2	7 13 6	0 16 3½
5 6	5 5	5 9	5 9	12 6	4 11	3 16 1	0 17 0	2 6	3 0	0 8 9	- -	1 2 2	9 17 0	1 0 0½
5 6	5 5	5 9	5 9	14 2	4 8	3 16 7½	0 18 0	2 6	3 0	0 8 9	- -	1 2 3	1 11 8	1 1 10½
5 6	5 5	5 9	5 9	14 6	4 8	3 2 2½	1 10 0	2 3	3 0	0 11 6	- -	1 4 6	9 10 0	0 17 3½
5 6	5 1	5 9	5 9	11 7	4 7	3 15 6½	1 10 0	2 3	3 0	0 11 3	- -	1 4 9	9 13 7	0 15 4½
5 2	5 1	5 3	5 5	9 2	4 7	3 2 9 6½	1 10 0	2 9	3 0	0 9 4½	- -	1 4 9	4 0 0	0 15 8
5 2	5 1	5 3	5 9	9 10	3 10	2 6 7	1 10 0	2 9	3 0	0 9 4½	- -	1 0 7	2 4 0	1 0 7
							Each.			Suits			Pockets.	
5 3	5 1	5 3	5 9	11 5½	3 10	2 8 6	0 2 6	2 10	3 0	2 19 10½	2 1 0½	1 1 7	8 8 0	0 19 11½
5 3	5 1	5 3	5 9	8 6½	4 2½	2 6 8	0 2 6	2 11	3 0	2 19 10½	2 1 7½	1 1 10½	4 12 0	0 15 3½
5 3	5 1	5 3	5 9	8 2½	4 4½	2 5 9	0 1 10½	2 9½	3 0	2 19 10½	2 3 3½	1 2 7	4 0 0	0 13 10½
5 3	5 1	5 3	5 9	7 1½	4 3	2 6 6	0 1 4½	2 8	3 0	2 19 10½	2 1 9	1 1 11	3 12 0	0 12 10½
5 1½	5 0	5 1½	5 7½	6 1½	4 2½	2 4 6½	0 1 3½	2 5	3 0	2 19 10½	2 0 2½	1 1 3	3 10 0	0 11 5½
5 0	4 10	5 0	5 6	5 6	4 7½	2 6 7	0 1 2	2 2	3 0	2 19 10½	1 19 11½	1 1 1½	9 19 0	0 12 5½
5 0	4 10	5 0	5 6	5 6	4 9½	2 3 8	0 1 1½	2 1½	3 0	2 19 10½	1 19 11½	1 1 2	7 5 0	0 14 10½
5 0	4 10	5 0	5 6	6 0	4 6	2 3 2	0 1 2½	2 1½	3 0	2 19 10½	2 0 8½	1 1 8	3 0 0	0 16 6½
5 9	4 10	5 6	5 6	5 9½	4 5	2 0 4	0 1 1½	2 0½	3 0	2 19 10½	2 1 6½	1 2 2	5 5 0	0 17 5½
5 9	4 10	5 6	5 9	5 10	4 3½	2 1 5½	0 1 1½	1 10½	3 0	2 8 3	1 19 10½	1 1 4	4 10 0	0 13 6½
5 8½	4 10	5 6	5 9	5 10½	4 3	2 0 8½	0 1 2	1 9½	3 0	2 5 9	1 18 1	1 0 7	- -	0 13 1
5 6	4 10	5 6	5 5	5 6½	3 9½	1 16 7	0 1 1½	1 9½	3 0	2 5 9	1 18 6½		5 9 6	0 13 4
5 6	4 9	5 5	5 6	5 3½	3 6	1 12 11	0 0 10½	1 6½	3 0	1 17 10½	1 18 6½		- -	0 12 6½
5 5	do.	5 3	5 6	6 0	3 6	1 7 0	0 11½ $\frac{6}{12}$	1 6½ $\frac{5}{12}$	3 0	1 17 10½	2 0 11½		5 11 0	0 16 0½
						Per Ton.								
do.	do.	5 3	5 6	5 2½	3 6	1 4 3	0 1 1½	1 7½ $\frac{5}{12}$	3 0	1 19 3½	2 3 4		6 15 0	0 13 11
do.	do.	do.	5 5	5 2½	3 4½	0 15 11	do.	1 7 $\frac{5}{12}$	oe.	do.	2 3 6½		- -	0 12 2
do.	do.	do.	do.	5 6	do.	0 14 11	do.	1 6½	do.	do.	2 7 2½		5 1 0	0 12 3½
do.	do.	do.	do.	5 2	3 3½	0 16 8	do.	1 9½	do.	do.	2 6 1		5 11 0	0 13 9½

None supplied since 1829.

ding were
s' coals, is

contracted for in suits; and it is so stated in the account. It is also necessary to remark, that of a quality very inferior to the ancient pattern.

fall, perhaps far below the cost of production, as soon as supplies begin to be poured in by different merchants. Whatever, therefore, may be the success of those who originate a speculation, those who enter into it at an advanced period are almost sure to lose. To have been preceded by others ought not, in such matters, to inspire confidence; on the contrary, it ought, unless there be something special in the case, to induce every considerate person to decline interfering with it.

The maintenance of the freedom of intercourse between different countries, and the more general diffusion of sound instruction, seem to be the only means by which those miscalculations, that are often productive of great national as well as private loss, can be either obviated or mitigated. The effects consequent to such improvident speculations being always far more injurious to the parties engaged in them than to any other class, the presumption is that they will diminish, both in frequency and force, according as the true principles of commerce come to be better understood. But, whatever inconvenience may occasionally flow from them, it is abundantly plain, that instead of being lessened, it would be very much increased, were any restraints imposed on the freedom of adventure. When the attention of many individuals is directed to the same line of speculation; when they prosecute it as a business, and are responsible in their own private fortunes for any errors they may commit; they acquire a knowledge of the various circumstances influencing prices, and give by their combinations a steadiness to them, which it is easy to see could not be attained by any other means. It is material, too, to bear in mind, as was previously stated, that many, perhaps it might be said *most*, of those who press so eagerly into the market, when any new channel of commerce is opened, or when any considerable rise of price is anticipated, are not merchants, but persons engaged in other businesses, or living, perhaps, on fixed incomes, who speculate in the hope of suddenly increasing their fortune. This tendency to gambling seldom fails to break out upon such occasions; but, fortunately, these are only of comparatively rare occurrence; and in the ordinary course of affairs, mercantile speculations are left to be conducted by those who are familiar with business, and who, in exerting themselves to equalise the variations of price caused by variations of climate and of seasons, and to distribute the supply of produce proportionally to the effective demand, and with so much providence that it may not at any time be wholly exhausted, perform functions that are in the highest degree important and beneficial. They are, it is true, actuated only by a desire to advance their own interests; but the results of their operations are not less advantageous than those of the agriculturist who gives greater fertility to the soil, or of the mechanist who invents new and more powerful machines.

7. *Tables of Prices.*—It is superfluous, perhaps, to observe, that the precious metals are liable to all the variations of value already alluded to. Not only, therefore, are prices, as was already remarked, affected by variations in the cost and supply of commodities, but they are also affected by changes in the cost and supply of gold and silver, whether arising from the exhaustion of old, or the discovery of new mines, improvements in the art of mining, changes of fashion, &c. Hence it is, that Tables of the prices of commodities, extending for a considerable period, communicate far less solid information than is generally supposed, and, unless the necessary allowances be made, may lead to the most unfounded conclusions. The real value of any commodity depends on the quantity of labour required for its production; but supposing that we were to set about inferring this real value, or the ultimate sacrifice required to obtain the commodity, from its price, it might happen, (had the quantity of labour required for its production declined, but in a less degree than the quantity required to produce gold and silver), that its value would appear to rise, when it had really been diminished. When, however, the rate of wages, as well as the prices of commodities, is given upon authentic data, a Table of prices is valuable, inasmuch as it shows the extent of the command over the necessaries and conveniences of life enjoyed by the bulk of the community during the period through which it extends. The preceding Table (pp. 352, 353.) of the prices of various commodities, and of the wages paid to different descriptions of tradesmen, at Greenwich Hospital, for the last 100 years, is the most complete of the sort that has been published; and is one of the few that is founded upon data, the accuracy of which cannot be questioned. Unfortunately, it applies only to a small part of the country. But many important conclusions may, notwithstanding, be deduced from it. The reader will find, under the more important articles described in this work, pretty ample accounts of their prices. Sometimes, as in the case of corn, these accounts go back to a very distant period.

Those desirous of detailed information as to the prices of commodities in Great Britain, in remoter ages, may consult the elaborate Tables in the 3d volume of Sir F. M. Eden's work on the *Poor*; and the 4th volume of *Macpherson's Annals of Commerce*. Arbuthnot's *Tables of Ancient Coins, Weights, Measures, Prices, &c.*, are well known; but the statements are not much to be depended upon. The *Traité de Métrologie* of M. Paucton, 4to, Paris, 1780, is the best work on this curious and difficult subject.

[Highest Wholesale Prices at Boston, Massachusetts, of 14 articles of the best quality, from 1795 to 1834 inclusive, from a Table by Mr. John Hayward.

Year.	Flour.	Corn, North.	Rye.	Barley.	Rice.	Beef, No. 1.	Pork, No. 1.	Fish, Cod. Mer.	Cotton, Upland.	Tobacco, Va. Leaf.	Coffee.	Tea, Hyson.	Sugar, Muscv.	Molasses.
	bbl.	bus.	bus.	bus.	cwt.	bbl.	bbl.	cwt.	lb.	cwt.	lb.	lb.	cwt.	gal.
1795	13·00	1·00	1·16		7·00	13·00	18·00	4·56	33	6·87	21	1·33	14·00	60
1796	16·00	1·25	1·30	1·00	8·00	14·00	18·00	6·00	30	7·00	25	1·25	13·16	62
1797	10·00	1·00	1·33	1·00	4·00	13·00	18·50	5·50	30	9·00	26	1·50	16·00	68
1798	7·00	60	75	90	2·25	10·00	18·70	4·25	36	12·00	24	1·42	15·50	56
1799	10·00	67	83	83	3·00	8·00	17·00	3·50	36	10·50	30	1·50	16·00	50
1800	10·00	75	1·00	79	4·50	8·00	17·00	3·50	40	5·00	25	1·34	14·00	48
1801	13·00	1·16	1·20	90	7·00	13·00	26·00	6·00	30	5·50	26	1·10	14.00	56
1802	9·00	63	83	1·25	4·75	11·00	18·00	4·25	25	7·50	22	1·04	15·50	36
1803	7·00	70	75	1·00	6·25	13·00	16·00	4·50	19	7·25	22	1·16	13·00	42
1804	7·75	86	84	83	5·50	12·00	15 50	4·80	18	8·50	28	1·35	13 00	54
1805	13·00	1·25	1·33	1·00	6·50	10·00	16·50	5·50	25	8·00	31	1·20	14·50	40
1806	7·50	75	1·10	92	5·25	10·50	21·00	4·25	23	7·50	32	1·20	12·00	38
1807	8·25	1·00	96	90	5·25	11·00	22·00	4·50	21	8·50	32	1·12	11·50	41
1808	6·00	65	65	90	3·25	10 00	15·00	3·50	17	6·00	25	1·00	12·00	50
1809	7 50	80	1·00	75	3·75	11·50	17·50	3·50	17	7·00	27	1·30	13·50	52
1810	8·25	1·15	1·75	87	4·00	10·00	19·00	3·00	16	8·00	24	1·00	12·50	48
1811	10·50	95	1·40	92	3·50	10·00	18·00	4·00	15	6·00	17	95	14·00	54
1812	10·75	1·00	1·08	85	4·75	12·00	16·00	3·75	11	6·00	16	95	12·50	52
1813	13·00	1 25	1·40	1·10	7·00	10·00	18·00	4·50	18	5·00	21	1·75	15·50	75
1814	14·50	1·67	2·25	1·20	7·00	11·00	22·00	5·50	27	6·50	24	2·10	18·50	85
1815	9·25	1·00	1·12	1·08	3·63	12·50	25·00	5·50	20	7·00	23	1·75	16·00	75
1816	7·37	1·00	1·00	1·08	4·75	11·50	23·00	3·75	30	20·00	24	1·70	17·50	57
1817	14·75	1·90	1·55	1·20	7·25	13·00	26·00	3·50	27	13·00	20	1·20	14·50	53
1818	10·25	1·08	1·08	95	6·75	13·50	26·50		32	12·00	26	1·20	14·00	54
1819	8·00	80	90	1·00	6·25	14·50	21·00	3·50	25	12·00	30	1·10	16·00	50
1820	5·37	60	65	67	3·50	10·00	14·50	2·75	16	7·00	26	95	10·00	34
1821	4·25	43	45	50	3·25	8·50	11·50	3·00	14	6·00	27	94	11·00	28
1822	7·00	84	78	65	3·50	7·75	13·00	3·00	18	6·50	29	90	12·50	32
1823	7·75	63	70	65	3·75	8·25	13·00	3·00	11	10·00	26	95	12·00	28
1824	6·63	48	58	60	3·75	7·00	12·00	3·00	16	10·00	19	1·00	10·00	27
1825	5·37	53	58	50	3·75	7·50	14·00	2·75	20	10·00	18	1·05	11·00	28
1826	5·25	65	75	80	3·50	8·00	12·00	2·75	13	9·00	17	1·06	10·50	28
1827	6·00	75	90	1·05	3·25	8·00	10·50	3·50	11	9·00	15	95	9·75	33
1828	5·50	55	55	70	3·75	8·25	13·00	2·62	11	6·50	15	1·05	9·25	30
1829	8·00	63	82	65	3·92	9·50	14·00	2·37	12	4·50	13	95	10·64	30
1830	5·00	55	65	50	3 00	7·75	12·00	2·08	11	6·00	12	90	9·50	25
1831	7·25	82	81	60	3·62	7·75	14·00	3·00	10	6·12	12	95	9·50	27
1832	5·62	62	85	75	3·62	8·25	13·00	2·75	11	5·50	13	80	8·40	27
1833	5·87	80	90	65	3·62	8·75	13·50	2·50	12½	5·00	13	70	10·08	32
1834	5 50	66	62	65	3·56	8·50	12·00	2·33	12¼	7·00	12	70	10·64	34
Av. Pr.	8·51	86½	98	84	4·61	10·22	16·99	3·76	20½	8·07	22	1·16	12·83	44¾

Am. Ed.]

PRICE CURRENT; a list or enumeration of the various articles of merchandise, with their prices, the duties (if any) payable thereon when imported or exported, with the drawbacks occasionally allowed upon their exportation, &c. Lists of this description are published periodically, generally once or twice a week, in most great commercial cities and towns.—(For examples, see the articles CANTON, GENOA, HAVRE, SINGAPORE, &c. in this work.)

PRIMAGE, is a certain allowance paid by the shipper or consignee of goods to the mariners and master of a vessel, for loading the same. In some places it is 1*d.* in the pound; in others 6*d.* for every pack or bale; or otherwise, according to the custom of the place.

PRINTS, impressions on paper, or some other substance, of engravings on copper, steel, wood, stone, &c., representing some particular subject or composition.

Prints, like paintings, embrace every variety of subject; and differ very widely in the manner in which they are engraved. Their prices vary according to the style of the engraving, the fineness of its execution, the goodness of the impression, its rarity, &c. The art seems to have taken its rise in the 15th century. But, as a dissertation on one of the most beautiful of the fine arts would be singularly out of place in a work of this sort, we have introduced it for the purpose merely of stating the law with respect to the copyright of prints.

This is laid down in the acts 8 Geo. 2. c. 13., 7 Geo. 3. c. 38., and 17 Geo. 3. c. 57. By these acts, the copyright of all sorts of prints, including maps and charts, is secured to the engraver, or author, for *twenty-eight* years. The last mentioned act declares that every individual who shall, within the said 28 years, engrave, etch, or work, or in any other manner copy in the whole or in part, by varying, adding to or diminishing from the main design; or shall print, reprint, or import for sale, or shall publish, sell, or otherwise dispose of any copy of any print whatever, which has been or shall be engraved, etched, drawn or designed in Great Britain, without the express consent of the proprietor thereof first obtained in writing, signed by him with his own hand, in the presence of, and attested by, two or more credible witnesses; then every such proprietor may, by a special action upon the case to be brought against the person so offending, recover such damages as a jury, on the trial of such action, or on the execution of a writ of inquiry thereon, shall give or assess, together with double costs of suit.

In questions as to the piracy of prints, the courts proceed upon the same principles that are followed in those with respect to the piracy of books.—(See BOOKS; see also *Mr. Godson's* excellent work on the *Law of Patents and Copyrights*, pp. 257—201.)

Regulations as to Importation.—Where prints or maps are contained in, and form part of a book, and

serve merely to explain or illustrate the subject of such book, they are to be deemed a part of the work, and be charged with duty, by weight, as books; but when prints or maps are bound or stitched together without letter-press, or when the letter-press is merely descriptive of the prints or maps, then they are to be charged with duty by tale, as prints or maps.—(*Min. Com. Cus.* 5th of Sept. 1823.) But if satisfactory proof be adduced, that prints or maps, although imported separately, do really form part of a work, they may be charged with the book duty by weight; but in other cases they are to be charged with duty by tale.—(*Treas. Order*, 3d of June, 1830.)

Pictures, sketches, and drawings, brought from the Continent, and accompanied by the proprietor, are to be admitted to entry free of duty, upon proof, by oath of the proprietor, that the same were wholly executed by him for his amusement, and not intended for sale in this country.—(*Treas. Order*, 5th of Aug. 1817.)

PRISAGE, or BUTLERAGE, was a right of taking 2 tons of wine from every ship importing into England 20 tons or more, which was changed by Edward I. into a duty of 2*s.* for every ton imported by merchant strangers, and called butlerage, because paid to the king's butler. The term is now fallen into disuse.—(*Blackstone.*)

PRIVATEERS, ships of war fitted out by private individuals, to annoy and plunder the public enemy. But before commencing their operations, it is indispensable that they obtain *letters of marque and reprisal* from the government whose subjects they are, authorising them to commit hostilities, and that they conform strictly to the rules laid down for the regulation of their conduct. All private individuals attacking others at sea, unless empowered by letters of marque, are to be considered pirates; and may be treated as such, either by those they attack, or by their own government.

1. *Policy of Privateering.*—The policy of this system is very questionable. It seems to be a remnant of that species of private war exercised by all individuals in early ages, but which gradually disappears as society advances. In wars carried on by land, the property of the peaceable inhabitants who take no part in the operations of the armies is uniformly protected; and it is difficult to discover any solid grounds why the same rule should not be followed at sea. Privateers rarely attack ships of war. Their object is merely to plunder and destroy merchantmen. They cause an infinite deal of mischief to individuals, and aggravate all the miseries of war, without having the slightest influence on the result of the contest. Experience has also shown that it is not possible, whatever precautions may be adopted, to prevent the greatest abuses from being perpetrated by privateers. The wish to amass plunder is the only principle by which they are actuated; and such being the case, it would be idle to suppose that they should be very scrupulous about abstaining from excesses. A system of this sort, if it be ever useful, can be so only to nations who have little trade, and who may expect to enrich themselves during war by fitting out privateers to plunder the merchant ships of their enemies. In all other cases it seems to be productive only of mischief; though it is, of course, most injurious to those states that have the greatest mercantile navy. Instead, therefore, of encouraging the practice of privateering, we think that a due regard to the rights and interests of humanity would suggest to the great powers the expediency of abolishing it altogether. A few efforts, have, indeed, been already made towards this desirable object. Thus, it was stipulated in the treaty between Sweden and the United Provinces, in 1675, that neither party should, in any future war, grant letters of marque against the other. In 1767 Russia abstained from licensing privateers: and in the treaty between the United States and Prussia, in 1785, a stipulation was inserted as to privateers, similar to that in the treaty between Sweden and the United Provinces in 1675. But nothing short of a convention and agreement to that effect amongst the great powers will be able to effect this desirable object.—(*Essai concernant les Armateurs, par Martens*, 1794.)

2. *Appointment of Privateers.*—The captain of a privateer is nominated by the owners, who may dismiss him at pleasure. The commission or letters of marque given to the owners, authorises them to attack and seize the ships of the power or powers specified therein; but they are not to look upon them as their property, or to appropriate them, or any part of them, to their own use, *till they have been legally condemned.* Besides the stimulus afforded by the hope of booty, government has been in the habit of allowing them 5*l.* for every man on board such enemy's ships of war or privateers as they may capture.—(33 *Geo.* 3. c. 66.) A privateer cruising under letters of marque against one state may, on obtaining authentic information of hostilities being commenced by her government against another, capture its ships with full advantage to herself. The king has in all cases the right to release any prize previously to its condemnation; this being an implied exception in the grant of prizes by the Crown.—(*Chitty on Commercial Law*, vol. i. c. 8.)

In some privateering adventures, the crew are engaged on the terms of no prize no pay; and, in such cases, the produce of whatsoever prizes may be taken goes half to the ship (for the owners), and half to the men, divided among them according to the articles of agreement; but when the men sail for wages, the captures belong entirely to the owners, except a small share, which is commonly stipulated to be given to the crew, over and above their wages, in order to stimulate their enterprise. Both ways of arming are regulated by the articles entered into between the owners and crews.

Privateers are forbidden from doing any thing contrary to the law of nations, as to assault an enemy in a port or haven, under the protection of any prince or republic, be he friend, ally, or neutral; for the peace of such place must be preserved inviolably.—(*Molloy, De Jure Maritimo*, book i. c. 3.)

When letters of marque are granted, it is usual, in most countries, to exact security that the regulations with respect to the conduct of privateers shall be observed. In Great Britain, a bond for 1,500*l.* must be given by responsible persons, not concerned in the ship, for all ships carrying less than 150 men, and 3,000*l.* for every ship carrying more, that they will give full satisfaction for any damage or injury they may commit at sea, contrary to the regulations under which they are to act, and to their duty as privateers.

If privateers wilfully commit any spoil, depredation, or other injury, on friendly or neutral ships, or on the ships or goods of their fellow subjects, they are to be punished, according to the crime, either with death, or otherwise; and the vessels are subject to forfeiture.

Whether a ship taken be lawful prize, or not, shall be tried in the admiralty; and no ship or cargo, or part of a ship or part of a cargo, is to be sold, or disposed of in any way, till after judgment has been obtained.

If 2 ships with letters of marque accidentally meet with a prize at sea, though only one attack and take her, yet the other, being in sight, shall have an equal share of the prize, though he afforded no assistance in the capture; because his presence may be presumed to have struck terror into the enemy, and made him yield; which perhaps he would not have done, had his conqueror been single: so that all ships that are in sight, though they cannot come up to assist in the engagement, are entitled by the *common law* to a distribution of the spoil.—(*Beawes, Lex Mercatoria*, art. *Privateers.*)

If those to whom letters of marque are granted should, instead of taking the ship and goods appertaining to that nation against which the said letters are awarded, *wilfully* take or spoil the goods of another nation in amity with us, this would amount to *piracy*; and the person so offending would, for such fault, forfeit their vessel, and the penalties in which their securities are, according to custom, bound on taking out such letters. But such penalties would not follow, unless the capture were made in a piratical manner. For if the circumstances incident to the captured vessel were such as to afford a strong presumption that she really belonged to the country against which the letters were granted, the captors would not be liable to punishment, though they might be to damages. "It being impossible," says Beawes, "always to determine an affair of this sort at sea, it is allowable to bring dubious capture into port, in order to more nice and just scrutiny and inspection; otherwise the goods of an enemy would often escape. However, to guard against unlawful seizures, the government have wisely directed sufficient caution to be given (as before-mentioned) for the due observance of the letters according to law, before they permit their issuing; and when there is a breach committed, the penalties are inflicted."—(*Lex Mercatoria*, art. *Privateers.*)

3. Regulations for the Government of Privateers, &c.—The following instructions to privateers were issued under an order in council, at the commencement of the last war with France, 16th of May, 1803:—

Art. I. *Against what, and where, Letters of Marque may act lawfully.*—It shall be lawful for the commanders of ships authorised by letters of marque and reprisals for private men-of-war, to set upon by force of arms, and subdue and take the men of war, ships and vessels, goods, wares, and merchandises, belonging to the French republic, or to any person being subjects to the French republic, or inhabitants within any of the territories of the French republic; but so that no hostility be committed, nor prize attacked, seized, or taken within the harbours of princes or states in amity with us, or in their rivers or roads, within the shot of their cannon, unless by permission of such princes or states, or their commanders or governors in chief of such places.

Art. II. *Captures to be brought into Port.*—The commanders of the ships and vessels so authorised as aforesaid, shall bring all ships, vessels, and goods, which they shall seize and take, into such port of *England*, or some other port of our dominions, as shall be most convenient for them; in order to have the same legally adjudged by our High Court of Admiralty of *England*, or before the judge of any other admiralty court, lawfully authorised, within our dominions.

Art. III. *Conduct of the Captors after the Captures is brought into Port.*—After such ships, vessels, and goods shall be taken and brought into any port, the taker, or one of his chief officers, or some other person present at the capture, shall be obliged to bring or send, as soon as possibly may be, 3 or 4 of the principal of the company (whereof the master, supercargo, mate, or boatswain, to be always 1) of every ship or vessel so brought into port, before the judge of our High Court of Admiralty of *England*, or his surrogate, or before the judge of such other admiralty court within our dominions, lawfully authorised as aforesaid, or such as shall be lawfully commissioned in that behalf, to be sworn and examined upon such interrogatories as shall tend to the discovery of the truth, concerning the interest or property of such ship or ships, vessel or vessels, and of the goods, merchandises, and other effects found therein; and the taker shall be further obliged, at the time he produceth the company to be examined, and before any monition shall be issued, to bring in and deliver into the hands of the judge of the High Court of Admiralty of England, his surrogate, or the judge of such other admiralty court within our dominions, lawfully authorised, or others commissioned as aforesaid, all such papers, passes, sea-briefs, charterparties, bills of lading, cockets, letters, and other documents and writings, as shall be delivered up or found on board any ship; the taker, or one of his chief officers, or some other person who shall be present at the capture, and saw the said papers and writings delivered up, or otherwise found on board at the time of the capture, making oath that the said papers and writings are brought and delivered in as they were received and taken, without any fraud, addition, subduction, or embezzlement whatever, or otherwise to account for the same upon oath, to the satisfaction of the court.

Art. IV. *Not to break Bulk before Judgment.*—The ships, vessels, goods, wares, merchandises, and effects, taken by virtue of letters of marque and reprisals as aforesaid, shall be kept and preserved and no part of them shall be sold, spoiled, wasted, or diminished, and the bulk thereof shall not be broken, before judgment be given in the High Court of Admiralty of *England*, or some other court of admiralty, lawfully authorised in that behalf, that the ships, goods, or merchandises are lawful prize.

Art. V. *Privateers to assist Ships in Distress.*—If any ship or vessel belonging to us or our subjects, shall be found in distress by being in fight set upon or taken by the enemy, or by reason of any other accident, the commanders, officers, and company of such merchant ships or vessels as shall have letters of marque and reprisals as aforesaid, shall use their best endeavours to give aid and succour to all such ship and ships, and shall, to the utmost of their power, labour to free the same from the enemy or any other distress.

Art. VI. *Application to the Admiralty for Letters of Marque.*—The commanders or owners of such ships and vessels, before the taking out letters of marque and reprisals, shall make application in writing, subscribed with their hands, to our high admiral of *Great Britain*, or our commissioners for executing that office for the time being, or the lieutenant or judge of the said High Court of Admiralty, or his surrogate, and shall therein set forth a particular, true, and exact description of the ship or vessel for which such letter of marque and reprisals is requested, specifying the burden of such ship or vessel, and the number and nature of the guns, and what other warlike furniture and ammunition are on board the same, to what place the ship belongs, and the name or names of the principal owner or owners of such ship or vessel, and the number of men intended to be put on board the same, and for what time they are victualled; also the names of the commanders and officers.

Art. VII. *Correspondence with the Admiralty.*—The commanders of ships and vessels having letters of marque and reprisals as aforesaid shall hold and keep, and are hereby enjoined to hold and keep, a correspondence, by all conveniences, and upon all occasions, with our high admiral of *Great Britain*, or our commissioners for executing that office for the time being, or their secretary, so as from time to time to render or give him or them, not only an account or intelligence of their captures and proceedings by virtue of such commission, but also of whatever else shall seem unto them, or be discovered and declared to them, or found out by them, or by examination of, or conference with, any marines or passengers of or in the ships or vessels taken, or by any other ways or means whatsoever, touching or concerning the designs of the enemy, or any of their fleets, ships, vessels, or parties, and of the stations, sea-ports, and places, and of their intents therein; and what ships or vessels of the enemy bound out or home, or where cruising, as they shall hear of; and of what else material in these cases may arrive at their knowledge; to the end such course may be thereon taken, and such orders given, as may be requisite.

Art. VIII. *What Colours a Privateer is to wear.*—No commander of any ship or vessel having letters of marque and reprisals as aforesaid, shall presume, as they will answer it at their peril, to wear any jack, pendant, or other ensign or colours usually borne by our ships; but, besides the colours usually borne by merchants' ships, they shall wear a red jack, with the Union jack described in the canton, at the upper corner thereof, near the staff.

Art. IX. *Not to ransom any Captures.*—No commander of any ship or vessel having a letter of marque and reprisal as aforesaid, shall ransom, or agree to ransom, of quit or set at liberty, any ship or vessel, or their cargoes, which shall be seized and taken.

Art. X. *To deliver their Prisoners to the proper Commissioners.*—All captains or commanding officers of ships having letters of marque and reprisals shall send an account of, and deliver over, what prisoners shall be taken, on board any prizes, to the commissioners appointed, or to be appointed, for the exchange of prisoners of war, or the persons appointed in the sea-port towns to take charge of prisoners; and such prisoners shall be subject only to the orders, regulations, and directions of the said commissioners; and no commander or other officer of any ship, having a letter of marque or reprisal as aforesaid, shall presume, upon any pretence whatsoever, to ransom any prisoner.

Art. XI. *Commission forfeited for acting contrary hereto.*—In case the commander of any ship, having a letter of marque and reprisal as aforesaid, shall act contrary to these instructions, or any such further instructions of which he shall have due notice, he shall forfeit his commission to all intents and purposes, and shall, together with his bail, be proceeded against according to law, and be condemned to costs and damages.

Art. XII. *Copies of Journals.*—All commanders of ships and vessels having letters of marque and reprisals shall, by every opportunity, send exact copies of their journals to the secretary of the admiralty, and proceed to the condemnation of the prizes as soon as may be, and without delay.

Art. XIII. *To observe all Orders.*—Commanders of ships and vessels having letters of marque and reprisals shall, upon due notice being given to them, observe all such other instructions and orders as we shall think fit to direct from time to time, for the better carrying on this service.

Art. XIV. *Violating these Instructions.*—All persons who shall violate these, or any other of our instructions, shall be severely punished, and also required to make full reparation to persons injured contrary to our instructions, for all damages they shall sustain by any capture, embezzlement, demurrage, or otherwise.

Art. XV. *Bail to be given.*—Before any letter of marque or reprisal for the purposes aforesaid shall issue under seal, bail shall be given with sureties, before the lieutenant and judge of our High Court of Admiralty of *England*, or his surrogate, in the sum of 3,000*l.* sterling, if the ship carries above 150 men; and if a less number, in the sum of 1,500*l.*; which bail shall be to the effect and in the form following:—

Which day time and place, personally appeared
and who,
submitting themselves to the jurisdiction of the High Court of Admiralty of *England*, obliged themselves, their heirs, executors, and administrators, unto our Sovereign Lord the King, in the sum of
pounds of lawful money of *Great Britain*, to this effect; that is to say, that whereas
is duly authorised by letters of marque and reprisals, with the ship called the
of the burden of about tons, whereof he the said
goeth master, by force of arms to attack, surprise, seize, and take, all ships and vessels, goods, wares and merchandises, chattels and effects, belonging to the French public, or to any persons being subjects of the French republic

inhabiting within any of the territories of the French republic; excepting only within the harbours or roads within shot of the cannon of princes and states in amity with his Majesty. And whereas he the said hath a copy of certain instructions, approved of and passed by his Majesty in council, as by the tenour of the said letters of marque and reprisals, and instructions thereto relating, more at large appeareth; if therefore nothing be done by the said or any of his officers, mariners, or company, contrary to the true meaning of the said instructions, and of all other instructions which may be issued in like manner hereafter, and whereof due notice shall be given him; but that such letters of marque and reprisals aforesaid, and the said instructions, shall in all particulars be well and duly observed and performed, as far as they shall the said ship, master, and company, any way concern; and if they shall give full satisfaction for any damage or injury which shall be done by them or any of them to any of his Majesty's subjects, or of foreign states in amity with his Majesty, and also shall duly and truly pay, or cause to be paid, to his Majesty, or the customers or officers appointed to receive the same for his Majesty, the usual customs due to his Majesty, of and for all ships and goods so as aforesaid taken and adjudged as prize; and moreover if the said shall not take any ship or vessel, or any goods or merchandise, belonging to the enemy, or otherwise liable to confiscation, through consent or clandestinely, or by collusion, by virtue, colour, or pretence of his said letters of marque and reprisals, that then this bail shall be void and of none effect; and unless they shall so do, they do all hereby severally consent that execution may forth against them, their heirs, executors, and administrators, goods and chattels, wheresoever the same may be found, to the value of the sum of pounds before mentioned; and in testimony of the truth thereof they have hereunto subscribed their names.

By his Majesty's command, (Signed) PELHAM.

PROMISSORY NOTES. See BANKS AND BANKING.

PROTECTION, in mercantile navigation, a privilege granted to certain descriptions of seamen, by which they are protected from impressment.—(See IMPRESSMENT.)

PRUNES AND PRUNELLOES, a species of dried plums, of which there are many varieties. The finest are imported from France, in the south of which this fruit is very abundant. The best prunes are packed in hampers or baskets made of white osiers, weighing from 6 to 10 lbs. each; the second quality in quarters, and the third in puncheons. The entries of prunes for home consumption, in 1831 and 1832, amounted, at an average, to 6,285 cwt. a year. The duty is 1*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* a cwt., being more than 50 per cent. upon the price of the inferior qualities. There cannot be a doubt that it would be more productive were it reduced to 10*s.* or 12*s.*

Prunes, the produce of Europe, may not be imported for home consumption except in British ships, or ships of the country of which they are the produce, or from which they are exported, on penalty of the forfeiture thereof and of 100*l.* by the master of the ship.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 59. §§ 2. 22.)

(PRUSSIA.—*Trade of England with Prussia.*—A superficial observer may be disposed to feel surprise that the intercourse between Great Britain and Prussia should be so very limited, as our Custom-house accounts represent it to be. In point of fact, however, these accounts apply only to that portion of our trade with Prussia which is directly carried on through her ports on the Baltic, and which is quite insignificant, compared with that which is indirectly carried on through the channels of the Elbe, the Weser, the Rhine, &c., or by way of Hamburg, Bremen, the Netherlands, &c. Corn, timber, linseed and linseed oil, iron, flax and hemp, bristles, and other raw and bulky products of the northern provinces of Prussia, are principally exported from Königsberg, Memel, Dantzic, Stettin, and the other ports of the Baltic; but her more valuable products, as the linens of Silesia, the cloths and other manufactured products of Saxony and the Rhenish provinces, the wools sold at the Breslaw and Frankfort fairs, and so forth, are all, or mostly all, exported from Hamburg, Bremen, and the ports on the Rhine and the Scheldt; while the sugar, coffee, and other colonial products, the dye-woods, cotton stuffs and yarn, hardware, earthenware, &c. supplied to her by England, are mostly all imported through the ports in question; as is the raw cotton and other raw articles furnished to her by the United States, with the greater part of the wines supplied by France, &c. But neither Hamburg, Bremen, Rotterdam, nor the Scheldt, belongs to Prussia. All of them are independent of her; and hence it is that nine tenths of the trade which we carry on with the Prussian dominions is set down in our Custom-house accounts under the head of the trade with Germany, and with the Netherlands and Belgium. There are no means by which to determine the exact portion of the aggregate amount of the exports from England to the whole of the Germanic countries, including Holland and Belgium, that falls to the share of each; but we shall not be far wrong if we suppose that they are divided proportionately to the population of the countries among which they are distributed. On this hypothesis, and taking the entire population of Germany, exclusive of Austria*, but inclusive of the Netherlands and Belgium, at 30 millions, Prussia will have about 14 of this number; so that about $\frac{14}{30}$, or $\frac{7}{15}$, of all the trade we carry on with Germany, the Netherlands, &c. must be set down to the account of Prussia. Now, at an average of the six years ending with 1835, our exports to Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, and Prussia, amounted to 7,410,183*l.* a year, $\frac{7}{15}$ths of which, or 2,881,718*l.*, may be taken as the average amount of our exports to Prussia during that period!—(*Anté*, p. 29.) This statement shows the real value of the trade with this flourishing monarchy, and the importance of keeping up and extending our intercourse with her.

Prussian Commercial League.—Next to the efforts of the Prussian government to diffuse the blessings of education, their efforts to induce a free commercial system into Germany constitute their best claim to the gratitude and esteem of their own subjects, and of the world. Germany, as every one knows, is divided into a vast number of independent, and mostly petty, states. Until a very recent period, every one of these states had its own custom-houses, and its own tariff and revenue laws; which frequently

* We say exclusive of Austria, because almost all the English products made use of in the Austrian states are imported by way of Trieste. Switzerland is supplied through Genoa.

differed very widely indeed from those of its neighbours. The internal trade of the country was, in consequence, subjected to all those vexatious and ruinous restrictions that are usually laid on the intercourse between distant and independent states. Each petty state endeavoured either to procure a revenue for itself, or to advance its own industry, by taxing or prohibiting the productions of those by which it was surrounded; and customs' officers and lines of custom houses were spread all over the country! Instead of being reciprocal and dependent, every thing was separate, independent, and hostile: the commodities admitted into Hesse were prohibited in Baden, and those prohibited in Wirtemberg were admitted into Bavaria. It is admitted on all hands that nothing has contributed so much to the growth of industry and wealth in Great Britain, as the perfect freedom of internal industry we have so long enjoyed, and that intimate correspondence among the various parts of the empire, which has rendered each the best market for the products of the other. How different would have been our present condition had each county been an independent state, jealous of those around it, and anxious to exalt itself at their expense! But, until within these few years, this was the exact condition of Germany; and, considering the extraordinary obstacles such a state of things opposes to the progress of manufactures, commerce, and civilization, the wonder is, not that they are comparatively backward in that country, but that they should be so far advanced as they really are.

But, thanks to the intelligence and perseverance of Prussia, this selfish anti-social system has been well nigh suppressed; and the most perfect freedom of commerce is now established among the great bulk of the Germanic nations. The disadvantages of the old system has long been seen and deplored by well-informed men; but so many interests have grown up under its protection, and so many deep rooted prejudices were enlisted in its favour, that its overthrow seemed to be hopeless, or, at all events, exceedingly distant. The address and resolution of the Prussian government have, however, triumphed over every obstacle. Being fully impressed with a strong sense of the many advantages that would result to Prussia and Germany from the introduction of a free system of internal intercourse, they pursued the measures necessary to bring it about with an earnestness that produced conviction, and with a determination, *coute qui coute*, to carry their point.

The first treaties in furtherance of this object were negotiated by Prussia with the principalities of Schwarzburg Sondershausen and Schwarzburg Rudolstadt, in 1818 and 1819, on the principle that there should be a perfect freedom of commerce between these countries and Prussia; that the duties on importation, exportation, and transit, in Prussia and the principalities, should be identical; that these should be charged along the frontier of the dominions of the contracting parties; and that each should participate in the produce of such duties, in proportion to its population. All the treaties subsequently entered into have been founded on this fair and equitable principle; the only exceptions to the perfect freedom of trade in all the countries comprised within the league or tariff alliance being confined, 1st, to articles constituting state monopolies, as salt and cards, in Prussia; 2d, to articles of native produce, burdened with a different rate of duty on consumption in one state from what they pay in another; and, 3d, to articles produced under patents, conferring on the patentees certain privileges in the dominions of the states granting the patents. With these exceptions, which are not very important, and are daily decreasing, the most perfect freedom of commerce exists among the allied states.

Since 1818, when the foundations of the alliance were laid, it has progressively extended, till it now comprises more than three fourths of the Germanic states, exclusive of Austria. Ducal Hesse joined the alliance in 1828, and Electoral Hesse in 1831: the kingdoms of Bavaria, Saxony, and Wirtemberg, joined it afterwards, as have Baden, Nassau, and almost all the smaller states by which it had not been previously joined, with the exception of Mecklenburg Schwerin, Mecklenburg Strelitz, Oldenburg, and Brunswick. Hanover is not included within the league.

At the commencement of 1836, the tariff alliance comprised

	German Sq. Miles.	Population.
Prussia, without Neufchatel, but inclusive of the small parcels of her territory surrounded by other states	5,157	13,800,126
Bavaria and her detached territories	1,477	4,252,813
Saxony (kingdom of)	272	1,595,168
Wirtemberg and Hohenzollern Sigmaringen	385	1,631,779
Hesse (Electoral)	182	700,327
Hesse (Duchy of) and Homburg	179	769,691
The Thuringian States	233	908,478
Baden (duchy of) and part of Hohenzollern	280	1,232,185
Nassau	83	373,601
Frankfort	4	60,000
Totals	8,252	25,324,668

Throughout the whole extent of this immense country, from Aix-la-Chapelle, on the confines of the Netherlands, eastward to Tilsit, on the confines of Russia, and from Stettin

and Dantsic southward to Switzerland and Bohemia, there is nothing to interrupt the freedom of commerce. A commodity, whether for consumption or transit, that has once passed the frontier of the league, may be subsequently conveyed, without let or hinderance, throughout its whole extent. Instead of being confined within the narrow precincts of their own territories, the products of each separate country of the alliance may now be sent to every one else; each will, in consequence, apply itself, in preference, to those departments in which it has some natural or acquired advantage; and each will have to depend for its success, not on the miserable resource of customs' regulations, but on its skill and industry. The competition thence arising will be most salutary; and, should the peace of Europe be preserved, we run little risk in saying, that all sorts of industry will make more progress among the states comprised within the tariff alliance, during the next ten years, than they have done during the previous half century.

An assembly of representatives from the allied states meet annually, to hear complaints, adjust difficulties, and make such new enactments as may seem to be required. The Prussian tariff has been adopted, with certain modifications, and is now the only one in force. The duties are received into a common treasury, and are apportioned according to the population of each of the allied states. In addition to its other advantages, the new system has reduced the cost of collecting the duties to a mere trifle, compared with its former amount; and has enabled hundreds of custom-houses, and thousands of customs' officers, to be employed in the different departments of industry.

The existing discrepancy in the weights and measures used in different parts of Germany occasions considerable inconvenience; and we are glad to observe that the equalisation of weights and measures and their reduction to a common standard in all the allied states, is declared to be one of the objects of the league.

It is also expressly provided that the tolls, or other charges in lieu thereof, shall, in all cases, whether they belong to the public, or to private individuals, be limited to the sums *required to keep the roads in a proper state of repair*; and that the tolls existing in Prussia shall be considered as the highest that are to be levied, and shall not in any case be exceeded.

It was at first supposed by many persons in this country, and the opinion is not yet entirely abandoned, that the Prussian league was in some degree directed against us, and that, at all events, it threatened to be very injurious to our trade with Germany; we do not, however, believe that there is any foundation whatever for either of these opinions. The alliance was planned, and brought to its present advanced state, in the view, and with the intention, of putting down the galling and innumerable restraints by which the intercourse of the German states with each other was formerly interrupted; and not with the intention of throwing any obstacles in the way of the trade of the alliance with foreign countries: it is, indeed, quite absurd to suppose that it should have this effect. The freedom of internal commerce will do ten times more to promote the industry and prosperity of the allied states than any other measure, or system of measures, that their governments could have adopted; and, as population increases, and the inhabitants become more industrious and wealthy, there will, no doubt, be an augmented demand for foreign products. The league is now no new thing. It was formed several years since, and has been progressively augumented; but, hitherto, it has not had the slightest influence in diminishing our intercourse with Germany; our exports to it, including Holland and Belgium, being greater at present than at any other former period! (See *ante*, p. 29.) Generally speaking the duties on imports are reasonable; at least, on all the finer descriptions of goods. It never, in fact, can be the policy of the alliance to make them oppressive; for, though certain states might erroneously suppose that their interests would be promoted by such means, others would undoubtedly be of a different opinion, and would resist any attempt to carry them beyond a reasonable amount. It is a mistake to suppose that Prussia has an overwhelming influence in the assembly. She must conciliate the other states, and carry them along with her; and this can only be done by acting on liberal principles, and with a view to the common interest of the alliance.

Besides, if any of the existing duties be exorbitant, or if any of them, that are at present moderate, should be subsequently raised to an exorbitant pitch; does any one suppose that the over-taxed articles would not be immediately smuggled into all parts of the league? We, who occupy an island, and have revenue cruisers and coast guards on all the seas and shores most accessible to the smuggler, know from experience that it is not possible to hinder over-taxed commodities from making their way, in immense quantities, into our markets. But the facilities for smuggling into the territories of the league are incomparably greater. It has a land frontier of several thousand miles; and though the whole Prussian army were employed for that purpose, it would be found that it was utterly impotent to prevent the territories of the league from being deluged with such over-taxed commodities as were in demand by the inhabitants.

It must be admitted that we have done not a little to provoke Prussia, and that we had no reason to be surprised had she manifested symptoms of irritation. She has only three

great staple articles of export—corn, timber, and wool. Now, of these, we admit only the last on any thing like fair terms; in ordinary years we entirely exclude corn, and we lay a duty of no less than 55*s.* a load on Prussian timber, while we admit the inferior timber of North America on payment of a duty of 10*s.*! Had, therefore, the Prussian tariff been levelled against us, we should have had but slender grounds for complaint; but such is not really the case. It may, indeed, be fairly inferred that, by agreeing to lower the oppressive duties on timber and corn, we might prevail on Prussia to use her influence to get the alliance duties on cotton stuffs, hardware, &c. abated; but, till we consent to moderate our duties on the articles in question, it is not to be supposed that Prussia will pay much attention to the exceptions we may take to any of the duties.

We are glad to be able to strengthen our view of the influence and objects of the Prussian commercial league, by laying before the reader the following extract from a work printed by order of the House of Representatives of the American States. "Prussia," it is there said, "has evidently taken the lead in this wise and important measure, to which the smallest states have gradually acceded. The whole commercial policy of this enlightened power has been distinguished for its liberality, being founded on the desire of placing her intercourse with all nations on the basis of reciprocity. The commercial league of Germany is intended to carry out this principle, and not to be directed, as has been supposed, against any particular nation; as it is well known that Prussia, in her treaties with maritime powers, has invariably adopted the system of reciprocity, to whatever extent those with whom she negotiates are willing to carry it. The establishment of this community of commercial interest forms a part of the fundamental compact, by which the new Germanic confederation was created, after the dissolution of the Confederation of the Rhine; to be subsequently adopted, however, at the option of such of the co-states as should choose to accede to it. Its effects cannot fail to promote commerce, and every other branch of industry, as it removes all those vexatious and endless difficulties which previously obstructed the freedom of intercourse. Navigable rivers and highways are now open to the unfettered use of the German people; the customs' and toll houses, with their officers and barriers, have been withdrawn from the interior, and the whole intercommunication resembles that of the subjects of any one of the states within its own territories. To these benefits may be added the assured prospect of improvement in the finances of the great and smaller sovereignties composing the league. This advantage will grow out of the simplicity or unity of the new system, a saving in the cost of collection, and from the increased consumption which renovated industry and progressive prosperity so invariably cause."—(*Digest of Customs' Laws*, vol. iii. p. 227.)

Prussian Duty on Cottons.—The duty on cotton goods being that in which we are most interested, we have taken some pains to ascertain its real influence. This duty amounts (see *post*) to 50 rix-dollars per Prussian quintal on all cotton goods, without respect to quality or price; and, taking the quintal at 113 lbs. avoirdupois, and the rix-dollar at 3*s.*, it is equal to 7*l.* 10*s.* per 113 lbs. Now, we have learned from statements obligingly furnished to us by a large wholesale house in the city,—

1st. That a quintal (113 lbs.) of *coarse shirting*, worth 4*d.* per yard, contains 497 yards; it consequently costs 8*l.* 6*s.*, and the Prussian or tariff alliance duty of 7*l.* 10*s.* on it is, therefore, equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of 90 per cent.

2d. That a quintal of *superior shirting*, worth 1*s.* a yard, contains 457·65 yards; it consequently costs 22*l.* 17*s.* 7*d.*, making the Prussian duty on such goods 32½ per cent.

3d. That a quintal of *printed cottons*, worth 1*s.* 6*d.* a yard, contains 633 yards; it consequently costs 47*l.* 9*s.*, making the Prussian duty on such goods 15½ per cent.

4th. That a quintal of *fine printed cottons*, worth 2*s.* 6*d.* a yard, contains 678 yards; it consequently costs 84*l.* 15*s.*, making the Prussian duty on such goods 8¾ per cent.

It is plain, therefore, that, except on the coarsest and cheapest species of goods, the Prussian or tariff alliance duty is very far from being oppressive; and, as the value of coarse goods is principally dependent on the cost of the raw cotton and the wages of labour, being but little influenced by superiority of machinery, it is not very probable that we should export them largely to Prussia, even were the duty materially reduced. No doubt, however, it would conduce greatly to the interests of the people comprised within the league, though we do not know that it would sensibly affect us, were the duty assessed on an *ad valorem* principle, and made 20 or 30 per cent. on all goods; and we should think that this might be done without any material difficulty.

The subjoined translation of the more important clauses of the customs' treaty of the 22d of March, 1833, sets the principles on which the alliance is founded in the clearest point of view.

Customs' Treaty, concluded the 22d March, 1833, between the Kings of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, on the one part; and the King of Prussia, the Prince Electoral Co-regent of Hesse, and the Grand Duke of Hesse, on the other part.

I. The existing customs' unions between the states above named shall henceforth constitute a general Union, united by a common system of customs and commerce, embracing all the countries comprised therein.

II. In this general re-union are also comprised the states which have already adhered, either for the

whole of their territory, or for a part, to the system of customs and commerce of one or other of the contracting states, having regard to their special relations, founded upon the conventions of adhesion concluded with the states which have intervened.

III. But there will remain excluded from the general re-union the parts separated from the countries of the contracting states which, because of their situation, are not yet included either in the re-union of the Bavarian or Wirtemberg customs, nor in those of Prussia and Hesse. Nevertheless, the regulations now in force to facilitate the commerce of these territories with the principal country will be maintained. Other favours of this kind cannot be accorded without the unanimous consent of the contracting states.

IV. In the contracting states there shall be established uniform laws for the duties of import, of export, and of transit, except such modifications as, without injury to the common object, result necessarily from the particular legislation of each contracting state, or from local interests.

Thus, exceptions and modifications to the common tariff may take place, as to rates of duties of entry, of export, and of transit, (according as the direction of the routes of commerce may require,) established upon articles recognised as of minor consequence in extensive commerce; provided always, that these modifications be preferred by separate states, and that they shall not be disadvantageous to the general interests of the Association.

The administration of the duties of import, export, and transit, as well as the organisation of the authorities which are engaged therein, in all the states of the Association, shall be established upon a uniform footing, having regard, however, to the particular relations existing in those countries. The laws and ordinances which, according to those principles, ought to be uniform in the contracting states, and which are to constitute the law of the tariff and the regulations of the customs, shall be considered as an integral part of the present treaty, and shall be published at the same time.

V. There can neither be alterations, or additions, or exceptions, to the acts above mentioned (Art. IV.), but by the unanimous consent of all the contracting parties, and in the form required for the making (*confectipn*) of the laws.

The preceding applies equally to all the ordinances which would establish, for the administration of the customs, dispositions entirely different.

VI. Liberty of commerce, and community of the receipts of customs, as regulated by the following article, will commence simultaneously with the operation of the present treaty.

VII. Dating from this epoch, all duties of import, of export, and of transit shall cease on the common frontier of the Bavaro-Wirtemberg and Prusso-Hessian customs' re-unions. All articles of free commerce in one of those territories may be imported freely and without duty into all the others, except only as follows:

A. Articles monopolized by the states (playing cards and salt) conformably to Articles IX. and X.

B. Indigenous articles, now subject in the interior of the contracting states to different duties, or excepted from all duty in one state, and imported into another, and which according to Article II. ought consequently to be subject to a duty of compensation.

Finally, C. Articles which, without prejudice to patent rights or conceded privileges in one of the contracting states, cannot be imitated or imported, and ought consequently to be excluded during the existence of the patents and privileges from importation into the state which has granted them.

VIII. Notwithstanding the freedom of commerce, and the exemption from duties, established by Article VII., the transport of articles of commerce, subject by the common tariff to duties of import or export on the frontiers of the Association, cannot take place between the states of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, and the states of Prussia, of Electoral Hesse, or of Grand Ducal Hesse, and reciprocally, except by the public roads, military routes, and navigable rivers. For this purpose there shall be established, on the interior frontiers, common *bureaus* of verification, to which the conductors of merchandise must, on exhibiting their licences, declare what are the articles which they are employed to transport from one territory to another.

This disposition will not be applicable to retail commerce in raw materials, nor to the petty commerce of the frontiers or the fairs, nor to the effects of travellers. Process for the verification of merchandise will go no farther than is required for security of the duties of compensation.—(See Art. VII. B.)

XIII. The contracting parties reciprocally renew their adhesion to the principle, that the tolls, or other charges in lieu thereof, shall only be sufficient to defray the expense of maintenance and repairs of the roads; whether the tax be for the state or for private rights. It was thus that has been approved the supplement to the duty of customs, created in Bavaria and Wirtemberg, to replace the duty of tolls, paving, causeways, bridges, and generally of all analogous taxes.

The tolls, &c. now existing in Prussia, according to the general tariff of 1828, shall be considered as the *highest rates*, and shall not be exceeded in any of the contracting states.

In accordance with the principle thus announced, the individual duty for closing the gates of cities shall be abolished; as also the duty of paving of causeways, where it still exists; and all paved roads will be considered as causeways of a description liable only to the duty on causeways established by the general tariff.

XIV. The contracting governments agree to unite their efforts to introduce into the states a uniform system of coins, weights, and measures; to commence immediately the requisite negotiations for this purpose; and, subsequently, to direct their efforts towards the adoption of uniform custom-house weights.

The contracting states, in the impossibility of establishing this uniformity before this treaty goes into operation, agree, for facilitating the forwarding of merchandise where it has not already been done, to revise their tariff as to weights and measures, assuming for a basis the tariffs of the other contracting states. They will cause such modifications to be published, for the government of the public and of their custom-house *bureaus*.

The common tariff (Art. IV.) shall be divided into two principal divisions, according to the system of weights, measures, and monies of Bavaria, and that of Prussia.

The declaration of the weights and measures of articles subject to duty shall, in Prussia, be according to Prussian weights and measures; in Bavaria and Wirtemberg, according to those of Bavaria; and in the two Hesses, according to the weights and measures there legally established.

In expediting custom-house acts, the quantity of merchandise must be expressed according to the two principal divisions of the common tariff.

Until the contracting states agree upon a system of common money, the payment of duties in each state shall be made in the same currency as is in use for payment of its other taxes.

But, from the present time, the gold and silver coins of all the contracting states, with the exception of small money (*kleidemunze*), shall be received in all the *bureaus* of receipt of the Association; and for this purpose, tables of value shall be published.

XV. The duties of navigation upon the rivers, comprising therein those which apply to vessels, shall always be mutually acquitted according to the acts of the Congress of Vienna, or of special conventions, upon all the rivers to which these regulations apply, unless other determinations be adopted in this respect.

The contracting states agree to enter, without delay, into negotiations for that which particularly regards the navigation upon the Rhine and the neighbouring streams, in order to effect an arrange-

ment by which the import, export, and transit of the productions of all the states of the Union upon said streams shall be, if not absolutely free, at least relieved as far as possible from duties of navigation, under the reserve of charges of reconnoissance.

All the advantages granted by one state of the Union to its subjects, in the exercise of the navigation upon said streams, shall extend equally to the navigation of the other associated states.

Upon the other streams to which neither the acts of the Congress of Vienna, nor any other treaties apply, the duties of navigation shall be according to the special regulations of the governments interested. Nevertheless, the subjects of the contracting states, their merchandise and vessels, shall, throughout, be treated on those streams with perfect equality.

XVI. Dating from the day on which the general custom-house regulations of the Union shall come into operation, the duties of public stores (*étapes*), and of trans-shipments (*umschlagrechte*), which still exists in the territories belonging to the Association, shall cease, no one shall be liable to forced delay, nor to the discharging and storage of his merchandise, except in cases authorised by the common regulations of the customs or navigation.

XVII. No duties shall be claimed for canals, locks, bridges, ferries, cranes, weighing and storage; and the establishments destined to facilitate commerce shall not be allowed rent, except when actually used. Charges cannot be increased; and the subjects of the other contracting states shall be on a perfect equality with the subjects of the country having those establishments.

If the establishments for weighing, and cranes are only used by the custom-houses, no charge shall be made, if the articles have been previously weighed at a custom-house.

XVIII. The contracting states engage to continue their common efforts for the encouragement of industry by the adoption of uniform regulations, so that the subjects of each state may enjoy, as extensively as possible, the privilege of seeking work and occupation in every other state.

From the coming into operation of the present treaty, the subjects of any one of the contracting states, trading or seeking employ in the territory of any other of those states, shall not be subject to any impost which does not equally affect the native similarly employed. Manufacturers and merchants who are only making purchases for their trade, or travellers who have not goods with them, but simply patterns for the purpose of soliciting commissions, shall not, when thus employed, have any duty to pay in another state, if authorised to carry on such commerce in the state where they have their domicile; or if employed in the service of native manufacturers or merchants.

When trading in the markets and fairs, or when they are selling the produce of the soil and fabrics, in any one of the states of the Association, the subjects of the other contracting states shall be treated in all respects as subjects of the same states.

XIX. The seaports of Prussia shall be open for commerce to all the subjects of the states of the Union, on payment of the same duties as are paid by Prussian subjects, and the consuls of the several states in the seaports or places of the foreign commerce, shall be bound, in cases of need, to assist with their advice and support the subjects of the other contracting states.

XX. To protect against contraband their common custom-house system, and to insure the regular payment of the duty of consumption in the interior, the contracting states have concluded a reciprocal cartel, which shall be enforced as soon as possible, but, at the farthest, at the same time with the present treaty.

XXI. The community of receipts of the contracting states, stipulated by the present treaty, shall comprehend the product of duties of entry, of export, and of transit, in the Prussian states, the kingdoms of Bavaria, and Wirtemberg, the Electorate, and the Grand Duchy of Hesse, comprising therein those countries which have down to the present time acceded to the custom-house system of the contracting states.

The following are excluded from the community of receipts, and remain preserved for the particular benefit of the respective governments:—

1. The imposts collected in the interior of each state on indigenous products, comprising therein the compensatory duties reserved in Article XI.

2. The toll on rivers, to which are applicable the regulations of the acts of the Congress of Vienna, or special conventions. (Article XV.)

3. Duties of paving, of causeways, of bridges, of ferries, of canals, of locks and ports, charges of weighing and storage, as well as similar receipts, whatever may be their name.

4. The fines and confiscations which, beyond the part allowed to informers, remain the property of each government throughout its territory.

XXII. The produce of the duties received into the common treasury shall be divided among the states of the Association, in proportion to the population which may be found in the Union, subject to deduction, 1st, of the expenses specified in Article XXX.; 2d, of the restitution of erroneous receipts; 3d, of the restoration of duties and diminutions made in consequence of special common conventions.

The population of every state which has entered or may enter into the Association, by treaty with one or other of the contracting states, under the engagement made by the latter, to make an annual contribution, for the participation of the former to the common revenue of the customs, shall be added to the population of the states which make this contribution.

There shall be made every three years, dating from a period to be hereafter fixed, an exact enumeration of the population of the associated states; the states shall reciprocally communicate the results thereof.

XXIII. All restitutions of duties not authorised by the legislation of the customs, shall remain charged to the treasury of the government which shall have granted it.

Conventions, hereafter to be concluded, will regulate in what cases similar restitutions may be accorded.

XXIV. In conformity with the object of this association of customs tending to facilitate a freer and more natural commercial intercourse, the favours accorded for the payment of custom-house duties at certain places in which fairs are held, especially the privileges of abatement (*rabat privilegien*), cannot be extended to those states of the Association where they do not exist; on the contrary, they shall be restricted and abolished as far as possible, regard being had to the means of subsistence of the places heretofore favoured, and to the commercial relations which they have with foreigners; but others can, on no account, be granted without the general consent of the contracting parties.

XXXIII. There shall every year, on the 1st day of June, be an assembly of plenipotentiaries of the governments of the Union empowered generally to deliberate; and each state may send thither a duly authorised representative.

The plenipotentiaries will choose from among themselves a president, who, however, shall have no pre-eminence over the other members.

The first assembly shall be held at Munich.

At the close of each annual assembly, the place of next meeting will be determined, having reference to the nature of those subjects which will then come under discussion.

XXXIV. The assembly of plenipotentiaries will have under its consideration the following subjects:—

A. To consider the complaints which may have arisen in any of the states of the Association, concerning the execution of the general treaty, of special conventions, of the law, and of custom-house

regulations; also of the tariff, when these shall not have been adjusted during the year by correspondence between the different ministers.

B. The definitive reparation among the states of the Union of the total common receipts, based upon the observations made by the superior authorities, and verified by the central *bureau*, as may be rendered necessary by the common interest.

C. To deliberate upon propositions and suggestions made by the governments for the perfection of the administration.

D. Discussions upon alterations demanded by any of the contracting states, in the laws, tariffs, and custom-house regulations, as well as in the organisation of the administration, and in general upon the development and perfection of the general system of customs and commerce.

XXXV. If, in the course of the year, when the plenipotentiaries are not in session, extraordinary incidents should occur, which require prompt decision on the part of the states of the Union, the contracting parties will consult upon these through their diplomatic agents, or they will order an extra sitting of their plenipotentiaries.

Royal Tariff of the Prussian States, and of the German Customs' Union.

To be in force from the 1st January, 1840, to the 31st December, 1842.

I. *Articles not liable to any Duty.*

Trees for transplantation, and vines; bee-hives, with live bees; blood of slaughtered cattle, both in a liquid and dry state; gas of brandy (hogwarsh); animal and other sorts of manure; eggs; clay and ore, not specifically charged with duty, as bolus, pumicestone, bloodstone, brownstone, plaster, yellow clay, &c.; agricultural produce, and cattle of an estate separated by the frontier; fresh fish and crabs; grass, ... der, and hay; fresh garden produce,—as, flowers, vegetables, succory (not dried), potatoes and turnips, eatable roots, &c.; poultry, and small game of every kind; potters' ore (alquifoux); gold and silver, coined, in bars and fragments excluding foreign small coin of silver; furniture and effects, worn clothes and linen, tools that have been used by individuals settling in the country; also, by particular permission, new clothes, linen, and effects, if they belong to persons settling in the country through marriage; wood (both for fuel and timber), if transported by land and not destined for shipping; copse wood and brooms, and willow for baskets; travellers' and seamen's clothes and linen, and travellers' carriages, waggons, and boats for transporting persons and goods, furniture of vessels, and provisions used for travelling; instruments, and patterns carried by travellers for their own use only; peat and tan for fuel; milk; fresh fruit; paper chippings and written papers (deeds, waste paper, &c.); seeds of forest trees, shave grass, reeds for roofing, &c.; refuse wood; stones, hewn and rough, chalk, slate, tiles and bricks, ... and grindstones transported by land, and not destined for shipping; straw, chaff, cut straw; all kinds of animals for which no duty is mentioned in the tariff; turf and charcoal; husks of grain and grapes.

II. *Articles which are liable to Duty on Importation or Exportation.*

Fifteen silver groschen, or half a dollar, is the general duty on importation for one quintal (hundred weight) Prussian gross weight; and no further tax on consumption is levied in the country, nor that when the article is exported.

Exceptions, however, occur with all articles, which either, according to the preceding regulations, are entirely exempt from duty, or, according to the following sections, are liable to duty; as—

Articles subject to a higher or lower import duty than half a dollar for one quintal; or,

Articles subject to a duty on exportation.

The following are those articles on which the affixed duties are levied:—

[We subjoin a note of the duties imposed on some of the principal articles of import.*]

Names of the Articles.	Weight or Number.	Duty on Importation. R. Dol.	Duty on Importation. Gros.	Duty on Exportation. R. Dol.	Duty on Exportation. Gros.	Reduction for Tare on the Quintal, gross Weight.
	Qtl.					
Beer of all sorts	1	2	15			
Brandy, rum, and arrack	1	8	.	.		(25 lbs. in boxes, 18 in baskets, 7 lbs. in double casks.
Cocoa, ground, chocolate, and chocolate succory	.	11	.	.	.	(22 lbs. in barrels and cases, 14 lbs. in baskets, 7 lbs. in bags.
Cacao	1	6	20	.	.	(14 lbs. barrels of oak and other hard woods, 10 lbs. barrels of soft wood, and in baskets, 4 lbs. bags.
Coffee and coffee succory						
Cheese	1	8	20	.	.	(12 lbs. in casks.
Coal	1	.	1½			
Cotton and cotton goods:—						
Raw cotton	1	Free	.	.	15	
Cotton yarn, white, untwisted yarn, & wadding	1	2	.	.	.	(18 lbs. in barrels and boxes, 7 lbs. in bales.
Doubled, twisted thread (thread, knitting yarn), and all sorts of dyed yarn and bleaching yarn	1	8	.	.	.	
Cotton stuffs, and cotton and linen goods, without any admixture of silk and wool; stockings, lace, buttons, and fancy articles; tissues, and galoons of tinsel and cotton, or cotton and linen, *without* any admixture of silk; wool, iron, glass, wood, leather, brass, steel, & other materials	1	60	.	.	.	(20 lbs. in barrels and chests, 8 lbs. in bales.
Copper and brass:—						
Brass and copper in pigs, crude or black copper, pure (or rose) copper, old pieces of copper and brass, as also filings of copper and brass, bell metal, copper, and other small coin for melting (the latter on especial permission), may be imported on paying the general importation duty.	Qtl.					
Wrought, rolled, and cast copper and brass, for utensils, &c.; also copper kettles as they came from under the hammer, brass plates, common and plated wire, with polished, rolled, and plated tables, and plates	1	6	.	.	.	(10 lbs. barrels and chests, 6 lbs. in baskets, 4 lbs. in bales.
Manufactured goods; as, kettles, pans, &c. &c.; all other articles of copper and brass, candlesticks, bells, brass work for harness, &c., pins, if they are not combined with the precious metals; also painted japanned copper and brass wares	1	10	.	.	.	(15 lbs. in chests, 6 lbs. in baskets, 4 lbs. in bales.
Fancy articles (Birmingham ware, *quincaillerie*), manufactured wholly or partly of gold, silver, platina, similar or other admixtures of precious metals, inlaid with gold or silver bronze (plated), mother of pearl, coral and precious stones; articles in connection with alabaster, amber, ivory, whalebone, plaster of Paris, glass, wood, horn, bone, conque, varnish, leather, marble, Turkish tobacco, pipe clay, base metals, tortoiseshell and false stones, &c. &c.; perfumes, cases for instruments, &c., watches, clocks, and pendulums, lustres of bronze, plated with gold or silver; superfine wares of metals japanned, or pasteboard (papier maché), umbrellas, parasols, fans, artificial flowers, plumes of feathers, locks, periwigs, &c. &c. In fine, all kinds of	1	60	.	.	.	(50 lbs. in casks and chests.

Names of the Articles.

of fancy wares (quincaillerie), unless otherwise specified, with articles ... of cotton, linen, silk, wool, which are connected with iron, glass, wood, leather, brass, or steel; for instance, caps of cloth, and other stuffs, combined with leather, buttons, tassels, &c. &c.

Glass and articles of glass—

Green bottle glass

Note.—When loosely packed, 54 cubic feet are assumed as 1 quintal.

White bottle glass, cut or with cut bottoms (Hutten-...), brims, and table glass, without distinction of colour

Coloured glass, gilt, painted, &c., with all kinds of massive and cast glass, drops for chandeliers, knobs, beads, and enamels

Looking glasses, with or without quicksilver:—

Cast; if the piece do not measure more than 1 square foot

Blown; if the piece do not measure more than 2 square feet, like table glass

Cast; if the piece measures

144 to 288 sq. inches ... sq. in. sq.m.

576 to 576

576 — 1,000

1,000 — 1,400

1,400 — 1,800

1,800

Glass wares connected with common metals and other materials not woven; also looking glasses of every kind

Gunpowder

Hardware:—

Common cast articles; as, stoves, plates, railings, &c.

Common goods made of cast iron, zinc, and steel, iron plates, steel, and iron wire connected with wood; goods of the same description which are tinned but not polished; as, axes, sword blades, files, hammers, latches, hinges, screws, flint combs, coffee roasters and mills, chains, machines of iron, nails, pins, shovels, locks, locks and rings (not polished), vices, scythes, sickles, chisels, horse combs, steeple clocks, scissors, balance beams, toys, &c. &c.

Fine hardware, whether made entirely of fine cast iron, fine polished iron or steel, or from these combined with wood, horn, bone, leather, copper, tin, (polished), brass, and other common metals, as, fine cast iron wares, cutlery, needles and pins, scissors, edged tools, swords, &c.; as also japanned iron wares, and all kinds of fire arms

Herrings

Horses

Iron and steel:—

Bar and bolt iron, not manufactured, and iron ore of every kind; old iron, iron filings, hammerings, &c.

Note.—Iron ore is exempted from exportation duty in the western province

* The Prussian dollar, of 30 silver groschen, is equal to about 2s. 11 1-2d. sterling; but in estimating duties it is usually taken at 3s. The quintal or centner of 110 lbs. is equal to 113,381 lbs. avoirdupois.

Prussian Tariff—*continued.*

Names of the Articles.	Weight or Number.	Duty on Importation. R. Dol.	Gros.	Duty on Exportation. R. Dol.	Gros.	Reduction for Tare on the Quintal, gross Weight.
of fancy wares (quincaillerie), unless otherwise specified, with articles }	Qtl.					
spun of cotton, linen, silk, wool, which are connected with iron, glass, wood, leather, brass, or steel; for instance, caps of cloth, and other stuffs, combined with leather, buttons, tassels, &c. &c.						
Glass and articles of glass—						
Green bottle glass	1	1				
Note.—When loosely packed, 5½ cubic feet are estimated as 1 quintal.						
White bottle glass, cut or with cut buttons (Hohlmandel), brims, and table glass, without distinction of colour	1	3				25 lbs. in casks and chests, 14 lbs. in baskets.
Coloured glass, gilt, painted, &c., with all kinds of massive and cast glass, drops for chandeliers, knobs, beads, and enamels	1	-	-	-	-	
Looking glasses, with or without quicksilver:—						
Cost; if the piece do not measure more than 1 square foot	1	6	-	-	-	6 in chests.
Measure; if the piece do not measure more than 2 square feet, like table glass	-	3	-	-	-	18 in chests.
Cost; if the pieces measure 144 to 288 sq. inches	1	3	-	-	-	
sq. sq. sq.	Pc.					
289 to 576	1	1				
577 — 1,000	1	3				
1,001 — 1,600	1	8				
1,601 — 1,800	1	20				
1,801 — 1,900	1	30				
Glass wares connected with common metals and other materials not woven; also looking glasses of every kind	Qtl. 1	10	-	-	-	20 lbs. in casks and chests, 14 in baskets.
Gunpowder	1	2	-	-	-	14 lbs. in casks.
Hardwares:—						
Common cut articles; as, screws, plates, railings, &c.	1	1				
Common goods made of cast iron, iron, and steel, iron plates, steel, and iron wire connected with wood; goods of the same description which are turned but not polished; as, axes, sword blades, files, hammers, hatchets, hinges, screws, flax combs, coffee roasters and mills, chains, machines of iron, nails, pans, shovels, locks, buckles and rings (not polished), vices, scythes, sickles, chisels, horse combs, steeple clocks, scissors, tobacco boxes, traps, &c. &c.	1	6	-	-	-	10 lbs. in casks and chests, 6 in baskets, 4 in bales.
Fine hardware, whether made entirely of fine cast iron, fine polished iron or steel, or from these combined with wood, horn, bone, leather, copper, tin, (polished), brass, and other common metals, as, fine cast iron wares, cutlery, needles and pins, scissors, edged tools, swords, &c.; as also japanned iron wares, and all kinds of fire arms	1	60	-	-	-	20 lbs. in casks and chests, 10 in baskets, 9 in bales.
Herrings	Ton. 1					
Horns	Pc. 1					
Iron and steel:—						
Bar and bolt iron, not manufactured, and iron ore of every kind; old iron, iron filings, hammer slags, &c.	Qtl. 1	Free	-	-	7½	
Note.—Iron ore is exempted from exportation duty in the western province						

Names of the Articles.	Weight or Number.	Duty on Importation. R. Dol.	Gros.	Duty on Exportation. R. Dol.	Gros.	Reduction for Tare on the Quintal, gross Weight.
Cast iron; as, bar, scrolled, slat, rolled, or hammered, hoop, locks, &c. &c.; as also blistered and soldering steel, cast and refined steel, also rails for railways	Qtl. 1	1				
Exceptions:—						
Unmanufactured steel, imported exclusively from the Russian frontiers to the mouth of the Vistula, is subject only to the general importation duty.						
Hammered iron, which has been manufactured into finer sorts under the stretch and cut works, as also black iron sheeting and iron plates	1	3	-	-	-	11 in casks and chests, 7 in baskets, 4 in bales.
White iron sheeting, as also iron wire, anchors, and anchor chains	1	4				
Lead:—						
Lead, unwrought, in blocks	1	-	7½			
Coarse articles of lead, as, kettles, pipes, shot, plates, &c. &c.	Qtl. 1	2	-	-	-	7 in casks and chests.
Fine articles of lead; as, toys, &c. wholly or partly of lead; also japanned articles of lead	1	10	-	-	-	28 in casks and chests, 14 in baskets.
Molasses	1	5	-	-	-	12 lbs. in barrels.
Paper and articles of pasteboard:—						
Grey blotting and packing paper, general importation duty is paid.						
Flimsy or thin printing paper, coarse white and coloured) packing paper, and pasteboard	1	1				
All other sorts of paper	1	5	-	-	-	18 lbs. in chests, 7 lbs. in bales.
Note.—Paper which is lithographed, printed, or ruled (to be used in this state for accounts, labels, invoices, &c. &c.) belongs to those sorts of papers mentioned above.						
Paper tapestry	1	10	-	-	-	18 in chests, 14 in baskets, 7 lbs. in bales.
Bookbinders' work of paper and pasteboard, also coarse japanned wares out of such prime materials (matters)	1	10	-	-	-	18 in chests, 14 in baskets, 7 in bales.
Pepper, pimento, saffron, vanilla, cinnamon	1	6	20	-	-	20 lbs. in chests, 18 lbs. in barrels 14 baskets, and 4 bales.
Potters' clay and potters' wares:—						
Potters' clay for china manufactures	1	Free	-	-	15	
Common potters' floor stones and crucibles	1	-	10	-	-	
(Single) coloured or white crockery ware, earthen pipes	1	5	-	-	-	35 lbs. in chests, 28 lbs. in baskets.
Painted, printed, gilded or silvered crockery ware	1	10	-	-	-	
White china	1	10	-	-	-	
Coloured china, and also white, with coloured stripes, painted or gilded	1	25	-	-	-	35 in chests, 14 in baskets.
Crockery and other earthenware, and white china and enamel, connected with the baser metals	1	10	-	-	-	25 lbs. in chests, 14 lbs. in baskets.
The same connected with gold, silver, platina, similar and other admixtures of fine metals, as also all other china wares combined with fine or common metals	1	60	-	-	-	32 lbs. in chests, 13 lbs. in baskets.
Silk and silk goods:—						
Dyed and white or floret silk (twisted and untwisted), also thread of raw silk	Qtl. 1	8	-	-	-	18 in chests, 10 in bales.

Prussian Tariff—*continued.*

Names of the Articles.	Weight or Number.	Duty on Importation. R. Dol.	Duty on Importation. Gros.	Duty on Exportation. R. Dol.	Duty on Exportation. Gros.	Reduction for Tare on the Quintal, gross Weight.
Silk stuffs and stockings, cloth shawls, ribands, lace, blonde lace, gauze, buttons, &c., needlework, and milliners' articles; woven silk and galoon, mixed with metal thread, unconnected with iron, glass, wood, leather, brass, or steel; finally, all the above wares made of floret silk, (bourre de soie) or silk	Lbs. 1	1	·	·	·	22 in chests, 12 in bales.
All the above articles mixed with other woven materials exclusive of silk; as, wool, or other hair of animals, cotton, and linen	1	15	·	·	·	22 in chests, 12 in bales.
Tea	Qu. 1	11	·	·	·	23 lbs. in chests.
Sugar						14 lbs. in oaken barrels, 10 lbs. in other ditto, 13 lbs. in chests.
Refined and brown sugar	1	10	·	·	·	7 lbs. in bales 8 lbs. in baskets, 14 lbs. in oaken casks, 10 lbs. in casks of soft wood.
Raw sugar for inland sugar houses, under control of the proper officers	1	5	·	·	·	16 lbs. in chests of 8 quintals and above, 13 lbs. in chests under 8 quintals.
Raw sugar, and farina and sugar meal	·	9	·	·	·	

Names of the Articles.	Weight or Number.	Duty on Importation. R. Dol.	Duty on Importation. Gros.	Duty on Exportation. R. Dol.	Duty on Exportation. Gros.	Reduction for Tare on the Quintal, gross Weight.
Tin and articles of tin—	Qu.					
Coarse tin wares; as, dishes, plates, spoons, kettles, pots, and other vessels, pipes, and plates	1	2	·	·	·	11 in chests, 7 in baskets.
Fine and japanned tin wares, toys, &c. &c.	1	10	·	·	·	22 in chests, 14 in baskets.
Note.—Tin in blocks, and old tin, pays the general importation duty.						
Tobacco leaves	1	5	15	·	·	12 lbs. in casks, 10 lbs. in baskets, 7 lbs. in bales.
Manufactured	1	11	·	·	·	16 lbs. in barrels, 13 in baskets, 9 in bales.
Wool and woollen goods—						
Raw sheep's wool	1	Free	·	2		
White threefold or manifold twisted woollen and camel yarn, and all other sorts of dyed yarn	1	·	·	·	·	17 lbs. in casks and chests, 7 lbs. in bales.
Woollen stuffs and hose, &c., cloths, shawls, handkerchiefs, and felt goods; fringe, and button manufactures, not connected with iron, glass, wood, leather, brass, or steel; further, the same sort of articles manufactured from the hair or wool of other animals; finally, wares of the above description made in connection with other woven materials, exclusive of silk	1	30	·	·	·	30 lbs. in chests, 7 lbs. in bales.
Carpets of wool and other animals' hair, mixed with linen	1	20	·	·	·	30 lbs. in chests, 7 lbs. in bales.
Note.—Oil cloths made of horse hair pay the general importation duty.						

N. B.—The duty on wheat, beans, and peas imported into Prussia from Poland by the Vistula and the Niemen, and exported by Danzic, &c., has recently been raised to 3 silver grns. per scheffel; do. on rye, barley, and oats, 2 silver do. Formerly it was only half as much. This increase of duty, intended to operate as a retaliation on Russia, shows pretty conclusively that in commercial affairs Russian influence does not go for much in Prussia.—*Sup.*)

PRUSSIAN BLUE, or PRUSSIATE OF IRON (Ger. *Berlinerblau*; Fr. *Bleu de Prusse*; It. *Azurro Prussiano*; Sp. *Azul de Prussia*; Rus. *Lasor Bezhinskoja*), a beautiful deep blue powder, accidently discovered at Berlin in 1710. It is of considerable importance in the arts, being extensively used by painters; it is manufactured in this country. Many attempts have been made to render Prussian blue available for the dyeing of broad cloths, but without much success. The difficulty is to diffuse the colour equally over the surface; for, from its extraordinary vivacity and lustre, the slightest inequalities strike and offend the eye. Prussian blue resists the air and sun extremely well; but it cannot be used in the dyeing of cottons, or any sort of stuff that is to be washed with soap, as the alkali contained in the soap readily dissolves and separates the colouring matter.—(*Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. pp. 60—94.)

Blue is a favourite colour with the Chinese, and in 1810-11, the imports of Prussian blue into Canton from England amounted to 1,899 piculs, or 253,200 lbs. But, for some years past, the Chinese have not imported a single pound weight. The cause of the cessation of the trade deserves to be mentioned. A common Chinese sailor, who came to England in an East Indiaman, having frequented a manufactory where the drug was prepared, learned the art of making it; and on his return to China he established a similar work there, with such success that the whole empire is now amply supplied with native Prussian blue! The West has derived many important arts from the East; but we incline to think that this is the first well authenticated instance of any art having ever been carried from the West to the East, by a native of the latter. But, in all that respects industry, ingenuity, and invention, the Chinese are incomparably superior to every other people to the east of the Indus.

PUBLICANS, are persons authorised by licence to retail beer, spirits, or wines. Under the term publicans are comprised innkeepers, hotel keepers, alehouse keepers, keepers of wine vaults, &c. An inn differs from an alehouse in this,—that the former is a place intended for the lodging as well as the entertainment of guests, whereas the latter is intended for their entertainment only. If, however, ale or beer be commonly sold in an inn, as is almost invariably the case, it is also an alehouse; and if travellers be furnished with beds, lodged, and entertained in an alehouse, it also is an inn. It is not material to the character of an innkeeper that he should have any sign over his door; it is sufficient that he makes it his business to entertain passengers and travellers, providing them with lodgings and other accommodations.

1. *Licensing of Publicans.*—The provisions with respect to the licensing of public houses are embodied in the 9 Geo. 4. c. 61., of which we subjoin an abstract.

General Meetings.—There shall be annually holden in county divisions, cities, and towns, a special session of justices, to be called the "*General Annual Licensing Meeting*," for the purpose of granting licenses to persons keeping or about to keep inns, alehouses, &c.; such meetings to be held, in Middlesex and Surrey, within the first 10 days of the month of March; and in every other place between the 24th of August and the 14th of September, both inclusive.

Notice of General Meeting.—Within every division, 21 days before the annual licensing meeting, a petty session of justices to be held, a majority of whom shall fix the day and hour for holding the general annual meeting; and shall direct a precept to the high constable, requiring him, within 5 days after the receipt thereof, to order the petty constables to affix on the door of the church, chapel, or other public place, a notice of such annual meeting, and give or leave at the dwelling-house of each justice acting for the division, and of each person keeping an inn, or who shall have given notice of his intention to apply for a licence to keep an inn, a copy of such notice.—§ 2.

The annual meeting may be adjourned, but the adjourned meeting is not to be held on any of the 5 days immediately following the adjournment; and every adjournment to be held in the month of March in Middlesex and Surrey, and in August or September in every other county.—§ 3.

Sessions for Transfer of Licences.—At the annual meeting, justices to appoint not less than 4 nor more than 8 special sessions, to be held as near as possible at equidistant periods, for the purpose of transferring licences.—§ 4.

Notice of holding any adjourned meetings, or of any special session for the transfer of licences, to be given in the same manner and to the same parties as mentioned above.—§ 5.

Justices disqualified.—No justice who is a common brewer, distiller, maker of malt for sale, or retailer of malt or any excisable liquor, shall act or be present at any annual licensing meeting, or adjournment, or special session for transferring licences, or take part in the adjudication upon any application for a licence, or upon an appeal; nor in the case of licensing any house of which he is owner, or agent of the owner, or of any house belonging to any common brewer, maker of malt, &c. to whom he shall be, either by blood or marriage, the father, son, or brother, or with whom he shall be partner in *any other trade*; in any of these cases knowingly or wilfully to act, subjects to a penalty of 10*l*. But disqualification does not arise, where a justice, having no *beneficial interest* in a house licensed or about to be licensed, holds only the legal estate therein as trustee or for a charitable or public use.—§ 6.

When in any liberty, city, or town, 2 qualified justices do not attend, the county justices may act.—§ 7.

The power given to county justices not to extend to the Cinque Ports.—§ 8.

Questions respecting licenses to be determined, and licences to be signed, by a majority of the justices present.—§ 9.

Application for a Licence.—Persons intending to apply for a licence to a house *not before licensed*, to affix a notice on the door of such house, and on the door of the church or chapel of the parish, and, where there shall be no church or chapel, on some other conspicuous place within the parish, on *three several Sundays*, between the 1st of January and the last day of February in the counties of Middlesex and Surrey, and elsewhere between the 1st of June and the last day of July, at some time between the hours of 10 in the forenoon and 4 in the afternoon, and shall serve a copy of such notice upon one of the overseers of the poor, and upon one of the constables or peace-officers of the parish, within the month of February in the counties of Middlesex and Surrey, and elsewhere within the month of July, previous to the annual meeting; such notice to be in a legible hand, or printed, and signed by the applicant. The application must state the Christian and surname of the party, with the place of his residence, and his trade or calling during the 6 months previous to the serving of the notice.—§ 10.

Notice to transfer Licence.—Persons desirous of transferring a licence, and intending to apply to the next special sessions, must, 5 days previously, serve a notice upon one of the overseers and one of the constables of the parish. Persons hindered, by sickness or other reasonable cause, from attending the licensing meeting, and proof thereof adduced *on oath*, may authorise another person to attend for them.—§ 12.

Licences to be in force, in **Middlesex and Surrey**, from the 5th of April; elsewhere from the 10th of October, for one whole year.—§ 13.

Provision for Death or other Contingency.—If any person licensed shall die, or become incapable, or a bankrupt or insolvent, or if he, or his heirs, executors, or assigns, shall remove, or neglect to apply for confirmation of his licence, the justices at special session may grant a licence to the heirs, executors, or assigns of such party, or to any new tenant; or if any man's house should be, or be about to be, pulled down for a public purpose, or rendered, by fire, tempest, or other unforeseen calamity, unfit for the purposes of an inn, licence may be granted to the occupier, if he intend to open another house as an inn. Such transferred licences shall continue only in force to the end of the year; and in case of removal to another house, notice must be given on some Sunday, within 6 weeks before the special session, in the manner and form before described.—§ 14.

Fees for Licences.—The clerk of the justices may lawfully receive from every person to whom a license is granted, for trouble and *all expenses*, the following sums:—

	s.	*d.*
For constable or officer serving notices	1	0
For clerk of justices for licence	5	0
For precept to the high constable, and notices to be delivered by the petty constable	1	6

Clerks demanding or receiving more than these fees, to forfeit 5*l*.—§ 15.

No sheriff's officer, or officer executing the process of any court of justice, qualified to hold or use any licence under this act.—§ 16.

Excise Licences.—No licence for the sale of any excisable liquors, to be consumed on the premises, shall be granted by the excise to any person, unless such person be previously licensed under this act.—§ 17.

Penalties.—Any person *without a licence* selling or exchanging, or for valuable consideration disposing of, any excisable liquor by retail, to be consumed in his premises; or *with a licence*, and so selling in premises other than those specified in his licence, shall, for every offence, on conviction before 1 justice, forfeit not exceeding 20*l*. nor less than 5*l*. with costs; but the penalty not to attach in case of death or insolvency, and sale by the heir or assigns, prior to the next special sessions.—§ 18.

Every licensed person shall, if required, sell all liquors by retail (except in quantities less than a ½ pint) by the gallon, quart, pint, or ½ pint, sized according to the standard; in default thereof to forfeit the illegal measure, and pay not exceeding 40*s*. with costs, to be recovered within 30 days before 1 justice.—§ 19.

In case of riot, or probability of riot, houses licensed in the neighbourhood may be closed by the order of 2 justices.—§ 20

Any person convicted of a *first offence*, before 2 justices, against the tenour of his licence, to forfeit not exceeding 5*l*. with costs; guilty of a *second offence* within 3 years of the first, to forfeit not exceed-

ing 10*l.* with costs; and guilty of a *third offence* within 3 years, to forfeit not exceeding 50*l.* with costs: or the case in the last instance may be adjourned to the petty sessions, or the annual meeting, or the general quarter sessions; and if the offender is found guilty by a *jury*, he may be fined 100*l.*, or adjudged to forfeit his licence, or both, and rendered incapable of selling any excisable liquor in any inn kept by him for 3 *years*.—§ 21.

Proceedings at the session in certain cases, may be directed by the justices to be carried on by the constable, and the expenses defrayed out of the county rates.—§ 22.

Witnesses refusing to attend without lawful excuse, may be fined not more than 10*l.*—§ 23.

Penalties against justices may be sued for in any court in Westminster; a moiety to the king, and a moiety to the party suing.—§ 24.

Penalties adjudged by justices may be recovered by distress, or the party imprisoned 1, 2, or 6 calendar months.—§ 25.

The next sections relate to the mode of prosecuting actions.

The last section of the act bears that the word "inn" shall include any inn, alehouse, or victualling house, in which is sold by retail any excisable liquor, to be drunk or consumed on the premises; and the words excisable liquor are to include all such fermented or spirituous liquors as may now or hereafter be charged with any customs or excise duty.—§ 37.

The act does not affect the two Universities, nor the privileges of the Vintners' Company, except those freemen who have obtained their freedom by redemption; and it does not alter the time of granting licences in the city of London.

Innkeepers are bound, by the tenour of their licence, to keep order in their houses, to prevent drunkenness and disorderly conduct, and gambling. If they fail in these respects, they forfeit their licence, and subject themselves to the penalties mentioned before. Allowing seditious or immoral books to be read in an inn, also forfeits the licence, and subjects to penalties.—(59 *Geo.* 3. c. 79 § 31.)

2. *Duties of Innkeepers.*—Innkeepers are bound by law to receive guests coming to their inns, and they are also bound *to protect their property when there.* They have no option to reject or refuse a guest, unless their house be already full, or they are able to assign some other reasonable and sufficient cause. Neither can they impose unreasonable terms on such as frequent their houses: if they do, they may be fined, and their inns indicted and suppressed. An innkeeper who has stables attached to his premises, may be compelled to receive a horse, although the owner does not reside in his house; but he cannot, under such circumstances, be compelled to receive a trunk or other dead thing. By the annual Mutiny Act, constables, or, in their default, justices of the peace, may quarter soldiers in inns, livery-stables, alehouses, &c., under the conditions and regulations set forth in the statute.

3. *Responsibilities of Innkeepers.*—An innkeeper is bound to keep safely whatever things his guests deposit in his inn, or in his custody as innkeeper; and he is civilly liable for all losses, except those arising from *irresistible force*, or what is usually termed the act of God and the king's enemies. "It has long been holden," says Sir William Jones, "that an innkeeper is bound to restitution, if the trunks or parcels of his guests, committed to him either personally or through one of his agents, be damaged in his inn, or stolen out of it by any person whatever (except the servant or companion of the guest); nor shall he discharge himself of this responsibility by a refusal to take any care of the goods, because there are suspected persons in the house, for whose conduct he cannot be answerable: it is otherwise, indeed, if he refuse admission to a traveller because he really has no room for him, and the traveller, nevertheless, insist upon entering, and place his baggage in a chamber without the keeper's consent. Add to this, that if he fail to provide honest servants and honest inmates, according to the confidence reposed in him by the public, his negligence in that respect is highly culpable, and he ought to answer civilly for their acts, even if they should rob the guests that sleep in their chambers. Rigorous as this law may seem, and hard as it may actually be in one or two particular instances, it is founded on the great principle of public utility, to which all private considerations ought to yield; for travellers, who must be numerous in a rich and commercial country, are obliged to rely almost implicitly on the good faith of innholders, whose education and morals are usually none of the best, and who might have frequent opportunities of associating with ruffians or pilferers, while the injured guest could never obtain legal proof of such combinations, or even of their negligence, if no actual fraud had been committed by them. Hence the prætor declared, according to Pomponius, his desire of securing the public from the dishonesty of such men; and by his edict gave an action against them, if the goods of travellers or passengers were lost or hurt by any means except by inevitable accident (*damno fatali*): and Ulpian intimates, that even this severity could not restrain them from knavish practices or suspicious neglect."—(*Essay on the Law of Bailments*, 2d ed. pp. 95, 96.)

Even if an innkeeper bid the guest take the key of his chamber and lock the door, telling him that he cannot undertake the charge of the goods, still, if they be stolen, he is held to be responsible. In all such cases it is not competent to the innkeeper to plead that he took *ordinary* care, or that the *force* which occasioned the loss was truly irresistible. A guest is not bound to deliver the goods in special custody to the innkeeper, nor, indeed, to acquaint him that he has any. If he have property with him, or about his person, the innkeeper must be responsible for it without communication. But the innkeeper may require that the property of his guest be delivered into his hands, in order that it may be put into a secure place: and if the guest refuse, the innkeeper is not liable for its safety. The guest exonerates the innkeeper from liability, when he takes upon himself the exclusive custody of the goods, so as to deprive the innkeeper of having any care over them.

thus, if a guest demand and have exclusive possession of a room, for the purpose of a shop or warehouse, he exonerates the landlord from any loss he may sustain in the property which he keeps in that apartment; but it is otherwise if he have not *the exclusive possession of the room*. The innkeeper cannot oblige the guest to take charge of his own goods; for this, in effect, would be a refusal to admit them into the inn. And it is no excuse for an innkeeper to say that he delivered the key of the chamber whence the property was stolen to the guest, who left the door open. A case of this sort occurred very recently, at Brighton.—A lady having left the door of her bed-room, of which she had the key, open for a few minutes, 50*l.* were abstracted from her reticule. The innkeeper contended that the plaintiff, by selecting particular apartments, and taking the key, had exonerated him from his liability. The jury found for the plaintiff; and upon a motion for a new trial, Lord Tenterden said,—"By the common law of this country, and also by the civil law, the principle of the liabilities of innkeepers was founded on two reasons; first, to compel the landlord to take care that no improper company was admitted into his house; and, secondly, to prevent collusion.—The principle, as stated in the civil law, was this—'*Ne, quisquam putet graviter hoc in eos constitum esse; nam est in iporum arbitrio nequem recipiunt; et nisi hoc esset statutum, materia daretur cum furibus, adversus eos quos recipiunt, coeundi: cum ne nunc quidem abstinent hujusmodi fraudibus.*' It was true that, in the present state of society, it was very difficult to prevent the intrusion of improper company into inns. But still the principle was such as he had stated it to be, and it would be dangerous to relax it; and he did not think that the taking rooms in this way was sufficient to discharge the landlord. Then, as to the objection that the cases did not extend to money, it was clear that money was as much within the principle as goods, and that no substantial distinction could be made. He was therefore of opinion that the verdict was right."—Rule refused.

A landlord may exempt himself from liability, if he can show that the loss was occasioned by the misconduct of the guest; as, if his goods are stolen by his own servant or companion.

It has been decided that a man is a guest at an inn, if he leave his horse at it, though he has not gone into it himself. If a man come to an inn, and make a contract for lodging for a set time, and do not eat or drink there, he is no guest, but a lodger, and, as such, not under the innkeeper's protection; but if he eat and drink, or pay for his diet there, it is otherwise. Any innkeeper or alehouse keeper, knowingly receiving and harbouring any person convicted of an offence against the revenue laws, for which he has been in prison, or for which he has fled, shall forfeit 100*l.* and have no licence for the future.

4. *Remedy of an Innkeeper against his Guest.*—An innkeeper may, without any agreement to that effect, detain the person of a guest who has eaten in his house, until payment; and he may do the same by the horses in his stable.

An innkeeper is not entitled to recover for spirits supplied to his guests, of the value of 20*s.* and upwards, unless supplied or contracted for at one time.—(23 *Geo.* 2. c. 40.)

By the custom of London and Exeter, if a man commit a horse to an hostler, and the expense of his keep become equivalent to his price, the hostler may appropriate the horse to himself upon the appraisement of four of his neighbours, or may have him sold. But innkeepers in other parts of the country have no power to sell horses detained by them.

A horse committed to an innkeeper cannot be detained as a security for the board of his master.

It is enacted by 11 & 12 Will. 3. c. 15. that innkeepers, alehouse keepers, &c. refusing to specify in an account the number of pints or quarts for which demand is made, or selling in unmarked measures, shall have no power to detain any goods or other things belonging to the person from whom demand is made, but shall be left to their action for recovery of the same.

[In the United States, the system of licensing public houses has been adopted by the several states. For the details of the system the reader may consult *Purdon's Digest of the Laws of Pennsylvania*, the *Revised Statutes of New York*, &c.—*Am. Ed.*]

PUMICE STONE (Ger. *Bimstein*; Fr. *Pierre ponce*; It. *Pietra pomice*; Sp. *Piedra pomez*; Lat. *Pumex*,) a light, spongy, vitreous stone, found usually in the neighbourhood of volcanoes. It is used for polishing metals and marble, and smoothing the surface of wood and pasteboard. It is said to form a good glaze for pottery. The lighter pumice stones swim on water, their specific gravity not exceeding ·914. The island of Lipari, in the Mediterranean, is chiefly formed of pumice stone, and may be said to be the magazine whence all Europe is supplied with this useful article. There are several species of pumice stones; but those only that are light and spongy are exported. The price varies in the London market from 8*l.* to 10*l.* a ton.

PUTCHOCK. An article of this name is imported in considerable quantities from the north-west coast of India into China, and is regularly quoted in the Canton price currents. It is the root of a plant that grows abundantly in Sinde. When burned, it yields a fine smoke, and a grateful and diffusive smell. The Chinese beat it into a fine powder, which they burn as incense in the temples of their gods.—(*Hamilton's New Account of the East Indies*, vol. i. p. 126.)

Q.

QUARANTINE, a regulation by which all communication with individuals, ships, c goods, arriving from places infected with the plague, or other contagious disease, or sup posed to be peculiarly liable to such infection, is interdicted for a certain definite period. Th term is derived from the Italian *quaranta*, forty; it being generally supposed, that if no infectious disease break out within 40 days, or 6 weeks, no danger need be apprehende from the free admission of the individuals under quarantine. During this period, too, a the goods, clothes, &c. that might be supposed capable of retaining the infection, are su jected to a process of purification. This last operation, which is a most important part o the quarantine system, is performed either on board ship, or in establishments denomina *lazarettos*.—(See *post*.)

Policy of Quarantine.—The regulations as to quarantine are entirely precautionary: th have their origin in the belief that various diseases, but especially the plague, are con gious; and supposing such to be the case, the propriety of subjecting those coming from infected or suspected place to a probation is obvious. Indeed, no government could, un the belief in question be proved to be ill founded, abstain from enforcing precautiona measures, without rendering itself liable to the charge of having culpably neglected one its most important duties,—that of providing, by every means in its power, for the saf of its subjects. Latterly, however, it has been contended that the plague is never import that it is always indigenous; originating in some peculiar state of the atmosphere, or something peculiar in the condition of the people; and that, consequently, quarantine reg lations merely impose a heavy burden on commerce, without being of any real utility. though there does not seem to be any reason for doubting that infectious diseases have o ginated in the way described, the fact that they have, in innumerable instances, been carri from one place to another, seems to be established beyond all question. Even if the evi as to the importation of infectious diseases were less decisive than it is, or the opinion medical men more divided, it would not warrant the repeal of the restraints on the in course with suspected ports. This is not a matter in which innovations should be ma introduced; wherever there is doubt, it is proper to incline to the side of security. In so cases, perhaps, quarantine regulations have been carried to a needless extent; but they h more frequently, we believe, been improperly relaxed.

Institution of Quarantine.—The notion that the plague was imported from the E into Europe, seems to have prevailed in all ages. But it would appear that the Venet were the first who endeavoured to guard against its introduction from abroad, by oblig ships and individuals from suspected places to perform quarantine. The regulations on this subject were, it is most probable, issued for the first time in 1484.—(*Beckmann, Hi of Invent.* vol. ii. art. *Quarantine*.) They have since been gradually adopted in ev other country. Their introduction into England was comparatively late. Various pre tive regulations had been previously enacted; but quarantine was not systematic enforced till after the alarm occasioned by the dreadful plague at Marseilles in 1720. regulations then adopted were made conformably to the suggestions of the celebrated Mead, in his famous "Discourse concerning Pestilential Contagion."

Lazarettos or Pest-houses, are establishments constructed to facilitate the perform of quarantine, and particularly the purification of goods. They have usually a port which ships from a suspected place may anchor; and, when perfect, are provided lodgings for the crews and passengers, where the sick may be separated from the heal and with warehouses where the goods may be deposited; all intercourse between lazaretto and the surrounding country being, of course, interdicted, except by permis of the authorities. The lazarettos at Leghorn, Genoa, and Marseilles, are the most c plete of any in Europe. The facilities they afford to navigation are very great; for ships from suspected places may discharge their cargoes in the lazaretto, they are detained longer than they would be were there no quarantine regulations. The g deposited in the lazaretto, being inspected by the proper officers, and purified, are admitted into the market.

Compared with these, the quarantine establishments in this country are excee defective. There is not, even in the Thames, a lazaretto where a ship from a susp place may discharge her cargo and refit: so that she is detained frequently at an enor expense, during the whole period of quarantine; while, if she have perishable goo board, they may be very materially injured. It is singular that nothing should ha have been done to obviate such grievances. The complaints as to the oppressiven quarantine regulations are almost wholly occasioned by the want of proper facilities performance. Were these afforded, the burdens it imposes would be rendered com tively light; and we do not know that many more important services could be rend

the commerce of the country, than by constructing a proper quarantine establishment on the Thames.

Bills of Health.—The period of quarantine varies, as respects ships coming from the same place, according to the nature of their bills of health. These are documents, or certificates, signed by the consul or other competent authority in the place which the ship has left, describing its state of health at the time of her clearing out. A *clean* bill imports that, at the time of her sailing, no infectious disorder was known to exist. A *suspected*, or, as it is more commonly called, a *touched* bill, imports that rumours were afloat of an infectious disorder, but that it had not actually appeared. A *foul* bill, or the *absence of clean bills*, import that the place was infected when the vessel sailed.—(See BILLS OF HEALTH.) The duration of the quarantine is regulated by the nature of these instruments. They seem to have been first issued in the Mediterranean ports in 1665, and are obviously of great importance.

Quarantine Regulations.—The existing quarantine regulations are embodied in the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 78., and the different orders in council issued under its authority. These orders specify what vessels are liable to perform quarantine; the places at which it is to be performed; and the various formalities and regulations to be complied with. The publication in the *Gazette* of any order in council with respect to quarantine is deemed sufficient notice to all concerned; and no excuse of ignorance is admitted for any infringement of the regulations. To obviate, as far as possible, any foundation for such plea, it is ordered that vessels clearing out for any port or place with respect to which there shall be at the time any order in council subjecting vessels from it to quarantine, are *to be furnished* with an abstract of the quarantine regulations; and are *to furnish themselves* with quarantine signal flags and lanterns, and with materials and instruments for fumigating and immersing goods. The following are the clauses in the act as to signals:—

Every commander, master, or other person having the charge of any vessel liable to quarantine, shall, at all times, when such vessel shall meet with any other vessel at sea, or shall be within 3 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom, or the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, hoist a signal to denote that his vessel is liable to quarantine; which signal shall in the day time, if the vessel shall have a clean bill of health, be a large yellow flag, of 6 breadths of bunting, at the main topmast-head; and if such vessel shall not have a clean bill of health, then a like yellow flag, with a circular mark or ball, entirely black, in the middle thereof, whose diameter shall be equal to 2 breadths of bunting; and in the night time, the signal shall in both cases be a large signal lantern with a light therein (such as is used on board his Majesty's ships of war), at the same mast-head: and such commander, master, or other person, shall keep such signals hoisted during such time as the said vessel shall continue within sight of such other vessels, or within 2 leagues of the said coast or islands and while so in sight, or within such distance, until such vessel so liable to quarantine shall have arrived at the port where it is to perform quarantine, and until it shall have been legally discharged from the performance thereof; on failure whereof, such commander, master, or other person, shall forfeit 100*l.*—§ 8.

Every commander, master, or other person having the charge of any vessel on board whereof the plague or other infectious disease highly dangerous to the health of his Majesty's subjects shall actually be, shall at all times, when such vessel shall meet with any other vessel at sea, or shall be within 3 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom, or the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, hoist a signal, to denote that a vessel has the plague or other infectious disease; which signal shall be in the day time a flag of yellow and black, borne quarterly, of 8 breadths of bunting, at the main topmast-head; and in the night time, the signal shall be 2 large signal lanterns, commonly used on board ships of war, one over the other, at the same mast head: and such commander, master, or other person, shall keep such signal hoisted during such time as the said vessel shall continue within sight of such other vessel, or within 2 leagues of the coast or islands, aforesaid, while so in sight, or within such distance, until such vessel shall have arrived at the port where it is to perform quarantine, and until it shall have been legally discharged from the performance thereof; on failure thereof, such commander, master, or other person, shall forfeit 100*l.*—§ 9.

If any commander, master, or other person, knowing that the same is not liable to the performance of quarantine, shall hoist such signal, by day or night, such commander or other person shall forfeit 500*l.*—§ 10.

But, instead of printing the act, and the various orders in council that have grown out of it, it will be sufficient to lay the following abstract of them before the reader. This abstract has been prepared by the Custom-house; and contains a distinct summary of the various rules and regulations to be complied with.

ABSTRACT OF QUARANTINE REGULATIONS.

It is in the first place to be observed, that all persons are presumed to know, and are bound to take notice, not only of the quarantine regulations established by act of parliament (as they are of any other public act), but likewise of every order in council made for the performance of quarantine, and published in the *London Gazette*: and as it is easily in their power to inform themselves of such regulations, and particular care is taken by this and other means to promulgate such of them as apply to their respective situations, *previously to their being actually put under quarantine*, when they will receive directions for their guidance from the quarantine officers, no plea of ignorance will be admitted as an excuse for any neglect, breach, or violation thereof; but for the sake of example, and for the security of the public health, the pains, penalties, and punishments of the law will be enforced with the utmost severity.

Duty of Commanders and Masters of Vessels.

Upon arrival off the coast of the United Kingdom, or the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man,

To deliver to the pilot who shall go on board, a written paper, containing a true account of the name of the place at which his ship loaded, and of all the places at which he touched on the homeward voyage. Neglecting or refusing to deliver such papers, or making any false representation or wilful omission therein, subjects him to a penalty of 500*l.*

Upon entering or attempting to enter any port, and being spoke by any quarantine officers,
To give a true answer in writing or otherwise, and upon oath or not upon oath (according as he shall be required), to the preliminary questions put to him by such quarantine officer, for the purpose of ascertaining whether his vessel is or is not liable to quarantine. Neglecting or refusing to bring his vessel to as soon as it can be done with safety, in obedience to the requisition of the quarantine officer, subjects him to the penalty of 200*l*.
Refusing to answer such questions, or giving any false answer thereto (if not upon oath), subjects him to the penalty of 200*l*.
If upon oath, to the punishment for wilful and corrupt perjury.
If any infectious disease shall appear on board, the master is to repair to such place as his Majesty shall direct, and make known his case to the officer of customs, and he is to remain at that place until directions are given by the Lords of the Privy Council. He is not to permit any of the crew or passengers on board to go on shore, and he, his crew, and passengers, are to obey such directions as are received from the Lords of the Privy Council.
Not acting in conformity to the regulations herein directed, or acting in disobedience to such directions as shall be received from the Privy Council, he incurs the penalty of 100*l*.
If informed by the pilot that his vessel has become liable to quarantine, by reason of any proclamation made subsequent to his departure, to hoist and keep hoisted a like signal, under the same penalty of 100*l*.
To give to the pilot coming on board a written paper containing a true account of the different articles composing his cargo. Neglecting or refusing to do so, or making a false representation or wilful omission, subjects him to a penalty of 50*l*.
Masters of vessels liable to quarantine, and other persons on board them or having communication with them, are to repair to the appointed quarantine stations, and may be compelled to do so by force.
The master of any vessel having disease on board, on meeting with any other vessel at sea, or within 2 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom, or the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, is to hoist a signal to denote that his vessel has such disease on board, and is to keep such signal hoisted during such time as he shall continue within sight of such vessels, or within 2 leagues of the coast or islands aforesaid, while so in sight or within such distance, until the vessel shall arrive at the port where she is to perform quarantine, and until she shall be legally discharged from the performance thereof. Failing herein, the master incurs the penalty of 100*l*.
If he shall refuse or omit to disclose the circumstances of such infection prevailing either at the place at which he has been, or on board his vessel, in his answers to the preliminary questions put to him by the quarantine officer, or if he shall wilfully omit to hoist, and to keep hoisted, the proper quarantine signal to denote that his ship is liable to quarantine, he incurs the penalty of 500*l*.
Upon attempting to enter any port, which is not the port at which he ought to perform quarantine, he may be compelled to desist therefrom, in order that he may proceed to the proper quarantine port, by guns being fired upon the ship, or any other kind of force being used that may be necessary for the attainment of that object.
Quitting or knowingly suffering any seamen or passenger to quit his ship, by going on shore, or going on board any other vessel or boat, before discharged from quarantine, or,
Not repairing to the proper quarantine station within a convenient time after due notice given, incurs a penalty of 100*l*.
To repair in all cases to the proper quarantine port, as herein-after stated in the Appendix, according as he shall or shall not be furnished with a clean bill of health, and according to the port or place to which he shall be bound, as herein stated.
But if through ignorance, or by stress of weather, damage, loss, or accidents of the seas, he shall have passed the proper quarantine port, he may (having a clean bill of health on board, and upon giving satisfactory proof thereof upon oath, and by the oath of the pilot, if any on board, and that the same was not wilfully or intentionally done or occasioned) be permitted to proceed to any other quarantine port, in the discretion of the quarantine officer, keeping the proper quarantine signal hoisted during the whole time.
Upon his arrival at the proper quarantine port, to give true answers upon oath to all the quarantine questions, and to make oath to the truth of his log-book, and the times at which the entries were therein made: failing herein, he incurs the penalty of wilful and corrupt perjury.
He is also to repair to the particular station which shall be appointed by the quarantine officer for the said ship or vessel.
To deliver up to the quarantine officer his bill of health, manifest, log-book, and journal.
Wilfully refusing or neglecting so to do, subjects him to a penalty of 100*l*.
If not bound to any port of the United Kingdom, or the islands aforesaid, and attempting to enter any port thereof (except to wait for orders, or in consequence of stress of weather or accidents of the seas), he shall give satisfactory proof thereof to the quarantine officers, and give true answers upon oath to the preliminary questions, and strictly conform to all such directions as he shall receive from the quarantine officer, touching his continuance at such port, or departure from thence, or repairing to any other; and also with respect to all other quarantine regulations; in default of which, he may be compelled to proceed to sea by any means or by any kind of force that shall be necessary for that purpose.
Having performed quarantine in any foreign lazaret, the vessel is to be put under quarantine at some of the ports herein-after appointed, until the master shall produce to the quarantine officer the proper documents in proof thereof; upon production whereof the said vessel shall not be obliged to perform quarantine, but shall remain at such station until released by order in council.
Unshipping, or moving in order to unship, any goods from on board any vessel liable to quarantine, subjects to a penalty of 500*l*.
Clandestinely conveying, or secreting or concealing for the purpose of conveying, any letter, goods, or other articles, from any vessel actually performing quarantine, subjects to a penalty of 100*l*.
Note.—Every commander or master of any vessel clearing out or about to sail for any port or place in the Mediterranean, or in the West Barbary on the Atlantic Ocean, or for any port or place respecting which there shall at the time be any order of his Majesty in council in force, subjecting vessels coming from thence to quarantine, is to receive from the principal officer of the customs at such port or place, this printed Abstract of the Quarantine Regulations, which such commander or master is to cause to be affixed on some convenient and conspicuous part of his said vessel, and to remain so affixed until his return with his said vessel to some port or place in the United Kingdom or the islands aforesaid.
And every such commander and master is likewise to provide and take on board 1 at least of each of the proper quarantine signal flags and lanterns, and likewise materials and instruments for fumigation, and immersion, and to keep the same on board, to be used upon his return to the United Kingdom or the islands aforesaid.

Duty of Pilots.

Pilots are strictly to observe the following directions:—
To receive an account in writing from every commander or master of any vessel coming from

foreign parts, of the places at which his vessel loaded, and at which he touched on his said homeward voyage.

To give notice to such commander or master of any proclamation, or order in council, made after the departure of such vessel from the United Kingdom or the islands aforesaid, and then in force, by which vessels coming from any place mentioned in such account shall be liable to quarantine. Neglecting or omitting to give such notice subjects them to a penalty of 100*l.*

To give a like notice of any proclamation then in force, by which vessels having on board any of the articles mentioned in the master's account shall be liable to quarantine. Neglecting or omitting to give such notice subjects them to penalty of 100*l.*

To remain on board in the same manner as any of the officers, crew, or passengers, and not to quit the said vessel before or after the arrival, either by going on shore, or by going on board any other vessel or boat with intent to go on shore, until she is regularly discharged from quarantine; and they may be compelled by any persons whatsoever, and by any kind of necessary force, to return on board the same. If they offend herein they incur a penalty of 300*l.* and 6 months' imprisonment.

Not to bring any such vessel into any port or place other than the port or place appointed for the reception of vessels so liable to quarantine, as stated in the Appendix, unless compelled by stress of weather, adverse winds, or accidents of the seas, of which the pilot, as well as the commander or master of the vessel, is to give satisfactory proof upon oath. If they offend herein they incur a penalty of 300*l.*

To bring the ship to, as soon as it can be done with safety in obedience to the requisition of the quarantine officer. Failing herein subjects them to a penalty of 100*l.*

Duty of other Persons.

When any infectious disease actually appears on board any vessel, all persons on board are to obey the direction of the privy council, under a penalty of 100*l.*

Not to quit such vessel, either by going on shore, or by going on board any other vessel or boat with intent to go on shore, until regularly discharged from quarantine; and if they quit the ship they may be compelled by any person whatsoever, and by any kind of necessary force, to return on board the same; and are also liable to a penalty [illegible] and 6 months' imprisonment.

Whether liable to quarantine, or actually performing quarantine, or having had any intercourse or communication with any such persons so [illegible] or under quarantine, all persons are to obey all such orders as they shall receive from the quarantine officer, and to repair to the lazaret, vessel, or place appointed for the performance of quarantine. Wilfully refusing or neglecting to repair forthwith, when required so to do by such officers, or escaping from or out of such lazaret, vessel, or place, may be compelled to repair or return thereto by any kind of necessary force, and are subject to a penalty of 20*l.*

Landing or unshipping, or moving in order to the landing or unshipping, of any goods, packets, packages, baggage, wearing apparel, books, letters, or any other articles whatever, from vessels liable to quarantine, are liable to a penalty of 500*l.*

Clandestinely conveying, or secreting or concealing for the purpose of conveying, any goods, letters, or other articles as aforesaid, from any vessel actually performing quarantine, or from the lazaret or other place where such goods or other articles shall be performing quarantine, are liable to a penalty of 100*l.*

Having quitted or come on shore from any vessel liable to or under quarantine, or having escaped from any lazaret or other place appointed in that behalf, may be seized and apprehended by any constable or other peace officer, or by any other person whatever, and carried before a justice of the peace, who may grant his warrant for conveying such person to the vessel, lazaret, or other place from which he shall have escaped, or for confining him in any place of safe custody (not being a public gaol) until directions can be obtained from the privy council.

Knowingly and wilfully forging or counterfeiting, interlining, erasing, or altering, or procuring to be forged, &c., any certificate directed by any order in council touching quarantine, or publishing the same as true, or uttering any such certificate with intent to obtain the effect of a true certificate, knowing its contents to be false, are guilty of felony.

What Vessels are liable to Quarantine.

All vessels (as well ships of war as all others) with or without clean bills of health, coming—

From or having touched at any place in the Mediterranean, or the West Barbary on the Atlantic ocean.

From any other place from which his Majesty shall from time to time adjudge it probable (and shall so declare by proclamation or order in council) that the plague, or any other infectious disease or distemper highly dangerous to the health of his Majesty's subjects, may be brought.

Note.—They are considered as liable to quarantine from the time of their leaving any of the said places.

All vessels having communication with any of the before-mentioned ships or vessels, or receiving—

Any person whatever from or out of such vessel, whether such person shall have come from any of the said places, or shall have gone on board of such vessel, either in the course of her voyage, or upon her arrival off the coast of the United Kingdom, &c.—Or,

Any goods, wares, or merchandise, packets, packages, baggage, wearing apparel, goods, letters, or any other articles whatever, from or out of such ship or vessel.

Note.—They are liable to quarantine from the time of their receiving any such persons or goods.

All vessels coming from any port or place in Europe without the Straits of Gibraltar, or on the continent of America, and having on board—

Any of the articles enumerated (a list of which articles see in the Appendix);

And not producing a declaration upon oath, made by the owner, proprietor, shipper, or consignee, stating either that such articles are not the growth, produce, or manufacture of Turkey, or of any place in Africa within the Straits of Gibraltar, or in the West Barbary on the Atlantic Ocean, or stating of what place they are the growth, produce, or manufacture.

All vessels and boats receiving—

Any of the said goods, wares, or merchandise, or other articles enumerated.

Signals.

For vessels with the plague or other highly infectious disease actually on board—

In the day time—A flag of yellow and black, borne quarterly, of 8 breadths of bunting, at the main topmast-head.

In the night time—Two large signal lanterns, with a light therein, such as are commonly used on board his Majesty's ships of war, one over the other, at the same mast-head.

For vessels with clean bills of health—

In the day time—A large yellow flag, of 6 breadths of bunting, at the main-topmast-head.

In the night time—A large signal lantern, with a light therein, such as is commonly used on board his Majesty's ships of war, at the same mast-head.

For vessels without clean bills of health—



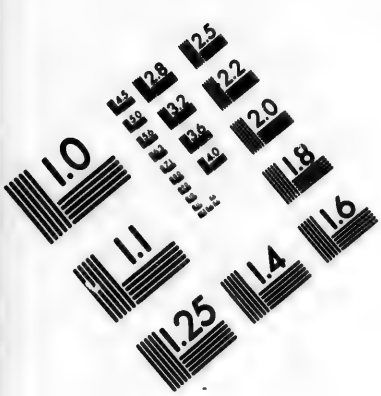
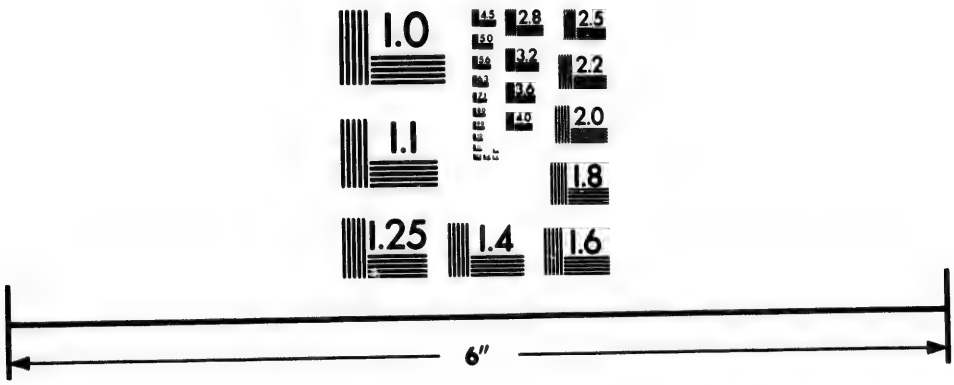




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In the day time—A large yellow flag, with a circular mark or ball, entirely black, in the middle thereof, whose diameter shall be equal to 2 breadths of bunting, at the main topmast head.

In the night time—Same as for vessels with clean bills of health.

Note.—Every commander or master of a vessel about to sail for the Mediterranean, or for any place respecting which an order in council shall be in force, subjecting vessels coming from thence to a quarantine, to be provided with the quarantine signals above mentioned, and to keep the same on board, to be used on his return to the United Kingdom.

Any commander or master hoisting either of the said quarantine signals, by day or night, knowing that his vessel is not liable to quarantine, incurs the penalty of 50*l*.

APPENDIX.—*A List of Articles enumerated considered as most liable to Infection.*

Apparel of all kinds	Goats' hair	Platting of boat, chip, cane, straw, or bass
Artificial flowers	Gold or silver on thread, cotton, hair, wool, or silk, or any other substance herein-before mentioned	hair
Bast, or any articles made thereof		Quilts
Beads, bracelets, or necklaces in strings		Rags
Bed, and bed ticks	Grograms	Sails and sail cloths
Books	Hats, caps, or bonnets of straw, chip, cane, or any other material	Silk, viz.—crapes and handkerchiefs, hosiery, knots, raw silk, thrown and organzine silk, waste silk, wrought silk
Brooms of all sorts	Hemp	
Brushes of all sorts	Hoofs	Skins, hides, and furs, and parts or pieces of skins, hides, and furs, whether undressed, or in part or wholly tanned, tawed, or dressed
Bristels	Horn and horn tips	
Canvass	Hair of all sorts	
Carmenia wool	Leather	
Carpets	Linen	Sponges
Cordage not tarred	Lute strings, bathings, or harp strings	Straw, or any article made or mixed with straw
Cotton wool	Maps	
Cotton yarn	Mattresses	Stockings of all sorts
Cotton thread	Mats and matting	Thread, tow, vellum, whisks, wool, whether raw or anywise wrought
All articles wholly made of or mixed with cotton, silk, wool, thread, or yarn	Mohair yarn	
	Nets, new or old	Yarn of all sorts
Down	Paper	And all other goods whatsoever, if they shall have arrived in or with packages containing wholly or in part of any of the said articles.
Feathers	Packthread	
Flax	Parchment	
Furniture waste	Pelts	

QUARANTINE PORTS.—*For Vessels liable to Quarantine not coming from any Place actually infected, nor having any Infection actually on Board.*

Without clean Bills of Health.

All vessels, ships of war, &c. as herein-after specified, to perform quarantine at *Standgate Creek* or *Milford Haven*.

Ships of war, transports, or other ships in the actual service of government, under the command of a commissioned officer in the service of his Majesty's navy, whithersoever bound, to perform quarantine at the *Motherbank*, near *Portsmouth*, at a place marked out with yellow buoys.

With clean Bills of Health.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Standgate Creek*:—

London, Rochester, Faversham, or any creeks or places belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Whitebooth Road*, between *Hull* and *Grimsby*:—

Leigh	Wisbeach
Maldon	Boston
Colchester	Grimsby
Harwich	Hull
Ipswich	Bridlington
Woodbridge	Scarborough
Aldborough	Whitby
Southwold	Stockton
Yarmouth	Sunderland
Blakney and Clay	Newcastle
Wells	Berwick
Lynn	

And any creeks or places belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Barnbow Pool*, near *Liverpool*, or *Milford Haven*:—

Carlisle	Liverpool
Whitehaven	Chester
Lancaster	Beaumaris
Preston	Isle of Man

And any creeks or places belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at the *Motherbank*, near *Portsmouth*:—

Sandwich	Arundel
Deal	Chichester
Dover	Portsmouth
Rye	Southampton
Newhaven	Cowes
Shoreham	

And any creeks or places belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *St. Just's Pool*, within the mouth of the harbour of *Falmouth*:—

Poole	Fowey
Weymouth	Falmouth
Lyme	Gweek
Exeter	Penrya
Dartmouth	Truro
Plymouth	Penzance
Looe	Scilly

And any creeks or places belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *King Road* and *Portishute Pill*:—

Bridgewater	Chepstow
Minehead	Cardiff
Bristol	Swansea
Gloucester	

And any creeks or places belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Milford Haven*:—

St. Ives	Llanelly
Padstow	Pembroke
Bideford	Milford
Barnstaple	Cardigan
Ilfracombe	Aberyswith

Or any creeks or places belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at the *Motherbank*, near *Portsmouth*, or *St. Just's Pool*, within the mouth of the harbour of *Falmouth*:—

Jersey	Sark
Guernsey	Alderney

Or either of them, or any part of either of them.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Inverkeithing Bay*:—

The eastern coasts of Scotland, comprehending the ports of	Anstruther
	Pratonspans
Leith	Dundee
Borrowstouness	Perth
Alloa	Montrose
Dunbar	Aberdeen
Kirkaldy	

Or any member, creek, or other place belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Holy Loch*, in the *Frith of Clyde*:—

The western coast of Scotland, comprehending the ports of	Rothsay
	Fort William
Glasgow	Ayr
Greenock	Port Patrick
Irvine	Stranraer
Campbell Town	Wigtown
Oban	

Or any member, creek, or other place belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Invergordon Bay*:—

The northern ports of Scotland, comprehending the ports of	Orkney
	Caithness
Inverness.	Stornaway
Zetland	

Or any member, creek, or other place belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

All ships and vessels bound to the following places, to perform quarantine at *Holy Loch*, in the *Frith of Clyde*:—

The south-west ports of Scotland, comprehending the ports of Dumfries and Kirkcudbright, or any member, creek, or other place belonging to or within any or either of the above ports.

Bound to any port of Ireland, between Mizen Head and Tuskar, to perform quarantine at the *Bay of Ballimore*.

Bound between Tuskard and Rathlin, to perform quarantine at *Lough Larn* and the *Bay of Carlingford*, near *Kilcoan Point*, opposite to the town of *Carlingford*.

Bound to Rathlin and Tory Island, to perform quarantine at *Portmostober Bay* or *Red Castle Road*, near *Londonderry*.

Bound to Tory Island and Blacksod Bay, to perform quarantine at the harbour of *Killy Begs*.

Bound to Loop Head and Mizen Head, to perform quarantine at *Scattery Bay*, in the river of *Limerick*.

Bound to any place on the coasts of the United Kingdom, not within any of the ports or limits herein-before mentioned or described, to perform quarantine at such places herein-before appointed for performance of quarantine, as shall be nearest to the port or place to which such vessels respectively shall be so bound.

Preliminary Questions.

1. What is the name of the vessel, and the name of the commander or master?
2. Are you the commander or master? Where does she belong?
3. From whence do you come?
4. To what place are you bound?

3. At what ports have you touched since you left the port of lading on your homeward voyage?
4. What vessels have you had intercourse or communication with on your passage, and from whence did they come?
5. Did the plague or any other infectious disease or distemper prevail in any degree at the place from whence you sailed on your homeward voyage, or at any of the places at which you have touched? If at any, say at which, and when. Are any persons on board your ship suffering under any infectious disease? or have any persons died or been ill of a disease of that nature on the homeward passage? and if any, what number? And if any have died or been ill of such disease, were their bedding and clothes destroyed?
6. Have you on board any goods enumerated in this list? [If the vessel shall have sailed from any port in Europe without the Straits, or on the continent of America.]
[Handing up a list of articles enumerated.]
If you have, specify the same, and whether they are of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Turkey, or of any place in Africa within the Straits of Gibraltar, or in the West Barbary on the Atlantic ocean, or of what other places? Have you any declaration to prove the growth, produce, or manufacture? Of what place have they are the growth, produce, or manufacture?
7. From what port or place does she now come? When did you sail from such port or place? and at what place or places have you touched in the course of the voyage?
8. Have you any bill or bills of health with you to the port or place where you took in the cargo you have now on board? From what places? Are the same clean, unclean, or suspected? From them.
[If the vessel shall have sailed from any port or place in Europe without the Straits, or on the continent of America.]
9. Of what articles does your cargo consist? Have you on board any goods enumerated in this list?
[Handing up a list of articles enumerated.]
If you have, specify the same, and whether they are of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Turkey, or of any place in Africa, within the Straits of Gibraltar, or in the West Barbary on the Atlantic Ocean, or of what other place. Have you any declaration to prove of what place they are the growth, produce, or manufacture?
10. Did you sail from your homeward bound port in company with any other vessel? If so, what was her name, and to what port was she bound?
11. Have you a bill of health? If so, what bill of health?
12. What number of officers, mariners, and passengers have you on board?
[And in cases of vessels coming from or having touched at any port or place on the continent of America, or the islands adjacent thereto, or coming from or having touched at any ports in the West Indies, the following questions are to be put, in addition to the aforesaid questions:]
13. In the course of your voyage, have any persons on board suffered from sickness of any kind? What was the nature of such sickness? and when did it prevail? How many persons were affected by it? and have any of them died in the course of the voyage?
14. How long after sailing from your port of lading, or having touched at any port of the continent of America or the islands adjacent thereto, or any of the ports in the West Indies, was the first appearance of disease observed?
15. How and the persons attacked been employed before they came on board?
16. And they been employed in loading or unloading the vessel before she left the port?
17. Did the place which they inhabited before they sailed, the reputation of being healthy; or was it subject particularly to the fever incident to the country?
18. Did the fever been frequent in the place before the vessel sailed?
19. Did the persons who were ill on board your vessel fall sick nearly about the same time, or within a few days of each other? Or, did the disorder spread successively from one to another, and increase considerably? Or, did it abate gradually, and cease to multiply as the distance from the ports you sailed from or touched at as aforesaid increased?
20. What was the greatest number of persons ill at the most sickly period of your voyage?
21. What was the whole number of persons on board your vessel when you sailed?
22. What is the whole number of persons now ill on board your vessel?
23. Can you state what were the symptoms of illness with which your crew were first attacked; and what was the daily succession and change in them till their death?
24. Whether any and what medicines have been used? and what methods have been adopted to prevent its spreading among the crew?
25. Whether attention has been paid to cleanliness and ventilation on board your vessel?
26. When did you sail from the port or place from whence you took on board your outward cargo? and at what place did you touch before you arrived at the port or place where you took in your present cargo?
27. Did you carry any bill of health with you to the port or place where you took in the cargo you have now on board? From what places? Were the said bills of health clean, unclean, or suspected?
28. At what place or places was the cargo or any part thereof taken on board? On what day did you arrive at the place or places where you took in the whole, or any and what part of the cargo? And on what day did you sail from such place or places? And what part of your cargo was taken in at each place, and when?
29. Did the plague or any other infectious disease or distemper prevail in any degree at the places from whence you sailed, or at any of the places at which your cargo was taken on board, or at which you touched? If at any, say at which, and when.
30. Did you hear of any report, or are you aware of any suspicion having existed, at the time of your sailing, that the plague or any other infectious disease prevailed at the place from whence you sailed, or at any other place in the Mediterranean (or in America or the West Indies, as the case may be)?
31. What number of officers, mariners, passengers, or other persons have you on board? Describe the number of each.
32. At what port did you take on board your passengers?
33. Were they residents at that place, or had they been embarked as passengers on board any other vessel from any other places? and from what places and at what time?
34. Do the said officers, mariners, passengers, and other persons, consist of the same individuals as were on board at the port from which you sailed upon your homeward voyage? If any other persons have been taken on board, or if any of your officers, crew, or passengers have quitted your vessel since you sailed from such port, or before your arrival at this place, or if any other alterations in that respect have taken place, specify the same, the causes and the time or times of such alterations.
35. What number of persons (if any) have died on board during the voyage outwards and homewards, or at any port at which you have touched? When, and in what part of the voyage did such person or persons die? Of what disease or distemper?
36. Have any of your officers, mariners, or other persons of your crew, who sailed with you on your outward voyage, died or left the vessel?
37. In the course of your voyage outwards or homewards, or at any port at which you have touched, have any persons on board suffered from sickness of any kind? What was the nature of such sickness? When did it prevail? How many persons were affected by it? Are there any convalescents on board? Or, are all persons on board at present in good health?
38. Were any of those who died, or who have been sick in the course of the voyage, or any port at which you have touched, affected, or suspected to have been affected, by any infectious disease or distemper? Were the bedding and clothes of such deceased and sick persons destroyed? If so, when and in what manner were any of the persons immediately employed about the sick afterwards taken ill? If so, of what disease? and in how many days after having been so employed?
39. At what precise time did such deaths happen? In how many days after being indisposed did the sick die? What were the most obvious appearances of the disease?
40. Have you spoken in or otherwise had any communication with any vessels at sea, during the voyage? What were the names of such vessels? and to what country, port, or place did they belong? From what ports or places were they coming, or at what ports or places had they touched on their voyage? and to what country, ports, or places were they bound? What was the nature of the communication held? What do you know respecting the state of health on board such vessels?
41. Have there been any letters, parcels, or other articles delivered out of or received into your vessel, from any vessel or boat met with on the voyage, or before or since your arrival at this place? And what were such letters, parcels, or articles? And where were the same delivered or received? and into or out of what vessel or boat?
42. Have you any packages or parcels which you have taken charge of? If so, what are their contents? and when and where did you take them on board?
43. What pilots or other persons from the shores of the United Kingdom, or from the islands of Scilly, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, have been or are now on board your vessel, or have had any communication whatever with the ship's company, or any of the passengers, during the voyage homewards, or before or since your arrival at this place? If any such pilots or other persons have come on board, and have afterwards quitted your vessel, specify the names of such persons, and the time, manner, and circumstances of their so quitting your vessel.
44. Did you leave any British vessels at any of the ports you sailed from? If you did, mention their names and the names of their commanders.
45. Were such vessels loading? were they near their departure? and whither were they bound?
46. Did you meet with any British vessels at any of the places you touched at? If you did, say when, where, and what were the names and destinations of such vessels; and to what ports or places did they belong?
47. Do you know whether any foreign vessels loading at the port from which you sailed, were bound beyond the straits of Gibraltar? And if so, what were they? and whither were they bound?
48. Do you know whether any person whatever employed in loading your vessel, or in bringing any articles into it, or having any communications on board thereof, was taken ill during such employment or communication? or whether, by the absence of such person or persons in the course of such employment, any suspicion was entertained of their having been ill? If so, of what disease?
49. Do you know whether or not your cargo, or any part thereof, had been long in warehouse before its being taken on board? If you do, say how long. Have you any knowledge of its being packed or handled on shore, or conveyed from shore, or stowed on board, by persons affected with the plague or any other infectious disease or distemper?

Quarantine Questions.

1. What is the name of the vessel, and the name of her commander or master?
2. Are you the commander or master?
3. To what port or place does she belong?
4. When did you sail from the port or place from whence you took on board your outward cargo? and at what places did you touch before you arrived at the port or place where you took in your present cargo?
5. Did you carry any bill or bills of health with you to the port or place where you took in the cargo you have now on board? From what places? Were the said bills of health clean, unclean, or suspected?
6. From what port or place does she now come? When did you sail from such port or place? and at what place or places have you touched in the course of the voyage?
7. Have you any bill or bills of health on board? From what place or places? Are the same clean, unclean, or suspected? From them.
[If the vessel shall have sailed from any port or place in Europe without the Straits, or on the continent of America.]
8. Of what articles does your cargo consist? Have you on board any goods enumerated in this list?
[Handing up a list of articles enumerated.]
If you have, specify the same, and whether they are of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Turkey, or of any place in Africa, within the Straits of Gibraltar, or in the West Barbary on the Atlantic Ocean, or of what other places. Have you any declaration to prove of what place they are the growth, produce, or manufacture?
9. At what place or places was the cargo or any part thereof taken on board? On what day did you arrive at the place or places where you took in the whole, or any and what part of the cargo? And on what day did you sail from such place or places? And what part of your cargo was taken in at each place, and when?
10. Did the plague or any other infectious disease or distemper prevail in any degree at the places from whence you sailed, or at any of the places at which your cargo was taken on board, or at which you touched? If at any, say at which, and when.
11. Did you hear of any report, or are you aware of any suspicion having existed, at the time of your sailing, that the plague or any other infectious disease prevailed at the place from whence you sailed, or at any other place in the Mediterranean (or in America or the West Indies, as the case may be)?
12. What number of officers, mariners, passengers, or other persons have you on board? Describe the number of each.
13. At what port did you take on board your passengers?
14. Were they residents at that place, or had they been embarked as passengers on board any other vessel from any other places? and from what places and at what time?
15. Do the said officers, mariners, passengers, and other persons, consist of the same individuals as were on board at the port from which you sailed upon your homeward voyage? If any other persons have been taken on board, or if any of your officers, crew, or passengers have quitted your vessel since you sailed from such port, or before your arrival at this place, or if any other alterations in that respect have taken place, specify the same, the causes and the time or times of such alterations.
16. What number of persons (if any) have died on board during the voyage outwards and homewards, or at any port at which you have touched? When, and in what part of the voyage did such person or persons die? Of what disease or distemper?
17. Have any of your officers, mariners, or other persons of your crew, who sailed with you on your outward voyage, died or left the vessel?
18. In the course of your voyage outwards or homewards, or at any port at which you have touched, have any persons on board suffered from sickness of any kind? What was the nature of such sickness? When did it prevail? How many persons were affected by it? Are there any convalescents on board? Or, are all persons on board at present in good health?
19. Were any of those who died, or who have been sick in the course of the voyage, or any port at which you have touched, affected, or suspected to have been affected, by any infectious disease or distemper? Were the bedding and clothes of such deceased and sick persons destroyed? If so, when and in what manner were any of the persons immediately employed about the sick afterwards taken ill? If so, of what disease? and in how many days after having been so employed?
20. At what precise time did such deaths happen? In how many days after being indisposed did the sick die? What were the most obvious appearances of the disease?
21. Have you spoken in or otherwise had any communication with any vessels at sea, during the voyage? What were the names of such vessels? and to what country, port, or place did they belong? From what ports or places were they coming, or at what ports or places had they touched on their voyage? and to what country, ports, or places were they bound? What was the nature of the communication held? What do you know respecting the state of health on board such vessels?
22. Have there been any letters, parcels, or other articles delivered out of or received into your vessel, from any vessel or boat met with on the voyage, or before or since your arrival at this place? And what were such letters, parcels, or articles? And where were the same delivered or received? and into or out of what vessel or boat?
23. Have you any packages or parcels which you have taken charge of? If so, what are their contents? and when and where did you take them on board?
24. What pilots or other persons from the shores of the United Kingdom, or from the islands of Scilly, Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, have been or are now on board your vessel, or have had any communication whatever with the ship's company, or any of the passengers, during the voyage homewards, or before or since your arrival at this place? If any such pilots or other persons have come on board, and have afterwards quitted your vessel, specify the names of such persons, and the time, manner, and circumstances of their so quitting your vessel.
25. Did you leave any British vessels at any of the ports you sailed from? If you did, mention their names and the names of their commanders.
26. Were such vessels loading? were they near their departure? and whither were they bound?
27. Did you meet with any British vessels at any of the places you touched at? If you did, say when, where, and what were the names and destinations of such vessels; and to what ports or places did they belong?
28. Do you know whether any foreign vessels loading at the port from which you sailed, were bound beyond the straits of Gibraltar? And if so, what were they? and whither were they bound?
29. Do you know whether any person whatever employed in loading your vessel, or in bringing any articles into it, or having any communications on board thereof, was taken ill during such employment or communication? or whether, by the absence of such person or persons in the course of such employment, any suspicion was entertained of their having been ill? If so, of what disease?
30. Do you know whether or not your cargo, or any part thereof, had been long in warehouse before its being taken on board? If you do, say how long. Have you any knowledge of its being packed or handled on shore, or conveyed from shore, or stowed on board, by persons affected with the plague or any other infectious disease or distemper?

[For information concerning the quarantine regulations of the United States, the reader is referred to the statutes of the several states on the seaboard.—*Am. Ed.*]

QUASSIA (Ger. *Quassienholz*; Fr. *Bois de quassie*; Sp. *Leno de quassia*), a beautiful tall tree (*Quassia amara*), growing in North and South America, and the West Indies. The wood is of a pale yellow colour, and inodorous; it, as well as the fruit and bark of the

tree, has a place in the materia medica. Its taste is intensely bitter. It is said to have been sometimes used by the brewers in the preparation of beer, instead of hops: but the use of it for this purpose is prohibited, under severe penalties.—(See ALE AND BEER.) The price of quassia in bond varies from 1*l.* 4*s.* to 1*l.* 6*s.* a cwt. The duty is 8*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.*; it is of course intended to be prohibitory; and is one of the few imposed for such a purpose, against which no good objection can be urged.

QUEBEC, the capital of Canada, and of the British possessions in North America, on the north-west bank of the river St. Lawrence, about 340 miles from its mouth, in lat. 46° 48′ 49″ N., lon. 71° 10′ 45″ W. Population in 1831, 27,562.

Quebec is situated on a ridge, or promontory, formed by the St. Lawrence on the S. and W., and the river St. Charles on the E. The extremity of this headland, called Cape Diamond, is about 345 feet above the level of the water, and on it the citadel is built. The town extends from the citadel, principally in a north-east direction, down to the water; and is, from the difference of elevation, divided into the upper and lower towns. The fortifications, which are very strong, extend across the peninsula; the circuit within them being about 2¾ miles. From their situation, many of the streets are uneven; they are also, for the most part, narrow; but they are either well paved or Macadamised. The greater number of the houses are built of stone, with shingle roofs. Some of the public buildings are elegant, and well adapted for their purposes. The harbour, or basin, lies between the town and the island of Orleans. It is safe and commodious: the water is about 28 fathoms deep, with a tide rising from 17 to 18 feet; and at springs from 23 to 25 ditto. Quebec was founded by the French in 1608. In 1629, it was taken by the English; but was restored in 1632. It was again taken by the English under General Wolfe, who fell in the engagement, in 1759; and was finally ceded to us by the treaty of Paris in 1763.

The rapid increase of population in Upper Canada has occasioned a proportional increase of intercourse between Quebec, Montreal, &c. The first steam boat that plied on the St. Lawrence was launched in 1812. There are now above a dozen steam boats, 1 of them of 600 tons burden, employed in the conveyance of goods and passengers between Quebec and Montreal; and a steam ship of from 700 to 800 tons burden is engaged in the trade between Quebec and Halifax in Nova Scotia. Thus is formed a line of steam communication from the Atlantic to Amherstburgh, one of the remote settlements of Upper Canada,—a distance of more than 1,500 miles; which we may soon expect to see extended to the head of lake Huron, and eventually to the western extremity of lake Superior, about 700 miles beyond Amherstburgh; giving to Quebec a command of internal navigation inferior only to that of New Orleans. The navigation at Quebec closes at the end of November or beginning of December, and opens in April. Below Quebec the river is seldom frozen over; but the masses of floating ice, kept in constant agitation by the flux and reflux of the tide, render navigation impracticable. The waters of the St. Lawrence are very pure; and in point of depth and magnitude it is one of the noblest rivers in the world.—(*Bouchette's British Dominions in America*, vol. i. p. 372.) Quebec is a free warehousing port.

We have already given (see vol. i. p. 425.) an account of the aggregate value and amount of the trade and navigation of Canada, and our other possessions in North America, for three different periods; viz. 1806, 1825, and 1831. The act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 59., regulating the colonial trade, and the duties upon the different articles imported into Canada and the other colonies, is given vol. i. pp. 426—434. But the following statements illustrate some of these points in detail, while others refer particularly to the trade, charges, &c. peculiar to Quebec and the St. Lawrence.

***Monies.*—Table of Coins in Circulation.**

English, Portuguese, American, Spanish, and French Coins.	Weight.	Halifax Currency.	Old Currency.
Gold.	*dwt.*	*L. s. d.*	*Liv. sols.*
A guinea	6	1 3 4	28 0
Sovereign	5	1 0 5	26 14
Half guinea	2 15	0 11 8½	14 0½
Third of a guinea	1 18	0 7 9	9 6
Johannes	18 0	4 0 0	96 0
Half ditto	9 0	2 0 0	48 0
Moidore	6 12	1 10 0	36 0
Eagle	11 6	2 10 0	60 0
Half ditto	5 15	1 5 0	30 0
A doubloon	17 0	3 14 6	89 8
Half ditto	8 12	1 17 3	44 14
Louis d'or, coined before 1793	5 4	1 2 3	27 4
Pistole do.	4 4	0 19 3	22 18
The 40 francs, coined since 1793	4 6	1 16 2	
The twenty francs, ditto	4 3	0 18 1	

English, Portuguese, American, Spanish, and French Coins.	Weight.	Halifax Currency.	Old Currency.
Silver.	*Dwt. gr.*	*L. s. d.*	*Liv. sols.*
A crown		0 5 6	6 0
English shilling		0 1 1	1 6
Spanish and American dollar		0 5 0	6 0
Pistareen		0 1 0	1 4
French crown, coined before 1793		0 5 6	6 0
Tournois		0 4 8	5 0
French piece of 6 francs, since 1793		0 5 6	
French piece of 5 francs, do.		0 4 8	

Deducting 1-10th from the currency value of these coins will give their sterling value.

Paper Currency.—There is no established government bank in the province; but there are private chartered banks, which have the following sums of paper currency in circulation, viz.

	L.	*s.*	*d.*
Quebec Bank	28,303	0	0
Montreal Bank	28,543	5	9
Canada Bank	8,434	10	0
L.	125,968	16	9

N. B.—No notes or other paper money are issued on the credit of the province.

Accounts kept in Halifax currency.

Weights same as in England.

Measures.—Standard wine gallon, liquid measure of the province. The Canada minot for all grain, &c. except where specially agreed upon to the contrary; and this measure is about 1-8th larger than the Winchester bushel. The English Winchester bushel, when specially agreed for. The Paris foot, for all measures of lands granted pri-

…ment to the conquest, and all measures of length, except an agreement is made to the contrary. The English foot, for measure of lands granted since the conquest, and wherever specially agreed upon. The standard English yard for measuring all cloths or stuffs, sold by the yard or measure of length. The English ell, when specially agreed upon.

Trade of Canada in 1832.

Imports.

Article		Quantity	Rate (s. d. to s. d.)	L.	L.
Wine	gallons	411,201	at 2 6 to 7 0	87,039	
Rum	—	1,089.565	2 3 to 3 6	166,594	
Brandy	—	183,277	6 0	54,993	
Gin and whisky	—	61,954	3 0	15,489	324,185
Sugar, refined	lbs.	1,051,872	0 6	26,296	
muscovado	—	5,755,172	0 4	96,918	
Coffee	—	174,899	1 0	8,745	130,959
Tea, hyson	—	63,000	3 6	11,182	
bohea	—	91,092	2 0	9,109	
green	—	627,031	3 6	103,379	123,670
Salt	barrels	260,227		13,017	
Playing cards	packs	33,900	1 3	2,431	
Tobacco, leaf	lbs.	124,213	0 4	2,070	
manufactured	—	147,100	0 8	4,903	
Cigars	—	585	5 0	184	22,555
Merchandise, British manufactures, paying 2½ per cent. ad valorem duty					1,338,874
				Total	1,940,183

Exports.			Valued at.	Exports.			Valued at.
			L.				L.
New ships		10	28,000	Potash	cwt.	113,116	149,276
Masts and spars		3,125	8,810	Pearl-ash	—	49,146	67,587
Oak	tons	20,804	41,608	Total produce of the forest		L.	704,834
Red pine	—	38,728	61,631	Fish, oil, seal, skins			6,521
Yellow do.	—	135,626	135,628	Pork, beef, butter, lard, live stock, hides, castoreum, capillaire, natural curiosities, &c.			37,893
Ash	—	1,432	1,611	Wheat, Indian corn, barley, &c.			205,241
Elm	—	18,638	24,870	Furs, &c.			30,900
Birch, &c.	—	936	599	Exports from New-Carlisle			10,553
Staves, heading, &c.	—	4,910,249	69,725	Do. from Gaspé			23,616
Deals	pieces	1,051,404	86,512				
Boards and plank	—	584,176	23,641				
Deal ends, oars, battens, handspikes, lathwood, puncheon shooks, treenails, shingles, shipping poles			17,236	Total exports, the produce of the Canadas		L.	1,027,565

The remaining exports consist of British fabrics, West India produce, and teas re-exported. Nine tenths of this trade is carried on from Quebec. A great proportion of the imports is, however, consumed in Upper Canada; and it also supplies a very large share of the exports; but it is impossible, owing to the inaccuracy of the returns, to discriminate the imports and exports on account of each province.

An Account of Arrivals at Quebec in the Years 1831 and 1832.

From		Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	From		Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
Great Britain	with cargoes	278	80,333	3,755	Colombia (British)	with cargoes	1	130	6
Do.	in ballast	305	97,598	4,146	Do. (foreign)	—	1	136	6
Ireland	with cargoes	78	21,564	974	Brazil British	in ballast	1	437	17
Do.	in ballast	146	35,523	1,809	China	with cargoes	1	586	45
Jersey		1	111	8	Arrivals at Gaspé		41	6,670	379
Gibraltar		3	431	22	Do. at New Carlisle		43	7,651	395
Netherlands	in ballast	3	974	43					
Sweden		1	158	9	Total arrivals in Canada, in 1831		1,111	267,641	13,776
Spain		2	358	19	Do. departures from do.		1,101	275,775	12,586
Portugal		4	879	37	Of the latter, 9 were built during the year, of the burden of 2,340 tons.				
British N. A. colonies	with cargoes	117	10,316	562					
Do.	in ballast	29	5,317	254					
British West Indies	with cargoes	56	7,512	425	Arrivals in Canada, in 1832		1,084	287,727	12,716
Do.	in ballast	1	425	18	Do. departures in do.		1,098	292,086	12,800
U. S. (British)	with cargoes	3	449	20	Ships built in do.		10	2,800	235
Do. do.	in ballast	1	373	17					

N.B.—We are indebted for these details to the valuable work of *Mr. M'Gregor* on *British America*, 2d edit. vol. ii. pp. 504—515.

Population.—According to the latest census, the population of Lower Canada amounted to 539,822.

Rates of Pilotage for the River St. Lawrence.

	Per Foot. L. s. d.
From Bic to Quebec (158 miles distance)—	
From the 2d to the 30th April, inclusive	1 0 0
From the 1st May to the 10th Nov., inclusive	0 18 0
From the 11th to the 19th November, inclusive	1 3 0
From the 19th Nov. to the 1st March, inclusive	1 8 0
From Quebec to Bic—	
From the 2d to the 30th April, inclusive	0 18 0
From the 1st May to the 10th November, inclusive	0 15 9
From the 11th to the 19th November, inclusive	1 0 9
From the 19th Nov. to the 1st March, inclusive	1 5 9

Rates of pilot water and poundage on pilot money are payable at the Naval Office, by masters and commanders of vessels, viz.—

For every foot of water for which masters or commanders of vessels are bound to pay their pilots, from Bic to Quebec, and from Quebec to Bic, 2s. 6d. currency per foot—

For vessels going to Three Rivers or Montreal,	
Of 100 to 150 tons, inclusive	L. 2 currency.
Of 151 to 200 tons, inclusive	3 —
Of 201 to 250 tons, inclusive	4 —
Of 251 tons and upwards	5 —

On settling with pilots, masters or commanders of vessels, or the consignees of such vessels, are to deduct 1s. in the pound for the amount of the sums to be paid for pilotage, which will be exacted by the naval officer at clearing out; the same being funded by law under the direction of the Trinity House, for the relief of decayed pilots, their widows and children.

Regulations for the Payment of Pilotage above Bic to Quebec.

At or above the anchorage of the Brandy Pots, 2-3ds of the present rate for a full pilotage.

Above the point of St. Roc, 1-3d do.

Above the Point aux Pins, on the Ile aux Grues, and below Patrick's Hole, 1 4th do.

	L. s. d.
At and above Patrick's Hole	1 3 4
For shifting a vessel from one wharf to another, between Bréhaut's wharf and Point à Carcis; or from or to the stream, from or to any of the above wharfs	0 11 8
For shifting a vessel from the stream, or from either of the above wharfs to St. Patrick's Hole, or to the basin of Montmorency, or to the ballast-ground, the basin of the Chaudière, Wolfe's Cove, and as far as the River Cap Rouge	1 3 4

Rates above the Harbour of Quebec.

From Quebec to Port Neuf			To Quebec from Port Neuf
4l. currency.	For vessels of registered measurement not exceeding 200 tons		2l. 10s. currency.
—	5l.	If above 200 and not exceeding 250 tons	— 3l. 10s.
	6l.	If above 250 tons	— 4l.

To Three Rivers, or above Port Neuf, 6*d.* currency	For vessels not exceeding 200 tons	From Three Rivers, and above Port Neuf, 4*d.* currency.
— 7*l.*	If above 200 tons and not exceeding 250 tons	— 4*l.* 10*s.*
— 8*l.*	If above 250 tons	— 5*l.* 10*s.*
To Montreal, and above Three Rivers, 11*l.* currency.	For vessels not exceeding 200 tons	From Montreal, and above Three Rivers, 7*l.* 10*s.* currency.
To Montreal, and above Three Rivers, 13*l.* currency	If above 200 tons and not exceeding 250 tons	From Montreal, and above Three Rivers, 8*l.* 15*s.* currency.
— 16*l.*	If above 250 tons	— 10*l.* 15*s.*

Pilots are at liberty to leave vessels 48 hours after they arrive at the place of their destination.

Quebec Almanac, for 1833.

Exports to British America.

Quantity and Declared Value of the different Articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufacture exported to the North American Colonies in 1831.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 550, Sess. 1833.)

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.	Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
		L.			*L.*
Apparel, slops, &c.	—	163,762	Saddlery and harness	—	5,396
Arms and ammunition	—	16,941	Linen manufactures — yards	3,309,165	117,238
Bacon and hams — cwt.	145	423	Thread, tapes, &c.	—	5,116
Beef and pork — barrels	8,534	34,093	Machinery and mill work	—	4,389
Beer and ale — tuns	272	4,904	Painters' colours	—	12,907
Books, printed — cwt.	446	9,807	Plate, plated ware, jewellery, & watches	—	7,994
Brass and copper manufactures —	1,758	9,742	Salt — bushels	1,559,694	93,452
Butter and cheese —	2,572	9,230	Silk manufactures	—	93,013
Coals, culm, and cinders — tons	21,134	15,529	Soap and candles — lbs.	1,267,685	36,139
Cordage — cwt.	20,185	45,116	Stationary of all sorts	—	35,263
Cotton manufactures — yards	15,018,106	413,737	Sugar, refined — cwt.	16,518	34,377
Hosiery, lace, &c.	—	25,536	Tin, unwrought —	39	147
Cotton twist and yarn — lbs.	307,997	10,276	Do. and pewter wares	—	13,570
Earthenware — pieces	2,253,851	29,349	Wool, sheep's and lambs' — lbs.	11,337	611
Fish — barrels	62	66	Woollen and worsted yarn —	5,553	717
Glass — cwt.	17,863	31,819	Do. manufactures; viz.		
at value	—	1,380	entered by the piece — pieces	80,209	271,494
Hardwares and cutlery —	—	29,492	do. by the yard — yards	900,134	66,139
Hats, beaver and felt — dozen	7,461	25,734	Hosiery and small wares	—	19,384
Iron & steel, wrought & unwrought tons	12,400	133,127	All other articles	—	127,761
Lead and shot	820	5,541			
Leather, wrought and unwrought — lbs.	489,336	66,031	Total declared value — *L.*	—	2,033,527

Immigrants.—The number of immigrants arrived at Quebec, in 1829, was 15,945; in 1830, 28,000; in 1831, 50,254; in 1832, 51,746; [in 1833, 22,069; in 1834, 30,217; in 1835, 30,017; in 1836, 27,513; in 1837, 21,855; in 1838, 2,050; and in 1839, 7,413.—*Am. Ed.*]

MONTREAL, the second town of Canada, is situated on the south side of an island of the same name, in the St. Lawrence, about 160 miles above Quebec, in lat. 45° 31′ N., lon. 73° 35′ W. Population 27,000. The harbour is not large, but it is safe and commodious; the facilities for navigation afforded by the noble river on which it is situated being such, that vessels of 600 tons burden may ascend thus far without difficulty. The North American fur trade principally centres in Montreal; which also enjoys the principal share of the commerce between Canada and the United States. It is increasing faster than Quebec, or than any city in British America. Imports and exports included in those of Quebec.

(QUEBEC.—A comparative Statement, for the Seven Years ending with 1835, of the Tonnage and Seamen employed in the Export Trade of the Province of Canada, distinguishing the Proportions thereof cleared in each Year for the United Kingdom from those of other Ports; the Tonnage cleared for the United Kingdom with Wood and other Goods separately; together with the Value of the Exports under each Head.—(*Customs' Returns.*)

Years.	Cleared for the United Kingdom.						Cleared for other Ports.			Total cleared.		
	Laden with Wood.			Laden with other Goods.			Laden with Wood, Fish, Flour, Provisions, &c.					
	No. of Ships.	Tons.	Men.	No. of Ships.	Tons.	Men.	No. of Ships.	Tons.	Men.	No. of Ships.	Tons.	Men.
1829	745	220,096	9,611	54	13,302	678	206	20,624	1,120	1,005	253,992	11,409
1830	716	210,324	9,135	99	24,257	1,234	294	22,630	1,396	1,051	257,211	11,677
1831	713	213,325	9,255	169	41,768	2,070	253	21,486	1,246	1,103	276,582	12,571
1832	805	235,505	10,281	199	25,610	1,321	163	19,465	1,155	1,077	280,578	12,757
1833	812	240,520	10,749	101	24,323	1,219	244	22,575	1,290	1,157	287,418	12,910
1834	970	288,613	12,357	69	17,943	909	250	22,976	1,387	1,289	329,441	14,653
1835	967	305,571	12,973	56	15,015	748	243	20,630	1,545	1,266	341,216	14,966

Years.	Cargoes laden for the United Kingdom.				Cargoes laden for other Ports.		Total Exports.	
	Tons of Wood.	Value Sterling.	Tons of other Goods.	Value Sterling.	Tons of Wood & other Goods.	Value Sterling.	Tons.	Value Sterling.
		L.		*L.*		*L.*		*L.*
1829	348,439	846,065	21,058	244,463	37,850	183,878	402,147	976,198
1830	332,857	448,823	38,455	821,873	37,927	193,600	407,239	1,164,296
1831	317,764	461,074	66,125	786,114	34,036	160,975	450,925	1,411,163
1832	372,880	465,966	40,548	415,668	30,819	145,669	444,247	1,027,303
1833	380,821	496,455	38,512	427,241	35,742	181,977	455,075	1,095,673
1834	456,970	676,596	29,107	295,325	36,381	194,049	521,758	1,166,966
1835	483,819	611,164	23,772	292,202	32,663	183,902	540,254	1,087,278

Note.—The Returns from Gaspé have only been received to the 5th July last, and from New Carlisle to the 10th of October, 1835.—Sup.)

QUERCITRON BARK, the bark of a species of oak growing in many parts of North America. It is used in dyeing yellow colours.—(See BARK.)

QUILLS (Fr. *Plumes à écrire*; Ger. *Posen*; *Federkiel*; It. *Penne da scrivere*; Rus. *Stivoli*; Sp. *Canones para escribir*), the hard and strong feathers of the wings of geese, ostriches, swans, turkeys, crows, &c. used in writing. They are classified according to the order in which they are fixed in the wing; the second and third quills being the best. Crow quills are chiefly used for drawing. The goodness of quills is judged partly by the size of the barrels, but more by the weight; hence the denomination of quills of 14, 15, &c. oths, per *mille*, each mille consisting of 1,200 quills. The duty on goose quills produced,

in 1832, 4,302*l.* 11*s.*; which, as the duty is at the rate of 2*s.* 6*d.* the 1,000, shows that the number of quills entered for home consumption that year must have amounted to 33,668,000. Quills are principally imported from the Netherlands and Germany; but those from Riga are the finest. The price of Riga quills in London, in February, 1834, duty paid, was as under:—

	£	*s.*	*d.*		£	*s.*	*d.*
Quills, goose, 17 loth per *mille*	2	15	0 to 3	0	0		
16 "	1	12	0 — 1	15	0		
15 "	1	2	0 — 1	4	0		
14 "	0	19	0 — 1	1	0		
Quills, goose, 13 loth per *mille*	0	13	0 to 0	14	0		
12 "	0	9	6 — 0	10	0		
11 "	0	6	0 — 0	12	0		
Pinions	0	5	6 — 0	6	6		

Hamburgh quills are about 40 per cent. lower.

R.

RAGS (Du. *Lompen, Vodden*; Fr. *Chiffes, Chiffons, Drapeaux, Drilles*; Ger. *Lumpen*; It. *Straci, Strazze*; Rus. *Trepje*; Sp. *Tropos, Harapos*), shreds or fragments of (generally decayed) linen, woollen, or cotton cloth. Though commonly held in little estimation, rags are of great importance in the arts, being used for various purposes, but especially in the manufacture of paper, most of which is entirely prepared from them. As the mode in which British rags are collected must be well known to every one, the following statements apply only to the trade in foreign rags.

Woollen Rags:—Woollen and linen rags are imported in considerable quantities from the continent of Europe, and from Sicily. The woollen rags are chiefly used for manure, especially in the culture of hops; but rags of loose texture, and not too much worn or decayed, are unravelled and mixed up with fresh wool in the making of yarn; a practice more favourable to the cheapness than to the strength and durability of the fabrics into which this old wool is introduced. Woollen rags are also used for making flocks or stuffing for beds, &c.: this process is performed chiefly by the aid of the same kind of engines that prepare pulp for paper; these wash the rags thoroughly, at the same time that they grind and tear them out into separate threads and fibres. The chief importation of woollen rags is from Hamburgh and Bremen; and there are some got from Rostock, but the quantity is trifling. The total average importation varies from 300 to 500 tons, and the price ranges from 6*l.* to 7*l.* per ton, duty (7*s.* 6*d.*) and freight paid on such as are used for manure; and from 13*l.* to 15*l.* for coloured woollens of loose texture, and 18*l.* to 20*l.* for white of the same description.

Linen Rags are principally imported from Rostock, Bremen, Hamburgh, Leghorn, Ancona, Messina, Palermo, and Trieste. Their export from Holland, Belgium, France, Spain, and Portugal, is strictly prohibited. The imports usually amount to about 10,000 tons; worth, at an average, from 21*l.* to 22*l.* per ton, duty (5*s.*) and freight included. Exclusive of the very large quantity collected at home, all the rags imported were, until very recently, employed in the manufacture of paper; but the Americans, who have for some years been large importers from the Mediterranean and Hamburgh, have lately come into the London market, and purchased several cargoes: a circumstance sufficiently indicative of the languid state of the paper manufacture in this country, occasioned by the oppressive amount of the duties with which it is burdened, and of the duty on advertisements. —(See PAPER.)

The imported rags are coarser and inferior in appearance to the English; but, being almost exclusively linen, they are stronger, and bear a price disproportioned to the apparent difference in quality: this disproportion has been materially augmented since the introduction of the process of boiling the rags in ley, and afterwards bleaching them with chlorine, has rendered foreign rags fit for making fine paper, and, indeed, in some respects preferable for that purpose, by their affording greater strength of texture combined with equal whiteness of colour.

There is considerable variety in the appearance of rags from different ports; but, in general, those from the north of Europe are darker and stronger than those from the Mediterranean ports. The latter are chiefly the remains of outer garments, and have become whitened by exposure to the sun and air; but since the improvements in bleaching, this does not much enhance their value in the British market. The rags shipped from Trieste are chiefly collected in Hungary. It is only within these few years that we have brought rags from this port, which now furnishes us with considerable supplies. Most part of the rags collected in the Tuscan states, to the extent of 10,000 or 12,000 bags a year, goes to America.

Freights are, at an average, about—Hamburgh and Bremen, linen 20*s.* per ton, woollen, 25*s.*; Rostock, 40*s.*; Ancona and Leghorn, 38*s.* to 40*s.*; Trieste and Sicily, 45*s.* to 46*s.* Linen rags are almost all selected and assorted previously to their shipment from the foreign port. Their distinguishing marks and prices per cwt. in the London market, January, 1832, were as follow: viz.

	Rostock.			Hamburgh.			Bremen.			Trieste.					
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
S P F F	1	15	0	1	12	6	1	18	0	1	9	0	to 1	12	6
S P F	1	10	0	1	6	0	1	7	6	1	5	0	– 1	8	0
F F	1	6	0	1	3	6	1	3	0	1	2	0	– 1	5	0
F X *or* F M	0	17	6	0	17	0	0	17	0	0	16	0	– 0	19	0
F B	0	17	0	0	17	0	0	17	0	0	15	0	– 0	18	0

RAIL-ROAD, TRAM or WAGON ROAD, a species of road having tracks or ways formed of iron, stone, or other solid material, on which the wheels of the carriages passing along it run. The object in constructing such roads is, by diminishing the friction, to make a less amount of power adequate either to impel a carriage with a greater velocity, or to urge forward a greater load.

Construction of Rail-roads.—The friction on a perfectly level rail-road, properly constructed, is estimated to amount to from $\frac{1}{18}$th to $\frac{1}{14}$th only of the friction on an ordinary level road; so that supposing the same force to be applied in both cases, it would move a weight from 10 to 7 times as great on the former as on the latter. But if there be a very moderate ascent, such as 1 foot in 50, which in an ordinary road would hardly be perceived, a great increase of power on the rail-road is required to overcome the resistance that is thus occasioned. The reason is, that the ordinary load on a *level* rail-road is about *seven times as great* as on a common turnpike road; so that when the force of gravity is brought into operation by an ascending plane, its opposing power, being *proportioned to the load*, is 7 times as great as on a common road. Hence the vast importance of having rail-roads either level, or as nearly so as possible.

It is also of great importance that rail-roads should be straight, or, at least, free from any abrupt curves. Carriages being kept on the road by *flanges* on the wheels, it is obvious, that where the curves are quick, the friction on the sides of the rails, and consequent retardation, must be very great. In the Manchester and Liverpool rail-road, the curves form segments of a circle which, if extended, would embrace a circumference of 15 miles.

Iron rail-roads, the kind now generally used, are of 2 descriptions. The *flat rail*, or *tram road*, consists of cast-iron plates about 3 feet long, 4 inches broad, and $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch or 1 inch thick, with a flaunch, or turned up edge, on the inside, to guide the wheels of the carriage. The plates rest at each end on stone *sleepers* of 3 or 4 cwt. sunk into the earth, and they are joined to each other so as to form a continuous horizontal pathway. They are, of course, double; and the distance between the opposite rails is from 3 to 4$\frac{1}{2}$ feet, according to the breadth of the carriage or wagon to be employed. The *edge rail*, which is found to be superior to the tram rail, is made either of wrought or cast iron; if the latter be used, the rails are about 3 feet long, 3 or 4 inches broad, and from 1 to 2 inches thick, being joined at the ends by cast metal sockets attached to the sleepers. The upper edge of the rail is generally made with a convex surface, to which the wheel of the carriage is attached by a groove made somewhat wider. When wrought iron is used, which is in many respects preferable, the bars are made of a smaller size, of a wedge shape, and from 12 to 18 feet long; but they are supported by sleepers, at the distance of every 3 feet. In the Liverpool rail-road the bars are 15 feet long, and weigh 35 lbs. per lineal yard. The wagons in common use run upon 4 wheels of from 2 to 3 feet in diameter. Rail-roads are either made double, 1 for going and 1 for returning; or they are made with *sidings*, where the carriages may pass each other.—(See the able and original *Essays on Rail-roads, by Charles Maclaren, Esq.*, in the *Scotsman* for 1824, Nos. 511, 512. and 514.; see also *Mr. Booth's Pamphlet on the Liverpool and Manchester Rail-road.*)

Speed of Carriages on Rail-roads, &c.—The effect of rail-roads in diminishing friction is familiar to every one; and they have long been used in various places of this and other countries, particularly in the vicinity of mines, for facilitating the transport of heavy loads. But it is only since the application of locomotive engines as a moving power, that they have begun to attract the public attention, and to be regarded as of the highest national importance. These engines were first brought into use on the Darlington and Stockton rail-road, opened on the 27th of December, 1825. But the rail-road between Liverpool and Manchester is by far the greatest undertaking of this sort that has hitherto been completed. This splendid work, which is executed in the most approved manner, cost between 800,000*l.* and 900,000*l.*; and, as far as speed is concerned, has completely verified, and, indeed, far surpassed, the most sanguine anticipations. The road has the advantage of being nearly level; for, with the exception of a short space at Rainhill, where it is inclined at the rate of 1 foot in 96, there is no greater inclination than in the ratio of 1 foot in 880. The length of the rail-road is 31 miles; and it is usual to perform this journey in handsome carriages attached to the locomotive engines, in an hour and a half, and sometimes less! So wonderful a result has gone far to strike space and time out of the calculations of the traveller: it has brought, in so far, at least, as respects the facility of passing from the one to the other, Liverpool as near to Manchester as the western part of London is to the eastern part!

The extraordinary speed of carriages on rail-roads depends on the fact, that the *friction*, which on a perfectly level rail-road is the only resistance to be overcome, is *the same for all velocities*; so that, abstracting from the resistance of the air, which is so trifling as not to require to be taken into account, we have merely, in order to double or treble the velocity, to double or treble the power. But in vessels at sea, or in canals, which have to make their way through a comparatively dense medium, the resistance to be overcome increases as the *square of the velocity*; so that, to double the speed, the power must be multiplied by 4, and to treble it, it must be multiplied by 9, and so on.

Comparative Advantages of Rail-roads and Canals.—Astonishing, however, as are the results of the performances on the Manchester and Liverpool rail-road, we doubt much whether there be many more situations in the kingdom where it would be prudent to establish one. That carriages with passengers may be safely impelled along a perfectly level rail-road at a speed of 20 or 30 miles an hour, is a fact that is now proved experimentally; but before deciding as to the expediency of opening such a mode of communication between any two places, it is necessary to look carefully into the expense attending the formation of a rail-road with a suitable establishment of carriages, at the expense of keeping it and them in repair, and at the probable returns. The outlay, judging from what has taken place between Liverpool and Manchester, is quite enormous; the wear and tear of the engines, which is great under all circumstances, is increased in an extraordinary degree with every considerable increase of speed. We do not, therefore, consider the success that has hitherto attended the Liverpool and Manchester rail-road as at all warranting the construction of similar roads in most other places. The great size of these two towns, and still more their intimate connection,—Liverpool being, in fact, the port of Manchester and of the entire cotton district—occasions a very great intercourse between them: the number of passengers and the quantity of goods that are always in the course of being conveyed from the one to the other, is far greater than between any two equally distant places in the empire. If a rail-road had not succeeded in such a situation, it would have been madness to attempt the formation of one, at least as a mercantile speculation, anywhere else: and the fact that the dividend upon this very road has never hitherto exceeded 8½ per cent., affords but a slender presumption in favour of the success of several of the rail-road projects now afloat.

No general estimate can be formed of the comparative cost of canals and rail-roads; as it must, in every given instance, depend on special circumstances. It is, however, certain, that the cost of rail-roads, and particularly of keeping up the locomotive engines, is far greater than it was supposed it would be a short time since. It is reasonable, indeed, inasmuch as these engines are only in their infancy, to suppose that they will be gradually improved, and that ultimately their expense will be materially reduced; but at present it is a heavy drawback from the other advantages of rail-roads.

In as far as respects the conveyance of heavy goods, we believe that, even between Manchester and Liverpool, canals are generally preferred. It is not very material whether a ton of lime, or coal, or of manure, be moved with a velocity of 3 to 10 miles an hour; at least, the advantage of superior speed would, in such a case, be effectually overbalanced by a small additional charge.

The wonderful performances of the engines between Liverpool and Manchester struck, in the first instance, every one with astonishment, and led to the most extravagant speculations. It was supposed that the whole country would be forthwith intersected by rail-roads; that locomotive engines would be as common as stage coaches; and that the only way in which the canal proprietors could escape ruin, would be by converting canals into rail-roads! Soberer and sounder views are now entertained. The price of canal stock has recovered from the depression which it suffered in 1826. And it seems to be admitted by every one not expecting to profit by the prosecution of some scheme, that rail-roads between distant places, at least where a canal has already been constructed, must depend for returns chiefly on the conveyance of passengers and light goods; and that it would not be prudent to undertake their construction, except between places that have a very extensive intercourse together.

Steam Carriages on Common Roads.—A late committee of the House of Commons collected a good deal of evidence as to the probability of advantageously using locomotive engines or steam carriages on common roads. Most of the witnesses seem to have been very sanguine in their expectations. Mr. Farey, a very eminent practical engineer, declares that "what has been done proves to his satisfaction the practicability of impelling stage coaches by steam on good common roads, in tolerably level parts of the country, without horses, at a speed of 8 or 10 miles an hour." Mr. Farey further states, that he believes "that steam coaches will, very soon after their first establishment, be *run for one third of the cost of the present stage coaches.*" We suspect that the latter part of this statement is a good deal more problematical than the first; but since there is nothing better than conjecture on which to found an opinion, it would be useless to indulge in further speculations. We may, however, remark, that though 3 years have elapsed since this evidence was given,

there does not appear to be any material progress made towards realising the anticipations of the witnesses.

The subjoined list of the principal existing and projected rail-roads, showing the number and amount of the shares in each, the sum paid up, the selling price of the shares, &c. is taken from the *Share List*, for the 12th of October, 1833, published by Mr. Edmunds, Broker, No. 9 Exchange Alley, Cornhill.

No. of Shares.	Railways.	Shares.	Amount paid.	Sale price.	Dividends.	Time of Payment.
		£	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
5,100	Liverpool and Manchester	100	100 0 0	210 0 0	8 8 0	Jan. July.
1,600	Cromford and High Peak - -	100	100 0 0	20 0 0		
500	Canterbury - - - -	50	50 0 0	26 0 0		
250	Cheltenham - - - -	100	- -	78 0 0		
1,000	Croydon - - - -	65	- -	- -	- -	July.
1,000	Surrey - - - -	60	- -	- -	- -	July.
3,762	Severn and Wye - - -	50	- -	16 0 0	0 16 0	Mar. Sept.
2,500	Forest of Dean - - -	50	50 0 0	24 0 0	1 6 0	June, Dec.
1,000	Stockton and Darlington - -	100	100 0 0	295 0 0	8 0 0	May, Nov.
553	Monmouth - - - -	50	- -	- -		Ap. 1. Oct. 1.
2,000	Clarance (Durham) - - -	100	100 0 0	113 0 0		
1,560	Leicester and Swannington -	50	50 0 0	57 0 0		
	Newcastle-upon-Tyne & Carlisle	100	100 0 0	- -		
660	Bolton and Leigh - - -	100	- -	107 0 0		
	Grand Junction - - - -	-	10 0 0	19 0 0		
	Greenwich - - - -	20	1 0 0	1 3 6		
25,000	London and Birmingham - -	100	5 0 0	8 15 0		
	Bolton, Bury, &c. - - -	100	15 0 0			

(The railway from London to Birmingham, and from the latter to Manchester, which had only been commenced at the date of the publication of our last Supplement, is now completed. This is at once the longest and by far the most important railway in the empire. It has cost an immense sum; but the magnitude of the places which it connects, and the vast intercourse carried on between them, will no doubt render it one of the principal thoroughfares in the kingdom. Hence, notwithstanding the great outlay upon it, shares in both divisions of the road, but especially in that between London and Birmingham, are eagerly sought after, and bring a very high premium. The work is admirably executed, and does credit, not to the proprietors only, but to the nation.

Projects are now on foot for extending the London, Birmingham, and Manchester line as far as Glasgow. It has, in fact, been already carried to Preston; and, though the difficulties to be encountered in the more northerly part of the road are of a very formidable description, it seems most probable that it will be completed in its whole extent. Should this be accomplished, the journey from London to Glasgow will be performed in eighteen or twenty hours!

Besides this great line, railways have been projected, and are now (January 1840) nearly completed, between London and Bristol; London and Southampton; Carlisle and Newcastle, &c. Numbers have also been, or are in the course of being, made in other parts of the country. In 1834, 1835, and 1836, a vast number of acts for railways were passed, but it is doubtful whether several of them will ever be carried into effect. It would be premature to speculate as to the chances of their success; but the probability seems to be that, like canals, some of them will be exceedingly profitable; while others, and probably the greater number, will yield a very inadequate return. No doubt it may be fairly anticipated that great improvements will be made in the construction of railways, and especially of locomotive engines; and in consequence, even comparatively unfavourable lines may come, in the end, to yield large profits. But taking the chances as they now stand, and abstracting from future contingencies, railways promise to be, at the outset, quite as advantageous for the public as for their proprietors.

The most eligible lines for railways in Ireland have been surveyed, and an able report upon the subject drawn up by commissioners appointed by government. There seems, however, but little probability that any of these lines will be executed by private associations; and the proposal for executing them at the public expense, is of a very questionable description. It may perhaps be expedient, under the peculiar circumstances of Ireland, for government to co-operate in the formation of a few great lines of railway, somewhat on the plan that it has followed as respects the formation of roads in the Highlands; that is, by assisting individuals and companies: but we doubt whether government can go further without opening a door to all sorts of abuse.

Railway Legislation.—Our legislation as to railways, and most other descriptions of public works, appears to be as defective as can well be imagined. It is, it must be admitted, no easy matter to decide how far interference should be carried in such cases, and where it should stop. But still it seems sufficiently obvious, that in this case the public interests have been too little protected; or rather, that they have been sacrificed in a way not very creditable to parliament. At present the practice is for a railway act to authorise the company in whose favour it is granted to charge certain specified rates of toll on the passengers and goods to be conveyed by their road, not for 15, 20, or even 50 years, but *in all time to*

come! Now, as it appears to us, this is a singularly injudicious arrangement on the par of the public. There is, between any two or more places that may be named, a certain railway line that is preferable to any other that can be pointed out. The probability is that this line will be the first to be selected; and the act that gives it up to a company confers on the latter a virtual and substantial monopoly. The rates of charge imposed by the act are calculated to remunerate the projectors, supposing every thing to remain on the present footing. But the probability is that manufactures and population, in the places communicating by most lines of railway, will continue to increase in time to come, as they have done in time past; and it is all but certain that great improvements will be effected in the construction of roads and engines. Whatever, therefore, may be the chances of success at the outset, the fair presumption is, that most great lines of road will in the end be exceedingly productive. But, if we continue to abide by the present system, the public will be effectually excluded from all participation in these prospective advantages; and a few private associations will be able to make enormous profits, by monopolising improvements, and keeping up the expense of transit at an exorbitantly high level. It is idle to trust to competition to remedy a grievance of this sort. There may only be one practicable line of railway between two places; and if so, no other can, of course, come into competition with it. But though this were not the case, a company in possession of the best line might, if an opposition were threatened, reduce its rates till the opposition was defeated, and then raise them to the old level. Supposing, however, that a second road is made, its managers would most likely come to an understanding with the first, so that the tolls, instead of being reduced by the instrumentality of the new road, may be raised; and, were it otherwise, the question is, was the second road really necessary? Could not the first road have sufficed for the whole traffic to be carried on by both lines? If this be the case, it is clear the second road has been merely resorted to as a device for reducing the tolls charged on the first; as a means, in fact, for doing that, by an outlay of some hundreds of thousands, or it may be millions, of pounds, which might have been quite as effectually done by limiting the duration of the act authorising the first road, or by inserting a clause in it providing for the periodical revision of the tolls.

We are clear, indeed, that no act, authorising a private association to construct a railway or canal, to lay down gas pipes, to convey water into a town, or for any such purpose, ought ever to be passed without reserving to parliament power periodically to revise the tolls granted under it. Such revision would secure to the public a participation in future improvements, not in the contemplation of the parties when the project was entered upon; and it would do this without in any degree clogging the spirit of enterprise. Undertakings of this sort are not engaged in because there is a vague expectation, or even a considerable probability, of their yielding 20 or 30 per cent. of profit some 30 or 40 years hence; but because it is believed that they will immediately, or in the course of a few years, yield a reasonable profit; that is, a return of 8, 10, or 12 per cent. The chances of realising more than this at the distance of 20 or 25 years are rarely taken into account, and are worth very little indeed. This, however, is *all* that would be taken away by the revision in question; and, while a reservation of this sort would not stand in the way of any legitimate enterprise, the history of some of our existing companies shows that it may come to be of essential service to the public. We are therefore glad to have to state that, though late, the question respecting the propriety of reserving power to make periodical revisions of tolls on railways has been submitted to the consideration of parliament.* Some of the inconveniences that may arise out of the existing system as to railways, have already been experienced in the arrangements as to the conveyance of mails, and parliament has been obliged to interfere. But if parliament be short-sighted enough to concede certain rights and privileges to individuals or associations, without qualification or reservation, it has no right, on discovering its error, to endeavour to repair it by enacting new regulations to the detriment of the interests it has created. Its act has established rights in certain parties which cannot be taken away by any new act, so long, at least, as any respect is entertained for the law of property, without granting the parties full compensation. To this, they have an indisputable right; and should any disagreement take place, the question as to the amount of compensation should always be left to the decision of a jury.

Though we should be the last to propose throwing any obstacles in the way of new improvements or contrivances, still we do not see any good reason for promoting them by treating other parties unfairly. This, however, has been done to an enormous extent in the case of railways. We do not presume to say whether it is expedient that passengers and goods conveyed by railway should be subjected to any tax. But if one of the most desirable modes of conveyance be exempted from taxation, on what pretence do we justify the imposition of taxes on other modes? If passengers by mail or post coaches impelled by horses be obliged to pay a certain duty, why are passengers by mail or post coaches impelled by

* By Mr. Morrison, who brought it before the House of Commons in the course of 1836, in a speech containing a luminous exposition of the principles which justify the interference of the legislature in cases of this sort.

steam not subjected to the same duty? If it be meant by laying a comparatively heavy duty on the former to discourage the use of horses, and to make the various railway monopolies as complete as possible, the existing system is judiciously contrived, and will most likely be effectual to its object; but it is needless to say that in such matters competition cannot be carried to excess, and that it is the only security against irregularities, imposition, and insolence. And yet, by a singular contradiction, our legislation seems as if it proceeded on the assumption that competition is an evil, and that it cannot be too much discouraged. We subjoin a—

Statement of the Number of Railway Acts passed annually since 1801.

Years.	Acts.	Years.	Acts.	Years.	Acts.	Years.	Acts.
1801	1	1810	1	1819	1	1828	11
1802	2	1811	2	1820	0	1829	9
1803	1	1812	2	1821	1	1830	6
1804	1	1813	0	1822	0	1831	9
1805	0	1814	1	1823	1	1832	8
1806	0	1815	1	1824	2	1833	11
1807	0	1816	1	1825	5	1834	14
1808	1	1817	1	1826	6	1835	18
1809	2	1818	1	1827	6	1836	35

There is a very good account of the principal British railways in the *Companion to the Almanack for 1837*; and a statement of the number and amount of the shares in each, of the portions thereof that are paid up, and their selling price on the 25th of January, 1839, will be found in the article SHARES in this *Dictionary*.

American Railroads.—Rapid as has been the growth of railroads in this country, it is really insignificant, compared with their extension in America. Their progress there has been quite extraordinary. Several of those that have been completed in different parts of the Union, as well as several of those that are now in progress, are state undertakings; but the great majority have been set on foot and carried on by private associations. The first railway constructed in the United States was completed in 1825; and Mr. Pitkin states that, on the 1st of January, 1835, the railways that had either been or would very speedily be completed in different parts of the Union, amounted to about 1,600 miles in length; having cost, in the aggregate, about 30,000,000 of dollars!—(*Statistical View of the United States*, p. 574. ed. 1835.) During the last two years their progress has been more rapid than ever. In the course of last session (1836) the legislature of the state of New York incorporated no fewer than 42 railway companies: and in other parts of the Union their extension is hardly less wonderful. The New York and Erie railroad, commenced in 1835, is one of the greatest works of the kind that has ever been projected. It will be upwards of 500 miles in length! The Baltimore and Ohio railroad, 360 miles in length, has already been completed as far as Harper's Ferry, a distance of 86 miles; and in 1836 the legislature of Maryland voted 3,000,000 dollars to assist in its completion. Various railroads of equal importance have either been, or are about to be commenced in other states. Every where, indeed, throughout the Union, all sorts of public improvements, and especially canals and railways, are prosecuted with unparalleled alacrity and perseverance; and undertakings are every day entered upon and completed that might *à priori* have been concluded, even by the most sanguine projectors, as far beyond the means of so young a country.—(See *American Almanack for* 1837, *passim.*)—*Sup.*)

[See art. ROADS.—*Am. Ed.*]

RAISINS (Fr. *Raisins secs, ou passés*; Ger. *Rosinen*; It. *Uve passe*; Por. *Passas*; Rus. *Issum*; Sp. *Pasas*), the dried fruit of the vine. They are produced from various species of vines; deriving their names partly from the place where they grow, as Smyrna, Valencias, &c.; and partly from the species of grape of which they are made, as muscatels, blooms, sultanas, &c. Their quality appears, however, to depend more on the method of their cure than on any thing else. The finest raisins are cured in two methods;—either by cutting the stalk of the bunches half through, when the grapes are nearly ripe, and leaving them suspended on the vine till the watery part be evaporated, and the sun dries and candies them; or by gathering the grapes when they are fully ripe, and dipping them in a ley made of the ashes of the burnt tendrils; after which they are exposed to the sun to dry. Those cured in the first way are most esteemed, and are denominated raisins of the sun. The inferior sorts are very often dried in ovens.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

Raisins are imported in casks, barrels, boxes, and jars. The finest come in jars and ½ boxes weighing about 25 lbs. Some of the inferior sorts are brought to us in mats.

Of 216,283 cwt. of raisins imported in 1831, 105,006 came from Spain, 100,438 from Turkey, and 7,009 from Italy. Malaga raisins are in the highest estimation. The muscatels from Malaga fetch fully a third more than any other description of raisins. The Smyrna black is the cheapest variety, and may average from 32*s.* to 35*s.* a cwt., duty included; muscatels vary from 80*s.* to 130*s.*, duty included. But the price depends much on the season, and the period of the year.—(See MALAGA.)

The duty on raisins varies, according to the species, from 20*s.* to 42*s.* 6*d.* a cwt.; that is, it varies from about 130 per cent. on the cheapest sorts, to from 50 to 35 per cent. on the dearest. This exorbitant duty has confined the demand for raisins within very narrow limits, the entries for home consumption being, at an average of 1831 and 1832, only 150,254 cwt. a year. The fact is, that raisins are, at present, a luxury that can be enjoyed only by the rich: but were the duty reduced, as it ought to be,

...lb. a cwt. on the cheapest sorts, and 10*s.* or 12*s.* on the dearest, we are well assured that they would be very largely consumed by the middle classes; and that they would not unfrequently be used even by the lower. Nothing but the magnitude of the duties prevent them from becoming of very considerable importance as an article of food: and it is really quite monstrous, that the public should be debarred from the use of a desirable article, on the stale and stupid pretence of its being necessary, in order to keep up the revenue, that it should be loaded with an oppressive duty. We admit the importance of keeping up the revenue; but so far from exorbitant duties having such an effect, they contribute more than any thing else to its reduction. They either limit the consumption of the articles on which they are laid to the very richest classes, or they cause them to be clandestinely supplied; reducing the revenue as well as the consumption far below the level to which it would attain were the duties moderate. But it is needless to reason speculatively on such a point. Have we not seen the revenue derived from spirits increased, by reducing the duty from 8*s.* 6*d.* a gallon to 2*s.* 6*d.*? and the revenue derived from coffee trebled, by reducing the duty from 1*s.* 7*d.* per lb. to 6*d.*? And, as neither of these articles was more grossly overtaxed than raisins, have we not every reason to expect that a like effect would be produced by an adequate reduction of the duties by which they are burdened?

Exclusive of raisins, a considerable quantity of undried grapes is annually imported from Spain and Portugal, in jars, packed in sawdust. The duty on these grapes, which is 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, produced, in 1832, 1,720*l.*

Raisins, the produce of Europe, may not be imported for home consumption, except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which they are the produce, or from which they are imported, on forfeiture of the goods, and of 100*l.* by the captain of the ship.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 54. §§ 2. 22.)

No abatement of duty is made on account of any damage received by raisins.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 59. § 2.)

(The duty on *all* raisins, without distinction of quality, brought from a foreign country, has been reduced to 15*s.* a cwt.; and to half that sum on those brought from a British possession.—(4 & 5 *Will.* 4. c. 89. § 15.) This measure will, no doubt, materially increase the consumption of raisins. The tax ought, however, to have varied with the quality. A duty of 15*s.* a cwt. is not too much on Malaga muscatels; but, to be in proportion, the duty on Smyrna blacks should not exceed 5*s.* a cwt. For the quantities imported, exported, and cleared for consumption in 1836 and 1837, see *antè*, p. 33.—*Sup.*)

[Nearly a million of dollars worth of raisins was last year imported into the United States; chiefly from Malaga, and the other Mediterranean ports of Spain.—*Am. Ed.*]

RANGOON, a commercial port and town of the Burmese dominions, situated about 26 miles from the sea, on the left bank of the eastern branch of the river Irawaddy, in lat. 16° 47′ N., lon. 96° 20′ E. The town and suburbs extend lengthwise about 1 mile along the bank of the river, being about ¾ of a mile in depth; but the houses are very unequally scattered over this area. The fort, or rather wooden stockade, which contains the town, properly so called, is a regular square about 14 feet high, composed of heavy beams of teak timber. It appears from a census, taken a short time previously to the commencement of the war in 1824, that the population was 18,000, which, probably, is not far from its present amount.

Rangoon is the chief, and, indeed, almost the only, port of foreign trade in the Burmese dominions, which extend from between the 15th and 16th, up to the 26th and 27th degrees of N. lat., and from the 93d to the 98th degree of E. lon., containing an area of about 184,000 square miles, with a population of about 4,000,000. Its situation is extremely convenient for commercial purposes, being situated so near the sea, and commanding the navigation of the Irawaddy, which extends to Ava, the capital, a distance of nearly 500 miles. Rangoon is accessible to ships of even 1,200 tons burden; the navigation, although somewhat intricate, being safe and practicable with the assistance of the ordinary native pilots.

The town has many advantages for ship building. At neaps the tide rises and falls about 18 feet; and at springs from 25 to 30 feet. The principal teak forests are, at the same time, at a comparatively short distance, and there is a water conveyance for the timber nearly the whole way. Ship-building has, in fact, been carried on at Rangoon since 1786, and in the 38 years which preceded our capture of it, there had been built 111 square-rigged vessels of European construction, the total burden of which amounted to above 35,000 tons. Several of these were of from 800 to 1,000 tons. Under the direction of European masters, the Burmese were found to make dexterous and laborious artisans; in this respect, greatly surpassing the natives of our Indian provinces.

There are 2 considerable markets, where the ordinary necessaries of life, according to Burmese usage, are cheap and abundant: these are rice, excellent fish, and poultry.

Money.—The Burmese currency consists, for small payments, of lead; for larger ones, of gold and silver, but chiefly of the latter. There are no coins. At every payment, the metal must be weighed, and very generally assayed,—a rude and very inconvenient state of things. The weights used in the weighing of money are the same as those used on ordinary occasions; the kyat or tical, and the paikta or vis, being by far the most frequent. Silver may be considered as the standard. Gold is generally held to be about 17 times more valuable than silver. The weighing and assaying of the metals, used as currency, gives employment to a class of persons as brokers, money changers, and assayers. Every new assay costs the owner, if the metal be silver, 2½ per cent.; 1½ per cent. being the established commission of the assayers, while 1 per cent. is lost, or supposed to be lost, in the operation. If it be repeated 40 times, it follows that the original amount is wholly absorbed—a fact which shows the enormous waste of metal arising out of this rude substitute for coin.

Weights.—The weights in use at Rangoon, and throughout the Burman dominions, are as follow:—

2 Small Rwés (red beans)	= 1 Large Rwé.	2 Mus	= 1 Mat'h.
4 Large do.	= 1 Bal.	4 Mat'h's	= 1 Kyat, vulgo Tical.
2 Bals	= 1 Mu.	100 Kyats	= 1 Paiktha, vulgò Vis, = 3·65 lbs. avoir

Measures of capacity are as follow:—

2 Lungas	= 1 Lamé.	4 Salés	= 1 Pyi.
2 Lamés	= 1 Salé.	2 Pyis	= 1 Sarok.
2 Sarots	= 1 Sat.		
4 Sats	= 1 Tin.		

This last measure is what is usually called by us "a basket," and ought to weigh 16 vis of clean rice, of 58·4 lbs. avoirdupois: it has commonly been reckoned at ¼ a cwt. All grains, pulses, certain roots, natron, salt, and lime, are bought and sold by measure: other commodities by weight.

Commercial Regulations.—The following commercial treaty, entered into between the government of England and the Court of Ava, in 1826, regulates the intercourse between the two countries:

Art. I.—Peace being made, &c. &c.—when merchants with an English certified pass from the ocean

try of the English ruler, and merchants from the kingdom of Burma pass from one country to the other, selling and buying merchandise, the sentinels at the passes and entrances, the established gatekeepers of the country, shall make inquiry as usual, but without demanding any money; and all merchants coming truly for the purpose of trade, with merchandise, shall be suffered to pass without hindrance or molestation. The governments of both countries, also, shall permit ships with cargoes to enter ports and carry on trade, giving them the utmost protection and security. And in regard to duties, there shall none be taken beside the customary duties at the landing places of trade.

Art. 2.—Ships, whose breadth of beam on the inside (opening of the hold) is 8 royal Burman cubits, of 19·1 English inches each, and all ships of smaller size, whether merchants from the Burmese country entering an English port under the Burmese flag, or merchants from the English country, with an English stamped pass, entering a Burmese port under the English flag, shall be subject to no other demands beside the payment of duties, and 10 ticals, 25 per cent. (10 sicca rupees), for a passport on leaving. Nor shall pilotage be demanded, unless the captain voluntarily requires a pilot. However, when ships arrive, information shall be given to the officer stationed at the entrance of the sea. In regard to vessels, whose breadth of beam exceeds 8 royal cubits, they shall remain, according to the 9th article of the treaty of Yandabo, without unshipping their rudders or landing their guns, and be free from trouble and molestation as Burmese vessels in British ports. Besides the royal duties, no more duties shall be given or taken than such as are customary.

Art. 3.—Merchants belonging to one country, who go to the other country and remain there, shall, when they desire to return, go to whatever country and by whatever vessel they may desire, without hindrance. Property owned by merchants they shall be allowed to sell. And property not sold, and household furniture, they shall be allowed to take away, without hindrance, or incurring any expense.

Art. 4.—English and Burmese vessels meeting with contrary winds, or sustaining damage in masts, rigging, &c., or suffering shipwrecks on the shore, shall, according to the laws of charity, receive assistance from the inhabitants of the towns and villages that may be near, the master of the wrecked ship paying to those that assist suitable salvage, according to the circumstances of the case; and whatever property may remain, in case of shipwreck, shall be restored to the owner.

Commerce.—A considerable intercourse is carried on between the Burmese and Chinese dominions by an annual caravan, of which the merchants are all Chinese. The imports from China consist of manufactured articles, the chief export from Burma being cotton wool. The trade with foreign countries seaward is carried on with the ports of Chittagong, Dacca, and Calcutta, in Bengal; Madras and Masulipatam, on the Coromandel coast; the Nicobar Islands, in the Bay of Bengal; Penang, in the Straits of Malacca; and occasionally with the Persian and Arabian Gulfs. The largest trade is with Calcutta, owing to the great consumption of teak timber in the latter, and the facility with which she supplies the demand of the Burmese for Indian and British cotton goods. At an average of the 3 years ending with 1822-23, being those which immediately preceded the war with the British, there entered inwards at Calcutta, from the Burmese dominions, 22 ships, of the burden of 9,404 tons; and in the 3 years ending with 1829-30, 33 ships, of the burden of 8,920 tons. No direct trade has yet been carried on between Burma and any European country. The ships and tonnage which entered inwards at Madras from Burma were, in the 3 years ending with 1822-23, 5 ships, of the burden of 683 tons; and in the 3 years ending with 1829-30, 8 ships, of the burden of 1,170 tons. The articles exported to foreign countries from Rangoon are the following:—Teak wood, terra Japonica, or catechu, stick lac, bees' wax, elephants' teeth, raw cotton, orpiment, commonly called in India hurtal, gold, silver, rubies, sapphires, and horses, or rather the small, hardy pony of the country, which is much esteemed, particularly at Madras. By far the most important of these commodities is teak timber; the quantity of this wood annually exported is said to be equal to 7,500 full-sized trees, which, for the most part, consist of what India ship-builders call *shinbin*, which are planks hewn out of the log with the adze at an immense waste. The teak forests of Pegu are by far the most abundant in India. The teak is nowhere to be found in the low alluvial lands to which the tide reaches, but abounds in the high lands beyond its influence. It seems to be very generally disseminated throughout the Burmese dominions. In the territory ceded to the British in Martaban, there are some fine forests, the timber of which is cut down for exportation, and where it is believed that saw-mills have very recently been established by some European settlers. The most accessible and extensive forests of teak in the Burmese dominions are in the province of Sarawadi, about 150 miles to the north of Rangoon, with which there is a water communication. The principal imports into Burma are cotton, piece goods from India and Britain, British woollens, iron, steel, quicksilver, copper, cordage, borax, sulphur, gunpowder, saltpetre, fire-arms, coarse porcelain, English glass ware, opium, tobacco, cocoa and areca nuts, sugar, and spirits. Of these, by far the most important is cotton piece goods. The Burmese have few cotton manufactures of their own, and appear from very early times to have been furnished with the principal part of their supply from the Coromandel coast. To these were afterwards added the cheaper fabrics of Bengal; and both are now, in a great measure, superseded by British manufactures, the use of which has spread very rapidly since the opening of the trade in 1814. In 1826-27, the exports and imports of the port of Rangoon were estimated each at the rate of 300,000*l.*—(We are indebted for this valuable article to our esteemed friend, John Crawfurd, Esq., who ascertained the particulars on the spot.)

RAPE, a biennial plant of the turnip kind (*Brassica napus* Lin.), but with a woody fusiform root scarcely fit to be eaten. It is indigenous, flowers in May, and ripens its seeds in July. It is cultivated in many parts of England, particularly in Lincoln and Cambridge; partly on account of its seed, which is crushed for oil, and partly for its leaves as food for sheep. The culture of rape for seed has been much objected to by some, on account of its supposed great exhaustion of the land: but Mr. Loudon says that, where the soil and preparation are suitable, the after-culture properly attended to, and the straw and offal, instead of being burnt, as is the common practice, converted to the purpose of feeding and littering cattle, it may, in many instances, be the most proper and advantageous crop that can be employed by the farmer. The produce, when the plant succeeds well, and the season is favourable for securing the seed, amounts to from 40 to 50 bushels an acre. The seed is sold by the last of 10 quarters; and is crushed in mills constructed for that purpose. —(*Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture.*)

In addition to the rape-seed raised at home, we import considerable quantities, principally from Denmark. In 1831, our imports amounted to 407,375 bushels; of which 290,368 were from Denmark, 57,916 from Germany, 41,964 from France, with smaller quantities from Prussia, the Netherlands, and Italy. At an average of 1831 and 1832, the entries of foreign rape-seed for home consumption amounted to 494,798 bushels a year, producing an annual revenue of 3,105*l.* The price of English rape-seed in December, 1833, varied from 28*l.* to 29*l.* per last; the duty on foreign rape-seed is 10*s.* a last.

Rape-seed, the produce of Europe, may not be imported for home consumption, except in British

ships, or in ships of the country of which it is the produce, or from which it is imported.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 54. §§ 2. 22.)

RAPE-CAKE, is the adhering masses of the husks of rape-seed, after the oil has been expressed. They are reduced to powder by a malt mill or other machine; and are used either as a top dressing for crops of different kinds, or are drilled along with turnip seed. Rape cakes were worth, in December, 1833, from 5*l.* to 6*l.* a ton; and rape oil from 1*l.* 15*s.* to 1*l.* 17*s.* a cwt. In 1830, we imported about 230,000 cwt. of rape and other oil cake. It is charged with a duty of 2*d.* a cwt.

RATTANS, or CANES, the long slender shoots of a prickly bush (*Calamus rotang* Lin.), one of the most useful plants of the Malay peninsula, and the Eastern islands. They are exported to Bengal, to Europe, and above all to China, where they are consumed in immense quantities. For cane work they should be chosen long, of a bright pale yellow colour, well glazed, and of a small size, not brittle, or subject to break. They are purchased by the bundle, which ought to contain 100 rattans, having their ends bent together, and tied in the middle. In China they are sold by the picul, which contains from 9 to 12 bundles. Such as are black or dark coloured, snap short, or from which the glazing flies off on their being bent, should be rejected. When stowed as dunnage, they are generally allowed to pass free of freight.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com., &c.*) The imports into this country are very considerable. In 1830, the number imported was 2,414,562; in 1831, 3,908,423; and in 1832, 3,922,955.—(*Parl. Paper.* No. 425. Sess. 1833.)

"The rattan," says Mr. Crawfurd, "is the spontaneous product of all the forests of the Archipelago; but exists in great perfection in those of the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, and of the Malayan peninsula. The finest are produced in the country of the *Bataks* of Sumatra. The wood-cutter, who is inclined to deal in this article, proceeds into the forest without any other instrument than his *parang* or cleaver, and cuts as much as he is able to carry away. The mode of performing the operation is this;—He makes a notch in the tree at the root of which the rattan is growing, and cutting the latter, strips off a small portion of the outer bark, and inserts the part that is peeled into the notch. The rattan now being pulled through as long as it continues of an equal size, is by this operation neatly and readily freed from its *epidermis*. When the wood-cutter has obtained by this means from 300 to 400 rattans,—being as many as an individual can conveniently carry in their moist and undried state,—he sits down, and ties them up in bundles of 100, each rattan being doubled before being thus tied up. After drying, they are fit for the market without further preparation. From this account of the small labour expended in bringing them to market, they can be sold at a very cheap rate. The Chinese junks obtain them in Borneo at the low rate of 5 Spanish dollars per 100 bundles, or 5 cents for each 100 rattans, or 27 for 1*d.* The natives always vend them by tale; but the resident European residents, and the Chinese, by weight, counting by piculs. According to their quantity, and the relative state of supply and demand, the European merchants dispose of them at from 1½ to 2½ dollars the picul. In China, the price is usually about 3½ dollars per picul, or 75 per cent. above the average prime cost. In Bengal they are sold by tale, each bundle of about 100 rattans bringing about 20½*d.*"—(*Indian Archipelago*, vol. iii. p. 423.)

REAL, in the Spanish monetary system, is of two sorts; viz. a *real of plate* and a *real vellon*. The former is a silver coin, varying in value from about 6½*d.* to 5*d.*—(See COINS.) A real vellon is a money of account, worth about 2½*d.*

REAM, a quantity of paper. The ream of writing paper consists of 20 quires, each of 24 sheets; but the ream of printing paper, or, as it is sometimes called, the *printers' ream*, extends to 21½ quires, or 516 sheets. Two reams of paper make a *bundle*.

RECEIPT, is an acknowledgment in writing of having received a sum of money, or other valuable consideration. It is a voucher either of an obligation or debt discharged, or of one incurred.

The 35 Geo. 3. c. 55. enacts, that every note, memorandum, or writing whatever, given to any person on the payment of money, acknowledging such payment, on whatever account it be, and whether signed or not, shall be considered a receipt, and liable to a stamp duty.

And every person who shall write, or cause to be written, any receipt for money on unstamped paper, (except in certain excepted cases hereafter enumerated,) or on a lower stamp than the proper one, shall forfeit 10*l.* if for a sum under 100*l.*; if above, 20*l.*

Giving receipts for less than actually paid, writing off sums, or other fraudulent contrivances, penalty 50*l.*; but receipts may be stamped if brought *within fourteen days after date*, on payment of a penalty of 5*l.* over and above the duty; and if brought within one calendar month, on payment of a penalty of 10*l.* and the duty.

Any person refusing to give a receipt upon demand, or to pay the amount of the stamp, is liable to a penalty of 10*l.*

Scale of Stamp Duties per 55 Geo. 3. c. 184.

Receipt or discharge, given for or upon the payment of money, amounting to				*L.*	*s.*	*d.*
1*l.* and under 2*l.*				0	0	3
2*l.*	—	5*l.*		0	0	6
5*l.*	—	10*l.*		0	1	0
10*l.*	—	20*l.*		0	1	6
20*l.*	—	30*l.*		0	2	6
30*l.*	—	50*l.*		0	4	0
50*l.*	—	100*l.*		0	5	0
100*l.*	—	1,000*l.*		0	7	6
1,000*l.* and upwards				0	10	0
And where any sum shall be therein expressed to be received in full of all demands				0	10	0

And any note, memorandum, or writing whatsoever, given to any person for or upon the payment of money, whereby any sum of money, debt, or demand, or any part of any debt or demand, therein specified, and amounting to 5*l.* or upwards, shall be expressed to have been paid, settled, balanced, or otherwise discharged or satisfied, or which shall import or signify any such acknowledgment, and whether the same shall or shall not be signed with the name of any person, shall be deemed to be a receipt for a sum of money of equal amount with the sum so expressed to have been paid, settled, balanced, or otherwise discharged or satisfied, and shall be charged with a duty accordingly.

Previously to 1833 all receipts for sums of 2*l.* and under 5*l.* were charged with a stamp duty of 2*d.*; but the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 23., exempts all receipts for sums under 5*l.* from the duty.

Exemptions.—Receipts exempted from stamp duty by any act relating to the assessed taxes. Receipts given by the Treasurer of the Navy. Receipts on account of the pay of the army or ordnance. Receipts by any officer, seaman, marine, or soldier, or their representatives. Receipts for the consideration money for the purchase of any parliamentary stocks or funds, and for any dividend paid on any share of the said stocks or funds. Receipts on Exchequer Bills. Receipts given for money deposited in the Bank of England, or in the hands of any banker, to be accounted for on demand; provided the same be not expressed to be received of, or by the hands of, any other than the person to whom the same is to be accounted for. Receipts written upon promissory notes, bills of exchange, drafts, or orders for the payment of money. Receipts given upon bills or notes of the Bank of England. Letters by the general post acknowledging the safe arrival of any bills of exchange, promissory notes, or other securities. Receipts indorsed upon any bond, mortgage, or other security, or any conveyance whatever. Releases or discharges for money by deeds duly stamped. Receipts or discharges for drawbacks or bounties. Receipts or discharges for the return of duties of customs. Receipts indorsed upon navy bills. Receipts upon victualling and transport bills. Receipts given solely for the duty on insurances against fire.

In 1832, the nett produce of the receipt duty was as follows:—Great Britain, 194,501*l.* 10*s.*; Ireland, 17,993*l.* 7*s.* 9*d.*

REGISTRY, in commercial navigation, the registration or enrolment of ships at the Custom-house, so as to entitle them to be classed among, and to enjoy the privileges of, British built ships.

The registry of ships appears to have been first introduced into this country by the

Navigation Act (12 Car. 2. c. 18. anno 1660). Several provisions were made with respect to it by the 7 & 8 Will. 3. c. 22.; and the whole was reduced into a system by the 27 Geo. 3. c. 19.

It may be laid down in general, that a vessel, in order to be admitted to registry, and consequently to enjoy the privileges and advantages that exclusively belong to a British ship, must be the property of his Majesty's subjects in the United Kingdom or some of its dependencies; and that it must have been built in the said United Kingdom, &c., or been a prize vessel legally condemned, or a vessel legally condemned for a breach of the slave laws.

The great, and, perhaps, the only original object of the registration of ships, was to facilitate the exclusion of foreign ships from those departments in which they were prohibited from engaging by the navigation laws, by affording a ready means of distinguishing such as were really British. It has also been considered advantageous to individuals, by preventing the fraudulent assignment of property in ships; but Lord Tenterden has observed, in reference to this supposed advantage, that "the instances in which fair and honest transactions are rendered unavailable through a negligent want of compliance with the forms directed by these and other statutes requiring a public register of conveyances, make the expediency of all such regulations, considered with reference to private benefit only, a matter of question and controversy."—(*Law of Shipping*, part. i. c. 2.)

The existing regulations as to the registry of ships are embodied in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55., which, on account of its importance, is subjoined nearly entire.

Act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55., for registering of British Vessels.

Commencement of Act.—From 1st of September, 1833, except where any other commencement is herein-after particularly directed.

No Vessel to enjoy Privileges until registered.—No vessel shall be entitled to any of the privileges or advantages of a British registered ship unless the person or persons claiming property therein shall have caused the same to have been registered in virtue of the act 6 Geo. 4. c. 110, or of the act 4 Geo. 4. c. 41., or until such person or persons shall have caused the same to be registered in manner herein-after mentioned, and have obtained a certificate of such registry from the person or persons authorised to make such registry and grant such certificate as herein-after directed; the form of which certificate shall be as follows; viz.—

"This is to certify, that in pursuance of an act passed in the 6th year of the reign of King Will. 4, intituled, An Act *[here insert the title of this act, the names, occupation, and residence of the subscribing owners]*, having made and subscribed the declaration required by the said act, and having declared that [he or they] together with *[names, occupations, and residence of non-subscribing owners]* [is or are] sole owner or owners, in the proportions specified on the back hereof, of the ship or vessel called the *[ship's name]* of *[place to which the vessel belongs]*, which is of the burden of *[number of tons]*, and whereof *[master's name]* is master, and that the said ship or vessel was *[when and where built, or condemned as prize, referring to builder's certificate, judge's certificate, or certificate of last registry, then delivered up to be cancelled]*, and *[name and employment of surveying officer]* having certified to us that the said ship or vessel has *[number]* decks and *[number]* masts, that her length from the fore part of the main stem to the after part of the stern post aloft is *[number of feet and inches]*, her breadth at the broadest part *[stating whether that be above or below the main wales]* in *[number of feet and inches]*, her *[height between decks if more than 1 deck, or depth in the hold if only 1 deck]* is *[number of feet and inches]*, and that she is *[how rigged]* rigged with a *[standing or running]* bowsprit, is *[descriptions of stern]* sterned, *[carved or cloncher]* built, has *[whether any or no]* gallery, and *[kind of head, if any]* head; and the said subscribing owners having consented and agreed to the above description, and having caused sufficient security to be given as is required by the said act, the said ship or vessel called the *[name]* has been duly registered at the port of *[name of port]*. Certified under our hands at the Custom-house in the said port of *[name of port]* this *[date]* day of *[name of month]* in the year *[words at length]*.

[*Signed*] Collector.
[*Signed*] Comptroller."

And on the back of such certificate of registry there shall be an account of the parts or shares held by each of the owners mentioned and described in such certificate, in the form and manner following. —§ 3.

Names of the several owners within mentioned.	Number of sixty-fourth shares held by each owner.
[*Name*]	*Thirty-two.*
[*Name*]	*Sixteen.*
[*Name*]	*Eight.*
[*Name*]	*Eight.*

[*Signed*] Collector.
[*Signed*] Comptroller."

Persons authorised to make Registry and grant Certificates.—The persons authorised and required to make such registry and grant such certificates shall be the several persons herein-after mentioned and described; (that is to say,)

The collector and comptroller of customs in any port in the United Kingdom, and in the Isle of Man respectively, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered:

The principal officers of customs in the island of Guernsey or Jersey, together with the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of those islands respectively, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered:

The collector and comptroller of customs of any port in the British possessions in Asia, Africa, and America, or the collector of any such port at which no appointment of a comptroller has been made, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered:

The collector of duties at any port in the territories under the government of the East India Company, within the limits of the charter of the said company, or any other person of the rank in the said company's service of senior merchant, or of 6 years standing in the said service, being respectively appointed to act in the execution of this act by any of the governments of the said company, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered:

The collector of duties at any British possession within the said limits, and not under the government of the said company, and at which a Custom-house is not established, together with the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of such possession, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered:

The governor, lieutenant governor, or commander-in-chief of Malta, Gibraltar, Heligoland, and Cape of Good Hope respectively, in respect of ships or vessels to be there registered:

Provided that no ship or vessel to be registered at Heligoland, except such as is wholly of the built of that place, and that ships or vessels, after having been registered at Malta, Gibraltar, or Heligoland, shall not be registered elsewhere; and that ships or vessels registered at Malta, Gibraltar, or Heligoland, shall not be entitled to the privileges and advantages of British ships in any trade between the said United Kingdom and any of the British possessions in America: provided also, that wherever in and by this act it is directed or provided that any act, matter, or thing shall and may be done or performed by, to, or with any collector and comptroller of his Majesty's customs, the same shall or may be done or performed by, to, or with the several persons respectively herein-before authorised and required to make registry, and to grant certificates of registry as aforesaid, and according as the same act, matter, or thing is to be done or performed at the said several and respective places, and within the jurisdiction of the said several persons respectively: provided also, that wherever in and by this act it is directed or provided that any act, matter, or thing shall or may be done or performed by, to, or with the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, the same shall or may be done or performed by,

to, or with the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of any place where any ship or vessel may be registered under the authority of this act, so far as such act, matter, or thing can be applicable to the registering of any ship or vessel at such place.—§ 3.

Ships exercising Privileges before Registry to be forfeited.—In case any ship or vessel not being duly registered, and not having obtained such certificate of registry as aforesaid, shall exercise any of the privileges of a ship, the same shall be subject to forfeiture, and also all the guns, furniture, ammunition, tackle, and apparel to the same ship or vessel belonging, and shall and may be seized by any officer or other of his Majesty's customs: provided always, that nothing in this act shall extend or be construed to extend to affect the privileges of any ship or vessel which shall, prior to the commencement of this act, have been registered by virtue of an act passed in the 6th year of the reign of his late Majesty George IV., intituled "An Act for the registering of British Vessels."—§ 4.

What Ships are entitled to be registered.—No ship or vessel shall be registered, or having been registered shall be deemed to be duly registered, by virtue of this act, except such as are wholly of the built of the said United Kingdom, or of the Isle of Man, or of the islands of Guernsey or Jersey, or of some of the colonies, plantations, islands, or territories in Asia, Africa, or America, or of Malta, Gibraltar, or Heligoland, which belong to his Majesty, his heirs or successors, at the time of the building of such ships or vessels, or such ships or vessels as shall have been condemned in any court of admiralty as prize of war, or such ships or vessels as shall have been condemned in any competent court as forfeited for the breach of the laws made for the prevention of the slave trade, and which shall wholly belong and continue wholly to belong to his Majesty's subjects duly entitled to be owners of ships or vessels registered by virtue of this act.—§ 5.

Mediterranean Pass may be issued at Malta or Gibraltar for certain Ships only.—No Mediterranean pass shall be issued for the use of any ship, as being a ship belonging to Malta or Gibraltar, except such as be duly registered at those places respectively, or such as, not being entitled to be so registered, shall have wholly belonged, before the 10th day of October, 1827, and shall have continued wholly to belong, to persons actually residing at those places respectively, as inhabitants thereof, and entitled to be owners of British ships there registered, or who, not being so entitled, shall have so resided upwards of 15 years prior to the said 10th day of October, 1827.—§ 6.

Foreign Repairs not to exceed 20s. per Ton.—No ship or vessel shall continue to enjoy the privileges of a British ship after the same shall have been repaired in a foreign country, if such repairs shall exceed the sum of 20*s.* for every ton of the burden of the said ship or vessel, unless such repairs shall have been necessary by reason of extraordinary damage sustained by such ship or vessel during her absence from his Majesty's dominions, to enable her to perform the voyage in which she shall have been engaged, and to return to some port or place in the said dominions; and whenever any ship or vessel which has been so repaired in a foreign country shall arrive at any port in his Majesty's dominions as a British registered ship or vessel, the master or other person having the command or charge of the same shall, upon the first entry thereof, report to the collector and comptroller of his Majesty's customs at such port that such ship or vessel has been so repaired, under penalty of 20*s.* for every ton of the burden of such ship or vessel, according to the admeasurement thereof; and if it shall be proved to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs that such ship or vessel was seaworthy at the time when she last departed from any port or place in his Majesty's dominions, and that no greater quantity of such repairs have been done to the said vessel than was necessary as aforesaid, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners, upon a full consideration of all the circumstances, to direct the collector and comptroller of the port where such ship or vessel shall have arrived, or where she shall then be, to certify on the certificate of the registry of such ship or vessel that it has been proved to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs that the privileges of the said ship or vessel have not been forfeited, notwithstanding the repairs which have been done to the same in a foreign country.—§ 7.

Ships declared unseaworthy to be deemed Ships lost or broken up.—If any ship or vessel registered under the authority of this or any other act shall be deemed or declared to be stranded or unseaworthy, and incapable of being recovered or repaired to the advantage of the owners thereof, and shall for such reasons be sold by order or decree of any competent court for the benefit of the owners of such ship or vessel, or other persons interested therein, the same shall be taken and deemed to be a ship or vessel lost or broken up to all intents and purposes within the meaning of this act, and shall never again be entitled to the privileges of a British built ship for any purposes of trade or navigation.—§ 8.

British Ships captured not to be again entitled to Registry, &c.—No British ship or vessel which has been or shall hereafter be captured by and become prize to an enemy or sold to foreigners shall again be entitled to the privileges of a British ship: provided that nothing contained in this act shall extend to prevent the registering of any ship or vessel whatever which shall afterwards be condemned in any court of admiralty as prize of war, or in any competent court, for breach of laws made for the prevention of the slave trade.—§ 9.

Ships shall be registered at the port to which they belong.—No such registry shall hereafter be made, or certificate thereof granted, by any person or persons herein-before authorised to make such registry and grant such certificate, in any other port or place than the port or place to which such ship or vessel shall properly belong, except so far as relates to such ships or vessels as shall be condemned as prizes in any of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, or Man, which ships or vessels shall be registered in manner herein-after directed; but that all and every registry and certificate made and granted in any port or place to which any such ship or vessel does not properly belong shall be utterly null and void to all intents and purposes, unless the officers aforesaid shall be specially authorised and empowered to make such registry and grant such certificate in any other port by an order in writing under the hands of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, which order the said commissioners are hereby authorised and empowered to issue, if they shall see fit; and at every port where registry shall be made in pursuance of this act, a book shall be kept by the collector and comptroller, in which all the particulars contained in the form of the certificate of the registry herein-before directed to be used shall be duly entered; and every registry shall be numbered in progression, beginning such progressive numeration at the commencement of each and every year; and such collector and comptroller shall forthwith, or within 1 month at the farthest, transmit to the commissioners of his Majesty's customs a true and exact copy, together with the number, of every certificate which shall be by them so granted.—§ 10.

Port to which Vessels shall be deemed to belong.—Every ship or vessel shall be deemed to belong to some port at or near to which some one of the owners, who shall make and subscribe the declaration required by this act before registry be made, shall reside; and whenever such owner or owners shall have transferred all his or their share or shares in such ship or vessel, the same shall be registered *de novo* before such ship or vessel shall sail or depart from the port to which she shall then belong, or from any other port which shall be in the same part of the United Kingdom, or the same colony, plantation, island, or territory as the said port shall be in: provided always, that if the owner or owners of such ship or vessel cannot in sufficient time comply with the requisites of this act, so that registry may be made before it shall be necessary for such ship or vessel to sail or depart upon another voyage, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of the port where such ship or vessel

may then be to certify upon the back of the existing certificate of registry of such ship or vessel, that the same is to remain in force for the voyage upon which the said ship or vessel is then about to sail or depart: provided also, that if any ship or vessel shall be built in any of the colonies, plantations, islands, or territories in Asia, Africa, or America, to his Majesty belonging, for owners residing in the United Kingdom, and the master of such ship or vessel, or the agent for the owner or owners thereof, shall have produced to the collector and comptroller of the port at or near to which such ship or vessel was built, the certificate of the builder required by this act, and shall have made and subscribed a declaration before such collector and comptroller of the names and descriptions of the principal owners of such ship or vessel, and that she is the identical ship or vessel mentioned in such certificate of the builder, and that no foreigner, to the best of his knowledge and belief, has any interest therein; the collector and comptroller of such port shall cause such ship or vessel to be surveyed and measured in like manner as is directed for the purpose of registering any ship or vessel, and shall give the master of such ship or vessel a certificate under their hands and seals, purporting to be under the authority of this act, and stating when and where and by whom such ship or vessel was built, the description, tonnage, and other particulars required on registry of any ship or vessel, and such certificate shall have all the force and virtue of a certificate of registry under this act, during the term of 2 years, unless such ship shall sooner arrive at some place in the United Kingdom; and such collector and comptroller shall transmit a copy of such certificate to the commissioners of his Majesty's customs.—§ 11.

Persons residing in foreign Countries may not be Owners.—No person who has taken the oath of allegiance to any foreign state, except under the terms of some capitulation, unless he shall afterwards become a denizen or naturalised subject of the United Kingdom by his Majesty's letters patent or by act of parliament, nor any person usually residing in any country not under the dominion of his Majesty, his heirs and successors, unless he be a member of some British factory, or agent for or partner in any house or copartnership actually carrying on trade in Great Britain or Ireland, shall be entitled to be the owner, in whole or in part, directly or indirectly, of any ship or vessel required and authorised to be registered by virtue of this act: save and except that it shall be lawful for any person who was a member of the company of merchants trading to the Levant seas at the time of its dissolution, and who was a resident at any of the factories of the said company, to continue to hold any share or shares in any British registered ship of which at the time of such residence he was an owner or part owner, although such person shall continue to reside at any of the places where such factories had existed prior to the dissolution of the said company.—§ 12.

Declaration to be made by subscribing Owners previous to Registry.—No registry shall henceforth be made or certificate granted until the following declaration be made and subscribed, before the person or persons herein-before authorised to make such registry, and grant such certificate respectively, by the owner of such ship or vessel if such ship or vessel is owned by or belongs to 1 person only, or in case there shall be 2 joint owners, then by both of such joint owners if both shall be resident within 20 miles of the port or place where such registry is required, or by 1 of such owners if 1 or both of them shall be resident at a greater distance from such port or place; or if the number of such owners or proprietors shall exceed 2, then by the greater part of the number of such owners or proprietors if the greater number of them shall be resident within 20 miles of such port or place as aforesaid, not in any case exceeding 3 of such owners or proprietors, unless a greater number shall be desirous to join in making and subscribing the said declaration, or by 1 of such owners if all, or all except 1, shall be resident at a greater distance:

"I *A. B.* of [*place of residence and occupation*] do truly declare, that the ship or vessel [*name*] of [*port or place*], whereof [*master's name*] is at present master, being [*kind of built, burden, &c. as described in the certificate of the surveying officer*], was [*when and where built, or, if prize or forfeited, capture and condemnation as such*], and that I the said *A. B.* [*and the other owners' names and occupations, if any, and where they respectively reside, viz. town, place, or parish, and county, or if member of and resident in any factory in foreign parts, or in any foreign town or city, being an agent for or partner in any house or copartnership actually carrying on trade in Great Britain or Ireland, the name of such factory, foreign town, or city, and the names of such house and copartnership*] am [or are] sole owner [or owners] of the said vessel, and that no other person or persons whatever hath or have any right, title, interest, share or property therein or thereto; and that I the said *A. B.* [*and the said other owners, if any*], am [or are] truly and bona fide a subject [or subjects] of Great Britain; and that I the said *A. B.* have not [*nor have any of the other owners, to the best of my knowledge and belief*] taken the oath of allegiance to any foreign state whatever [*except under the terms of some capitulation, describing the particulars thereof*], or that since my taking [or his or their taking] the oath of allegiance to [*naming the foreign prince respectively to which he or any of the said owners shall have taken the same*] I have [or he or they hath or have] become a denizen [or denizens, or naturalised subject or subjects, *as the case may be*] of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland by his Majesty's letters patent or by an act of parliament [*naming the times when such letters of denization have been granted respectively, or the year or years in which such act or acts for naturalization have passed respectively*]; and that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any share or part interest in the said ship or vessel."

Provided always, that if it shall become necessary to register any ship or vessel belonging to any corporate body in the United Kingdom, the following declaration, in lieu of the declaration herein-before directed, shall be taken and subscribed by the secretary, or other proper officer of such corporate body; (that is to say,)

"I *A. B.* secretary or officer of [*name of company or corporation*] do truly declare, that the ship or vessel [*name*] of [*port*] whereof [*master's name*] is at present master, being [*kind of built, burden, &c. as described in the certificate of the surveying officer*], was [*when and where built, or, if prize or forfeited, capture and condemnation as such*], and that the same doth wholly and truly belong to [*name of company or corporation*]."—Sect. 13.

Addition to Declaration in case the required Number of Owners do not attend.—In case the required number of joint owners or proprietors of any ship or vessel shall not personally attend to make and subscribe the declaration herein-before directed to be made and subscribed, then and in such case such owner or owners, proprietor or proprietors, as shall personally attend and make and subscribe the declaration aforesaid, shall further declare that the part owner or part owners of such ship or vessel then absent is or are not resident within 20 miles of such port or place, and hath or have not, to the best of his or their knowledge or belief, wilfully absented himself or themselves in order to avoid the making the declaration herein-before directed to be made and subscribed, or is or are prevented by illness from attending to make and subscribe the said declaration.—§ 14.

Vessels to be surveyed previous to Registry.—Previous to the registering or granting of any certificate of registry as aforesaid, some one or more person or persons appointed by the commissioners of customs (taking to his or their assistance, if he or they shall judge it necessary, one or more person or persons skilled in the building and admeasurement of ships) shall go on board of every such ship or vessel as is to be registered, and shall strictly and accurately examine and admeasure every such ship or vessel as to all and every particular contained in the form of the certificate herein-before directed, in the presence of the master, or of any other person who shall be appointed for that purpose on the part of the owner or owners, or in his or their absence by the said master; and shall deliver a true and just account in writing of all such particulars of the built, description, and admeasurement of every such ship or vessel as are specified in the form of the certificate above recited to the collector and comptroller authorised as aforesaid to make such registry and grant such certificate of registry; and the said master or other person attending on the part of the owner or owners is hereby required to sign his name also to the certificate of such surveying or examining officer, in testimony of the truth thereof, provided such master or other person shall consent and agree to the several particulars set forth and described therein.—§ 15.

Mode of Admeasurement to ascertain Tonnage.—For the purpose of ascertaining the tonnage of ships or vessels, the rule for admeasurement shall be as follows; (that is to say,) the length shall be taken

on a straight line along the rabbit of the keel, from the back of the main stern-post to a perpendicular line from the fore part of the main stem under the bowsprit, from which subtracting 3-5ths of the breadth, the remainder shall be esteemed the just length of the keel to find the tonnage; and the breadth shall be taken from the outside of the outside plank in the broadest part of the ship, whether that shall be above or below the main wales, exclusive of all manner of doubling planks that may be wrought upon the sides of the ship; then multiplying the length of the keel by the breadth so taken, and that product by ½ the breadth, and dividing the whole by 94, the quotient shall be deemed the true contents of the tonnage.—§ 16.

Mode of ascertaining Tonnage when Vessels are afloat.—In cases where it may be necessary to ascertain the tonnage of any ship or vessel when afloat, according to the foregoing rule, the following method shall be observed; (that is to say,) drop a plumb line over the stern of the ship, and measure the distance between such line and the after part of the stern-post at the load water-mark, then measure from the top of the plumb line, in a parallel direction with the water, to a perpendicular point immediately over the load water-mark at the fore part of the main stem, subtracting from such measurement the above distance, the remainder will be the ship's extreme, from which is to be deducted 3 inches for every foot of the load draught of water for the rake abaft, also 3-5ths of the ship's breadth for the rake forward, the remainder shall be esteemed the just length of the keel to find the tonnage; and the breadth shall be taken from outside to outside of the plank in the broadest part of the ship, whether that shall be above or below the main wales, exclusive of all manner of sheathing or doubling that may be wrought on the side of the ship; then multiplying the length of the keel for tonnage by the breadth so taken, and that product by ½ the breadth, and dividing by 94, the quotient shall be deemed the true contents of the tonnage.—§ 17.

Engine-room in Steam Vessels to be deducted.—In each of the several rules herein-before prescribed, when used for the purpose of ascertaining the tonnage of any ship or vessel propelled by steam, the length of the engine room shall be deducted from the whole length of such ship or vessel, and the remainder shall, for such purpose, be deemed the whole length of the same.—§ 18.

Tonnage when so ascertained to be ever after deemed the Tonnage.—Whenever the tonnage of any ship or vessel shall have been ascertained according to the rule herein prescribed (except in the case of ships or vessels which have been admeasured afloat), such account of tonnage shall ever after be deemed the tonnage of such ship or vessel, and shall be repeated in every subsequent registry of such ship or vessel, unless it shall happen that any alteration has been made in the form and burden of such ship or vessel, or it shall be discovered that the tonnage of such ship or vessel had been erroneously taken and computed.—§ 19.

Bond to be given at the time of Registry.—At the time of the obtaining of the certificate of registry as aforesaid, sufficient security by bond shall be given to his majesty, his heirs and successors, by the master and such of the owners as shall personally attend, as is herein-before required, such security to be approved of and taken by the person or persons herein-before authorised to make such registry and grant such certificate of registry at the port or place in which such certificate shall be granted, in the penalties following; (that is to say,) if such ship or vessel shall be a decked vessel, or be above the burden of 15 tons, and not exceeding 50 tons, then in the penalty of 100*l.*; if exceeding the burden of 50 tons and not exceeding 100 tons, then in the penalty of 300*l.*; if exceeding the burden of 100 tons and not exceeding 200 tons, then in the penalty of 500*l.*; if exceeding the burden of 200 tons and not exceeding 300 tons, then in the penalty of 800*l.*; and if exceeding the burden of 300 tons, then in the penalty of 1,000*l.*; and the condition of every such bond shall be, that such certificate shall not be sold, lent, or otherwise disposed of to any person or persons whatever, and that the same shall be solely made use of for the service of the ship or vessel for which it is granted; and that in case such ship or vessel shall be lost, or taken by the enemy, burnt, or broken up, or otherwise prevented from returning to the port to which she belongs, or shall on any account have lost and forfeited the privileges of a British ship, or shall have been seized and legally condemned for illicit trading, or shall have been taken in execution for debt, and sold by due process of law, or shall have been sold to the Crown, or shall under any circumstances have been registered *de novo*, the certificate, if preserved, shall be delivered up, within 1 month after the arrival of the master in any port or place in his Majesty's dominions, to the collector and comptroller of some port in Great Britain or of the Isle of Man, or of the British plantations, or to the governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief for the time being of the islands of Guernsey or Jersey; and that if any foreigner, or any person or persons for the use and benefit of any foreigner, shall purchase or otherwise become entitled to the whole or to any part or share of or any interest in such ship or vessel, and the same shall be within the limits of any port of Great Britain, or of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, or Man, or of the British colonies, plantations, islands, or territories aforesaid, then and in such case the certificate of registry shall, within 7 days after such purchase or transfer of property in such ship or vessel, be delivered up to the person or persons herein-before authorised to make registry and grant certificate of registry at such port or place respectively as aforesaid; and if such ship or vessel shall be in any foreign port when such purchase or transfer of property shall take place, then that the certificate shall be delivered up to the British consul or other chief British officer resident at or nearest to such foreign port; or if such ship or vessel shall be at sea, when such purchase or transfer of property shall take place, then that the certificate shall be delivered up to the British consul or other chief British officer at the foreign port or place in or at which the master or other person having or taking the charge or command of such ship or vessel shall first arrive after such purchase or transfer of property at sea, immediately after his arrival at such foreign port; but if such master or other person who had the command thereof at the time of such purchase or transfer of property at sea shall not arrive at a foreign port, but shall arrive at some port of Great Britain, or of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, or Man, or of his Majesty's said colonies, plantations, islands, or territories, then that the certificate shall be delivered up, in manner aforesaid, within 14 days after the arrival of such ship or vessel, or of the person who had the command thereof, in any port of Great Britain, or of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, or Man, or of any of his Majesty's said colonies, plantations, islands, or territories: provided always, that if it shall happen that at the time of registry of any ship or vessel the same shall be at any other port than the port to which she belongs, so that the master of such ship or vessel cannot attend at the port of registry to join with the owner or owners in such bond as aforesaid, it shall be lawful for him to give a separate bond, to the like effect, at the port where such ship or vessel may then be, and the collector and comptroller of such other port shall transmit such bond to the collector and comptroller of the port where such ship or vessel is to be registered, and such bond, and the bond also given by the owner or owners, shall together be of the same effect against the master and owner or owners, or either of them, as if they had bound themselves jointly and severally in one bond.—§ 20.

When Master is changed, new Master to give similar Bond.—When and so often as the master or other person having or taking the charge or command of any ship or vessel registered in manner herein directed shall be changed, the master or owner of such ship or vessel shall deliver to the person or persons herein authorised to make such registry and grant such certificates of registry at the port where such change shall take place the certificate of registry belonging to such ship or vessel, who shall thereupon indorse and subscribe a memorandum of such change, and shall forthwith give notice of the same to the proper officer of the port or place where such ship or vessel was last registered pur-

suant to this act, who shall likewise make a memorandum of the same in the book of registers, which is hereby directed and required to be kept, and shall forthwith give notice thereof to the commissioners of his Majesty's customs: provided always, that before the name of such new master shall be indorsed on the certificate of registry he shall be required to give and shall give a bond in the like penalties and under the same conditions as are contained in the bond herein-before required to be given at the time of registry of any ship or vessel.—§ 21.

Bonds liable to same Duties or Stamps as Bonds for Customs.—All bonds required by this act shall be liable to the same duties of stamps as bonds given for or in respect of the duties of customs are or shall be liable to under any act for the time being in force for granting duties of stamps.—§ 22.

Certificate of Registry to be given up by all Persons, as directed by the Bond.—If any person whatever shall at any time have possession of and wilfully detain any certificate of registry granted under this or any other act, which ought to be delivered up to be cancelled according to any of the conditions of the bond herein-before required to be given upon the registry of any ship or vessel, such person is hereby required and enjoined to deliver up such certificate of registry in manner directed by the conditions of such bond in the respective cases and under the respective penalties therein provided.—§ 23.

Name of Vessel which has been registered never afterwards to be changed.—It shall not be lawful for any owner or owners of any ship or vessel to give any name to such ship or vessel other than that by which she was first registered in pursuance of this or any other act; and the owner or owners of all and every ship or vessel which shall be so registered shall, before such ship or vessel, after such registry, shall begin to take in any cargo, paint or cause to be painted, in white or yellow letters, of a length of not less than 4 inches, upon a black ground, on some conspicuous part of the stern, the name by which such ship or vessel shall have been registered pursuant to this act, and the port to which she belongs, in a distinct and legible manner, and shall so keep and preserve the same; and if such owner or owners or master or other person having or taking the charge or command of such ship or vessel shall permit such ship or vessel to begin to take in any cargo before the name of such ship or vessel has been so painted as aforesaid, or shall wilfully alter, erase, obliterate, or in anywise hide or conceal, or cause or procure or permit the same to be done (unless in the case of square-rigged vessels in time of war), or shall in any written or printed paper, or other document, describe such ship or vessel by any other name than that by which she was first registered pursuant to this act, or shall verbally describe, or cause or procure or permit such ship or vessel to be described, by any other name to any officer or officers of his Majesty's revenue in the due execution of his or their duty, then and in every such case such owner or owners or master or other person having or taking the charge or command of such ship or vessel shall forfeit the sum of 100*l*.—§ 24.

Builder's Certificate of Particulars of Ship.—All and every person and persons who shall apply for a certificate of the registry of any ship or vessel shall and they are hereby required to produce to the person or persons authorised to grant such certificate a true and full account, under the hand of the builder of such ship or vessel, of the proper denomination, and of the time when and the place where such ship or vessel was built, and also an exact account of the tonnage of such ship or vessel, together with the name of the first purchaser or purchasers thereof (which account such builder is hereby directed and required to give under his hand on the same being demanded by such person or persons so applying for a certificate as aforesaid), and shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the person or persons herein-before authorised to grant such certificate that the ship or vessel for which such certificate is required is the same with that which is so described by the builder as aforesaid.—§ 25.

Certificate of Registry lost or mislaid.—If the certificate of registry of any ship or vessel shall be lost or mislaid, so that the same cannot be found or obtained for the use of such ship or vessel when needful, and proof thereof shall be made to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, such commissioners shall and may permit such ship or vessel to be registered *de novo*, and a certificate thereof to be granted: provided always, that if such ship or vessel be absent and far distant from the port to which she belongs, or by reason of the absence of the owner or owners, or of any other impediment, registry of the same cannot then be made in sufficient time, such commissioners shall and may grant a licence for the present use of such ship or vessel, which licence shall, for the time and to the extent specified therein, and no longer, be of the same force and virtue as a certificate of registry granted under this act: provided always, that before such registry *de novo* be made, the owner or owners and master shall give bond to the commissioners aforesaid, in such sum as to them shall seem fit, with a condition that if the certificate of registry shall at any time afterwards be found, the same shall be forthwith delivered to the proper officers of his Majesty's customs to be cancelled, and that no illegal use has been or shall be made thereof with his or their privity or knowledge; and further, that before any such licence shall be granted as aforesaid, the master of such ship or vessel shall also make and subscribe a declaration that the same has been registered as a British ship, naming the port where and the time when such registry was made, and all the particulars contained in the certificate thereof, to the best of his knowledge and belief, and shall also give such bond and with the same condition as is before mentioned: provided also, that before any such licence shall be granted, such ship or vessel shall be surveyed in like manner as if a registry *de novo* were about to be made thereof; and the certificate of such survey shall be preserved by the collector and comptroller of the port to which such ship or vessel shall belong; and in virtue thereof it shall be lawful for the said commissioners and they are hereby required to permit such ship or vessel to be registered after her departure, whenever the owner or owners shall personally attend to take and subscribe the declaration required by this act before registry be made, and shall also comply with all other requisites of this act, except so far as relates to the bond to be given by the master of such ship or vessel; which certificate of registry the said commissioners shall and may transmit to the collector and comptroller of any other port, to be by them given to the master of such ship or vessel, upon his giving such bond, and delivering up the licence which had been granted for the then present use of such ship or vessel.—§ 26.

Persons detaining Certificate of Registry to forfeit 100l.—In case any person who shall have received or obtained by any means, or for any person whatever, the certificate of the registry of any ship or vessel (whether such person shall claim to be the master or to be the owner or one of the owners of such ship or vessel, or not), shall wilfully detain and refuse to deliver up the same to the proper officers of customs, for the purposes of such ship or vessel, as occasion shall require, or to the person or persons having the actual command, possession, and management of such ship or vessel as the ostensible and reputed master, or as the ostensible and reputed owner or owners thereof, it may and shall be lawful to and for any such last-mentioned person to make complaint on oath of such detainer and refusal to any justice of the peace residing near to the place where such detainer and refusal shall be, in Great Britain or Ireland, or to any member of the supreme court of justice or any justice of the peace in the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, or Man, or in any colony, plantation, island, or territory to his Majesty belonging in Asia, Africa, or America, or in Malta, Gibraltar, or Heligoland, where such detainer and refusal shall be in any of the places last mentioned; and on such complaint the said justice or other magistrate shall and is hereby required, by warrant under his hand and seal, to cause the person so complained against to be brought before him to be examined touching such detainer and refusal; and if it shall appear to the said justice or other magistrate, on examination of such person or otherwise, that the

said certificate of registry is not lost or mislaid, but is wilfully detained by the said person, such person shall be thereof convicted, and shall forfeit and pay the sum of 100*l.*, and on failure of payment thereof he shall be committed to the common gaol, there to remain without bail or mainprize for such time as the said justice or other magistrate shall in his discretion deem proper, not being less than 3 months nor more than 12 months; and the said justice or other magistrate shall and he is hereby required to certify the aforesaid detainer, refusal, and conviction to the person or persons who granted such certificate of registry for such ship or vessel, who shall, on the terms and conditions of law being complied with, make registry of such ship or vessel *de novo*, and grant a certificate thereof conformably to law, notifying on the back of such certificate the ground upon which the ship or vessel was so registered *de novo*; and if the person who shall have detained and refused to deliver up such certificate of registry as aforesaid, or shall be verily believed to have detained the same, shall have absconded, so that the said warrant of the justice or other magistrate cannot be executed upon him, and proof thereof shall be made to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to permit such ship or vessel to be registered *de novo*, or otherwise, in their discretion, to grant a licence for the present use of such ship or vessel in like manner as is herein-before provided in the case wherein the certificate of registry is not lost or mislaid.—§ 27.

Ship altered in certain Manner to be registered de novo.—If any ship or vessel, after she shall have been registered pursuant to the directions of this act, shall in any manner whatever be altered so as not to correspond with all the particulars contained in the certificate of her registry, in such case such ship or vessel shall be registered *de novo*, in manner herein-before required, as soon as she returns to the port to which she belongs, or to any other port which shall be in the same part of the United Kingdom, or in the same colony, plantation, island, or territory as the said port shall be in, on failure whereof such ship or vessel shall, to all intents and purposes, be considered and deemed and taken to be a ship or vessel not duly registered.—§ 28.

Vessels condemned as Prize, &c.—The owner or owners of all such ships and vessels as shall be taken by any of his Majesty's ships or vessels of war, or by any private or other ship or vessel, and condemned as lawful prize in any court of admiralty, or of such ships or vessels as shall be condemned in any competent court as forfeited for breach of the laws for the prevention of the slave trade, shall, for the purpose of registering any such ship or vessel, produce to the collector and comptroller of customs a certificate of the condemnation of such ship or vessel, under the hand and seal of the judge of the court in which such ship or vessel shall have been condemned (which certificate such judge is hereby authorised and required to grant), and also a true and exact account in writing of all the particulars contained in the certificate herein-before set forth, to be made and subscribed by one or more skilful person or persons to be appointed by the court then and there to survey such ship or vessel, and shall also make and subscribe a declaration before the collector and comptroller that such ship or vessel is the same vessel which is mentioned in the certificate of the judge aforesaid.—§ 29.

Prize Vessels not to be registered at Guernsey, Jersey, or Man.—No ship or vessel which shall be taken and condemned as prize or forfeiture as aforesaid shall be registered in the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, or Man, although belonging to his Majesty's subjects residing in those islands, or in some one or other of them; but the same shall be registered either at Southampton, Weymouth, Exeter, Plymouth, Falmouth, Liverpool, or Whitehaven, by the collector and comptroller, at such ports respectively, who are hereby authorised and required to register such ship or vessel, and to grant a certificate thereof in the form and under the regulations and restrictions in this act contained.—§ 30.

Transfers of Interest to be made by Bill of Sale.—When and so often as the property in any ship or vessel, or any part thereof, belonging to any of his Majesty's subjects, shall, after registry thereof, be sold to any other or others of his Majesty's subjects, the same shall be transferred by bill of sale or other instrument in writing, containing a recital of the certificate of registry of such ship or vessel, or the principal contents thereof, otherwise such transfer shall not be valid or effectual for any purpose whatever, either in law or in equity: provided always, that no bill of sale shall be deemed void by reason of any error in such recital, or by the recital of any former certificate of registry instead of the existing certificate, provided the identity of the ship or vessel intended in the recital be effectually proved thereby.—§ 31.

Property in Ships to be divided into Sixty-four Parts or Shares.—The property in every ship or vessel of which there are more than one owner shall be taken and considered to be divided into 64 equal parts or shares, and the proportion held by each owner shall be described in the registry as being a certain number of 64th parts or shares; and no person shall be entitled to be registered as an owner of any ship or vessel in respect of any proportion of such ship or vessel which shall not be an integral 64th part or share of the same; and upon the first registry of any ship or vessel, the owner or owners who shall take and subscribe the declaration required by this act, before registry be made, shall also declare the number of such parts or shares then held by each owner, and the same shall be so registered accordingly: provided always, that if it shall at any time happen that the property of any owner or owners in any ship or vessel cannot be reduced by division into any number of integral 64th parts or shares, it shall and may be lawful for the owner or owners of such fractional parts as shall be over and above such number of integral 64th parts or shares into which such property in any ship or vessel can be reduced by division to transfer the same one to another, or jointly to any new owner, by memorandum upon their respective bills of sale, or by fresh bill of sale, without such transfer being liable to any stamp duty: provided also, that the right of any owner or owners to any such fractional parts shall not be affected by reason of the same not having been registered: provided also, that it shall be lawful for any number of such owners, named and described in such registry, being partners in any house or copartnership actually carrying on trade in any part of his Majesty's dominions, to hold any ship or vessel, or any share or shares of any ship or vessel, in the name of such house or copartnership, as joint owners thereof, without distinguishing the proportionate interest of each of such owners, and that such ship or vessel, or the share or shares thereof so held in copartnership, shall be deemed and taken to be partnership property to all intents and purposes, and shall be governed by the same rules, both in law and equity, as relate to and govern all other partnership property in any other goods, chattels, and effects whatsoever.—§ 32.

Only Thirty-two Persons to be Owners of any Ship at One Time.—No greater number than 32 persons shall be entitled to be legal owners at one and the same time of any ship or vessel, as tenants in common, or to be registered as such: provided always, that nothing herein contained shall affect the equitable title of minors, heirs, legatees, creditors, or others, exceeding that number, duly represented by or holding from any of the persons within the said number, registered as legal owners of any share or shares of such ship or vessel: provided also, that if it shall be proved to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs that any number of persons have associated themselves as a joint stock company, for the purpose of owning any ship or vessel, or any number of ships or vessels, as the joint property of such company, and that such company have duly elected or appointed any number, not less than 3, of the members of the same to be trustees of the property in such ship or vessel or ships or vessels so owned by such company, it shall be lawful for such trustees or any 3 of them, with the permission of such commissioners, to make and subscribe the declaration required by this act before registry be made, except that, instead of stating therein the names and descriptions of the other

owners, they shall state the name and description of the company to which such ship or vessel ... ships or vessels shall in such manner belong.—§ 33.

Bills of Sale not effectual until produced to Officers of Customs.—No bill of sale or other instrument in writing shall be valid and effectual to pass the property in any ship or vessel, or in any share thereof, or for any other purpose, until such bill of sale or other instrument in writing shall have been produced to the collector and comptroller of the port at which such ship or vessel is already registered, or to the collector and comptroller of any other port at which she is about to be registered *de novo*, as the case may be, nor until such collector and comptroller respectively shall have entered in the book of such last registry, in the one case, or in the book of such registry *de novo*, after all the requisites of law for such registry *de novo* shall have been duly complied with, in the other case (and which they are respectively hereby required to do upon the production of the bill of sale or other instrument for that purpose), the name, residence, and description of the vendor or mortgagor, or of such vendor or mortgagor, if more than 1, the number of shares transferred, the name, residence, and description of the purchaser or mortgagee, or of each purchaser or mortgagee, if more than 1, and the date of the bill of sale or other instrument, and of the production of it; and further, if such ship or vessel is not about to be registered *de novo*, the collector and comptroller of the port where such ship is registered shall and they are hereby required to indorse the aforesaid particulars of such bill of sale or other instrument on the certificate of registry of the said ship or vessel, when the same shall be produced to them for that purpose, in manner and to the effect following:—

"Custom-house [*port and date: name, residence, and description of vendor or mortgagor*] has transferred by [*bill of sale or other instrument*] dated [*date; number of shares*] to [*name, residence, and description of purchaser or mortgagee.*]

A. B. Collector.
C. D. Comptroller."

And forthwith to give notice thereof to the commissioners of customs; and in case the collector and comptroller shall be desired so to do, and the bill of sale or other instrument shall be produced to them for that purpose, then the said collector and comptroller are hereby required to certify, by indorsement upon the bill of sale or other instrument, that the particulars before mentioned have been so entered in the book of registry, and indorsed upon the certificate of registry as aforesaid.—§ 34.

Entry of Bill of Sale to be valid, except in certain Cases.—When and so soon as the particulars of any bill of sale or other instrument by which any ship or vessel, or any share or shares thereof, shall be transferred, shall have been so entered in the book of registry, as aforesaid, the said bill of sale or other instrument shall be valid and effectual to pass the property thereby intended to be transferred as against all and every person and persons whatsoever, and to all intents and purposes, except as against such subsequent purchasers and mortgagees who shall first procure the indorsement to be made upon the certificate of registry of such ship or vessel in manner herein-after mentioned.—§ 35.

When a Bill of Sale has been entered for any Shares, Thirty Days shall be allowed for indorsing the Certificate of Registry, before any other Bill of Sale for the same shall be entered.—When and after the particulars of any bill of sale or other instrument by which any ship or vessel, or any share or shares thereof, shall be transferred, shall have been so entered in the book of registry as aforesaid, the collector and comptroller shall not enter in the book of registry the particulars of any other bill of sale or instrument purporting to be a transfer by the same vendor or mortgagor or vendors or mortgagors of the same ship or vessel, share or shares thereof, to any other person or persons, unless 30 days shall elapse from the day on which the particulars of the former bill of sale or other instrument were entered in the book of registry; or in case the ship or vessel was absent from the port to which she belonged at the time when the particulars of such former bill of sale or other instrument were entered in the book of registry, then unless 30 days shall have elapsed from the day on which the ship or vessel arrived at the port to which the same belonged; and in case the particulars of 2 or more such bills of sale or other instruments as aforesaid shall at any time have been entered in the book of registry of the said ship or vessel, the collector and comptroller shall not enter in the book of registry the particulars of any other bill of sale or other instrument as aforesaid unless 30 days shall in like manner have elapsed from the day on which the particulars of the last of such bill of sale or other instrument were entered in the books of registry, or from the day on which the ship or vessel arrived at the port to which she belonged, in case of her absence as aforesaid; and in every case where there shall at any time happen to be 2 or more transfers by the same owner or owners of the same property in any ship or vessel entered in the book of registry as aforesaid, the collector and comptroller are hereby required to indorse upon the certificate of registry of such ship or vessel the particulars of that bill of sale or other instrument under which the person or persons claims or claim property, who shall produce the certificate of registry for that purpose within 30 days next after the entry of his said bill of sale or other instrument in the book of registry as aforesaid, or within 30 days next after the return of the said ship or vessel to the port to which she belongs, in case of her absence at the time of such entry as aforesaid; and in case no person or persons shall produce the certificate of registry within either of the said spaces of 30 days, then it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller, and they are hereby required, to indorse upon the certificate of registry the particulars of the bill of sale or other instrument to such person or persons as shall first produce the certificate of registry for that purpose, it being the true intent and meaning of this act that the several purchasers and mortgagees of such ship or vessel, share or shares thereof, when more than 1 appear to claim the same property, or to claim security on the same property, in the same rank and degree, shall have priority one over the other, not according to the respective times when the particulars of the bill of sale or other instrument by which such property was transferred to them were entered in the book of registry as aforesaid, but according to the time when the indorsement is made upon the certificate of registry as aforesaid: provided always, that if the certificate of registry shall be lost or mislaid, or shall be detained by any person whatever, so that the indorsement cannot in due time be made thereon, and proof thereof shall be made by the purchaser or mortgagee, or his known agent, to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, it shall be lawful for the said commissioners to grant such further time as to them shall appear necessary for the recovery of the certificate of registry, or for the registry *de novo* of the said ship or vessel under the provisions of this act; and thereupon the collector and comptroller shall make a memorandum in the book of registers of the further time so granted, and during such time no other bill of sale shall be entered for the transfer of the same ship or vessel, or the same share or shares thereof, or for giving the same security thereon.—§ 36.

Bills of Sale may be produced after Entry at other Ports.—If the certificate of registry of such ship or vessel shall be produced to the collector and comptroller of any port where she may then be, after any such bill of sale shall have been recorded at the port to which she belongs, together with such bill of sale, containing a notification of such record, signed by the collector and comptroller of such port as before directed, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of such other port to indorse on such certificate of registry (being required so to do) the transfer mentioned in such bill of sale, and such collector and comptroller shall give notice thereof to the collector and comptroller of the port to which such ship or vessel belongs, who shall record the same in like manner as if they had made such indorsement themselves, but inserting the name of the port at which such indorsement was made: provided always, that the collector and comptroller of such other port shall first give notice to the collector and comptroller of the port to which such ship or vessel belongs of such requisition made to

...tion to indorse the certificate of registry, and the collector and comptroller of the port to which such ship or vessel belongs shall thereupon send information to the collector and comptroller of such other port, whether any and what other bill or bills of sale have been recorded in the book of the registry of such ship or vessel; and the collector and comptroller of such other port, having such information, shall proceed in manner directed by this act in all respects to the indorsing of the certificate of registry as they would do if such port were the port to which such vessel belonged.—§ 37.

From Registry de novo any Bill of Sale shall not have been recorded, the same shall then be produced.—If it shall become necessary to register any ship or vessel *de novo*, and any share or shares of such ship or vessel shall have been sold since she was last registered, and the transfer of such share or shares shall not have been recorded and indorsed in manner herein-before directed, the bill of sale thereof shall be produced to the collector and comptroller of his Majesty's customs, who are to make registry of such ship or vessel, otherwise such sale shall not be noticed in such registry *de novo*, except as herein-after excepted: provided always, that upon the future production of such bill of sale, and of the existing certificate of registry, such transfer shall and may be recorded and indorsed as well after such registry *de novo* as before.—§ 38.

Upon Change of Property, Registry de novo may be granted.—If upon any change of property in any ship or vessel, the owner or owners shall desire to have the same registered *de novo*, although not required by this act, and the owner or proper number of owners shall attend at the Custom-house at the port to which such ship or vessel belongs for that purpose, it shall be lawful for the collector and comptroller of his Majesty's customs at such port to make registry *de novo* of such ship or vessel at the same port, and to grant a certificate thereof, the several requisites herein-before in this act mentioned and directed being first duly observed and complied with.—§ 39.

Copies of Declarations, &c., and of Extracts from Books of Registry admitted in Evidence.—The collector and comptroller of customs at any port or place, and the person or persons acting for them, respectively, shall upon every reasonable request by any person or persons whomsoever, produce and exhibit for his, her, or their inspection and examination any oath or declaration sworn or made by any such owner or owners, proprietor or proprietors, and also any register or entry in any book or books of registry required by this act to be made or kept relative to any ship or vessel, and shall, upon every such reasonable request by any person or persons whomsoever, permit him, her, or them to take a copy or copies, or an extract or extracts thereof respectively; and the copy and copies of any such oath or declaration, register or entry, shall, upon being proved to be a true copy or copies thereof respectively, be allowed and received as evidence upon every trial at law, without the production of the original or originals, and without the testimony or attendance of any collector or comptroller, or other person or persons acting for them respectively, in all cases, as fully and to all intents and purposes as such original or originals, if produced by any collector or collectors, comptroller or comptrollers, or other person or persons acting for them, could or might legally be admitted or received in evidence.—§ 40.

Vessels or Shares sold in the Absence of Owners without formal powers.—If the ship or vessel, or the share or shares of any owner thereof who may be out of the kingdom, shall be sold in his absence by his known agent or correspondent, under his directions either expressed or implied, and acting for his interest in that behalf, and such agent or correspondent who shall have executed a bill of sale to the purchaser of the whole of such ship or vessel, or of any share or shares thereof, shall not have received a legal power to execute the same, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, upon application made to them, and proof to their satisfaction of the fair dealings of the parties, to permit such transfer to be registered, if registry *de novo* be necessary, or to be recorded and indorsed, as the case may be, in manner directed by this act, as if such legal power had been produced; and also, if it shall happen that any bill of sale cannot be produced, or if, by reason of distance of time, or the absence or death of parties concerned, it cannot be proved that a bill of sale for any share or shares in any ship or vessel had been executed, and registry *de novo* of such ship or vessel shall have become necessary, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, upon proof to their satisfaction of the fair dealings of the parties, to permit such ship or vessel to be registered *de novo* in like manner as if a bill of sale for the transfer of such share or shares had been produced: provided always, that in any of the cases herein mentioned, good and sufficient security shall be given to produce a legal power or bill of sale within a reasonable time, or to abide the future claims of the absent owner, his heirs and successors, as the case may be; and at the future request of the party whose property has been so transferred, without the production of a bill of sale from him or from his lawful attorney, such bond shall be available for the protection of his interest, in addition to any powers or rights which he may have in law or equity against the ship or vessel, or against the parties concerned, until he shall have received full indemnity for any loss or injury sustained by him.—§ 41.

Transfer by way of Mortgage.—When any transfer of any ship or vessel, or of any share or shares thereof, shall be made only as a security for the payment of a debt or debts, either by way of mortgage, or of assignment to a trustee or trustees for the purpose of selling the same for the payment of any such debt or debts, then and in every such case the collector and comptroller of the port where the ship or vessel is registered shall, in the entry in the book of registry, and also in the indorsement on the certificate of registry, in manner herein-before directed, state and express that such transfer was made only as a security for the payment of a debt or debts, or by way of mortgage, or to that effect; and the person or persons to whom such transfer shall be made, or any other person or persons claiming under him or them as a mortgagee or mortgagees, or a trustee or trustees only, shall not by reason thereof be deemed to be the owner or owners of such ship or vessel, share or shares thereof, nor shall the person or persons making such transfer be deemed by reason thereof to have ceased to be an owner or owners of such ship or vessel, any more than if no such transfer had been made, except so far as may be necessary for the purpose of rendering the ship or vessel, share or shares, so transferred, available by sale or otherwise for the payment of the debt or debts for securing the payment of which such transfer shall have been made.—§ 42.

Transfers of Ships for Security.—When any transfer of any ship or vessel, or of any share or shares thereof, shall have been made as a security for the payment of any debt or debts, either by way of mortgage or of assignment as aforesaid, and such transfer shall have been duly registered according to the provisions of this act, the right or interest of the mortgagee or other assignee as aforesaid shall not be in any manner affected by any act or acts of bankruptcy committed by such mortgagor or assignor, mortgagors or assignors, after the time when such mortgage or assignment shall have been so registered as aforesaid, notwithstanding such mortgagor or assignor, mortgagors or assignors, at the time he or they shall so become bankrupt as aforesaid, shall have in his or their possession, order, and disposition, and shall be the reputed owner or owners of the said ship or vessel, or the share or shares thereof, so by him or them mortgaged or assigned as aforesaid, but such mortgage or assignment shall take place of and be preferred to any right, claim, or interest which may belong to the assignee or assignees of such bankrupt or bankrupts in such ship or vessel, share or shares thereof, any law or statute to the contrary thereof notwithstanding.—§ 43.

Governors of Colonies, &c. may cause Proceedings in Suits to be stayed.—It shall and may be lawful for any governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief of any of his Majesty's colonies, plantations, islands, or territories, and they are hereby respectively authorised and required, if any suit, information, libel, or other prosecution or proceeding of any nature or kind whatever shall have been

commenced or shall hereafter be commenced in any court whatever in any of the said colonies, plantations, islands, or territories respectively, touching the force and effect of any register granted to any ship or vessel, upon a representation made to any such governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief, to cause all proceedings thereon to be stayed, if he shall see just cause so to do, until his Majesty's pleasure shall be known and certified to him by his Majesty, by and with the advice of his Majesty's privy council; and such governor, lieutenant-governor, or commander-in-chief is hereby required to transmit to one of his Majesty's principal secretaries of state, to be laid before his Majesty in council, an authenticated copy of the proceedings in every such case, together with his reasons for causing the same to be stayed, and such documents (properly verified) as he may judge necessary for the information of his Majesty.—§ 44.

Penalty of 500l. on Persons making false Declaration, or falsifying any Document.—If any person or persons shall falsely make declaration to any of the matters herein-before required to be verified by declaration, or if any person or persons shall counterfeit, erase, alter, or falsify any certificate or other instrument in writing required or directed to be obtained, granted, or produced by this act, or shall knowingly or wilfully make use of any certificate or other instrument so counterfeited, erased, altered or falsified, or shall wilfully grant such certificate or other instrument in writing, knowing it to be false, such person or persons shall for every such offence forfeit the sum of 500l.—§ 45.

How Penalties are to be recovered.—All the penalties and forfeitures inflicted and incurred by this act shall and may be sued for, prosecuted, recovered, and disposed of in such manner, and by such ways, means, and methods, as any penalties or forfeitures inflicted or which may be incurred for any offences committed against any law relating to the customs may now legally be sued for, prosecuted, recovered, and disposed of; and the officer or officers concerned in seizures or prosecutions under this act shall be entitled to and receive the same share of the produce arising from such seizures as in the case of seizures for unlawful importation, and to such share of the produce arising from any pecuniary fine or penalty for any offence against this act as any officer or officers is or are now by any law or regulation entitled to upon prosecutions for pecuniary penalties.—§ 46.

[The government of the United States has followed the example of England in conferring peculiar privileges on their own ships; and no vessel is considered to be a vessel of the United States, unless registered, as well as owned and commanded by a citizen of the United States.

The following are the principal regulations respecting the registry of American vessels.

Act of Congress of the 31st December, 1792.—§ 1. That ships or vessels which shall have been registered by virtue of the act, entitled "An act for registering and clearing vessels, regulating the coasting trade, and for other purposes," and those which, after the last day of March next, shall be registered pursuant to the act, and no other, (except such as shall be duly qualified, according to law, for carrying on the coasting trade and fisheries, or one of them,) shall be denominated and deemed ships or vessels of the United States, entitled to the benefits and privileges appertaining to such ships or vessels: *Provided*, That they shall not continue to enjoy the same longer than they shall continue to be wholly owned, and to be commanded by, a citizen or citizens of the said states.

§ 2. That ships or vessels built within the United States, whether before, or after, the fourth of July, one thousand seven hundred and seventy-six, and belonging wholly to a citizen or citizens thereof, or not built within the said states, but, on the sixteenth day of May, in the year one thousand seven hundred and eighty-nine, belonging, and thenceforth continuing to belong, to a citizen or citizens thereof, and ships or vessels which may hereafter be captured in war, by such citizen or citizens, and lawfully condemned as prize, or which have been or may be, adjudged to be forfeited for a breach of the laws of the United States, being wholly owned by a citizen or citizens thereof, and no other, may be registered as hereinafter directed: *Provided*, That no such ship or vessel shall be entitled to be so registered, or, if registered, to the benefits thereof, if owned in whole, or in part, by any citizen of the United States, who usually resides in a foreign country, during the continuance of such residence, unless such citizen be in the capacity of a consul of the United States, or an agent for, and a partner in, some house of trade or copartnership, consisting of citizens of the said states, actually carrying on trade within the said states: *And provided further*, That no ship or vessel built within the United States, prior to the said sixteenth day of May, which was not then owned wholly, or in part, by a citizen or citizens of the United States, shall be capable of being registered, by virtue of any transfer to a citizen or citizens, which may hereafter be made, unless by way of prize or forfeiture: *Provided, nevertheless*, That this shall not be construed to prevent the registering anew of any ship or vessel which was before registered, pursuant to the act before mentioned.

§ 3. That every ship or vessel, hereafter to be registered, (except as is hereinafter provided,) shall be registered by the collector of the district in which shall be comprehended the port to which such ship or vessel shall belong at the time of her registry, which port shall be deemed to be that, at or nearest to which the owner, if there be but one, or if more than one, the husband, or acting and managing owner of such ship or vessel usually resides. And the name of the said ship or vessel, and the port to which she shall so belong, shall be painted on her stern, on a black ground, in white letters, of not less than three inches in length. And if any ship or vessel of the United States shall be found without having her name, and the name of the port to which she belongs, painted in manner aforesaid, the owner or owners shall forfeit fifty dollars; one half to the person giving the information thereof, the other half to the use of the United States.

§ 4. That, in order to the registry of any ship or vessel, an oath or affirmation shall be taken and subscribed by the owner, or by one of the owners, thereof, before the officer authorized to make such registry, who is hereby empowered to administer the same, declaring, *according to the best of the knowledge and belief* of the person so swearing or affirming, the name of such ship or vessel, her burthen, the place where she was built, if built within the United States, and the year in which she was built; and if built within the United States before the said sixteenth day of May, one thousand seven hundred and eighty-nine, that she was then owned, wholly or in part, by a citizen or citizens of the United States; and, if not built within the said States, that she was, on the said sixteenth day of May, and ever since hath continued to be, the entire property of a citizen or citizens of the United States; or that she was, at some time posterior to the time when this act shall take effect, (specifying the said time,) captured in war by a citizen or citizens of the said states, and lawfully condemned as prize, (producing a copy of the sentence of condemnation, authenticated in the usual forms,) or that she has been adjudged to be forfeited for a breach of the laws of the United States, (producing a like copy of the sentence whereby she shall have been so adjudged,) and declaring his or her name, and place of abode, and, if he or she be the sole owner of the said ship or vessel, that such is the case; or, if there be another owner or other owners, that there is or are such other owner or owners, specifying his, her, or their, name or names, and place or places of abode, and that he, she, or they, as the case may be, so swearing or affirming, is or are citizens of the United States; and where an owner resides in a foreign country, in the capacity of a consul of the United States, or as an agent for, and a partner in, a house or copartnership consisting of citizens of the United States, and actually carrying on trade

within the United States, that such is the case, and that there is no subject or citizen of any foreign prince or state, directly or indirectly, by way of trust, confidence, or otherwise, interested in such ship or vessel, or in the profits or issues thereof; and that the master or commander thereof, is a citizen, naming the said master or commander, and stating the means whereby, or manner in which, he is a citizen. And in case any of the matters of fact in the said oath or affirmation alleged, which shall be within the knowledge of the party so swearing or affirming, shall not be true, there shall be a forfeiture of the ship or vessel, together with her tackle, furniture, and apparel, in respect to which the same shall have been made, or of the value thereof, to be recovered with costs of suit, of the person by whom such oath or affirmation shall have been made: *Provided always*, That if the master, or person having the charge or command of such ship or vessel, shall be within the district aforesaid when application shall be made for registering the same, he shall, himself, make oath or affirmation, instead of the said owner, touching his being a citizen, and the means whereby, or manner in which, he is so a citizen; in which case, if what the said master, or person having the said charge or command, shall so swear or affirm shall not be true, the forfeiture aforesaid shall not be incurred, but he shall, himself, forfeit and pay, by reason thereof, the sum of one thousand dollars: *And provided further*, That in the case of a ship or vessel, built within the United States prior to the sixteenth day of May aforesaid, which was not then owned by a citizen or citizens of the United States, but which, by virtue of a transfer to such citizen or citizens, shall have been registered, pursuant to the act beforementioned, the oath or affirmation, hereby required, shall and may be varied according to the truth of the case, as often as it shall be requisite to grant a new register for such ship or vessel.

§ 6. That before any ship or vessel shall be registered, she shall be measured by a surveyor, if there be one, or by the person he shall appoint, at the port or place where the said ship or vessel may be, and if there be none, by such person as the collector of the district, within which she may be, shall appoint, according to the rule prescribed by the forty-third section of the act, entitled "An act to provide more effectually for the collection of the duties imposed by law on goods, wares, and merchandize, imported into the United States, and on the tonnage of ships or vessels." And the officer, or person by whom such admeasurement shall be made, shall, for the information of, and as a voucher for, the officer by whom the registry is to be made, grant a certificate, specifying the built of such ship or vessel, her number of decks and masts, her length, breadth, depth, the number of tons she measures, and such other particulars as are usually descriptive of the identity of a ship or vessel; and that her name, and the place to which she belongs, are painted on her stern, in manner required by the third section of this act; which certificate shall be countersigned by an owner, or by the master of such ship or vessel, or by some other person who shall attend her admeasurement on behalf of her owner or owners, in testimony of the truth of the particulars therein contained; without which the said certificate shall not be valid. But, in all cases where a ship or vessel has before been registered, or a ship or vessel of the United States, it shall not be necessary to measure her anew, for the purpose of obtaining another register; except such ship or vessel shall have undergone some alteration, as to her burthen, subsequent to the time of her former registry.

§ 7. That, previous to the registry of any ship or vessel, the husband, or acting and managing owner, together with the master thereof, and one or more sureties, to the satisfaction of the collector of the district, whose duty it is to make such registry, shall become bound to the United States, if such ship or vessel shall be of burthen not exceeding fifty tons, in the sum of four hundred dollars; if of burthen above fifty tons and not exceeding one hundred, in the sum of eight hundred dollars; if of burthen above one hundred tons and not exceeding two hundred, in the sum of twelve hundred dollars; if of burthen above two hundred tons and not exceeding three hundred, in the sum of sixteen hundred dollars; and if of burthen exceeding three hundred tons, in the sum of two thousand dollars; with condition, in each case, that the certificate of such registry shall be solely used for the ship or vessel for which it is granted, and shall not be sold, lent, or otherwise disposed of, to any person or persons whomsoever; and that, in case such ship or vessel shall be lost or taken by an enemy, burnt, or broken up, or shall be otherwise prevented from returning to the port to which she may belong, the said certificate, if preserved, shall be delivered up, within eight days after the arrival of the master, or person having the charge or command of such ship or vessel, within any district of the United States, to the collector of such district: and that, if any foreigner, or any person or persons for the use and benefit of such foreigner, shall purchase, or otherwise become entitled to, the whole, or any part or share of, or interest in, such ship or vessel, the same being within a district of the United States, the said certificate shall, in such case, within seven days after such purchase, change, or transfer of property, be delivered up to the collector of the said district; and that if any such purchase, change, or transfer of property, shall happen when such ship or vessel shall be at any foreign port or place, or at sea, then the said master, or person having the charge or command thereof, shall, within eight days after his arrival within any district of the United States, deliver up the said certificate to the collector of such district; and every such certificate, so delivered up, shall be forthwith transmitted to the register of the treasury, to be cancelled, who, if the same shall have been delivered up to a collector other than of the district in which it was granted, shall cause notice of such delivery to be given to the collector of the said district.

§ 8. That, in order to the registry of any ship or vessel which, after the last day of March next, shall be built within the United States, it shall be necessary to produce a certificate, under the hand of the principal or master carpenter, by whom, or under whose direction, the said ship or vessel shall have been built, testifying that she was built by him, or under his direction, and specifying the place where, the time when, and the person or persons for whom, and describing her built, number of decks and masts, length, breadth, depth, tonnage, and such other circumstances as are usually descriptive of the identity of a ship or vessel; which certificate shall be sufficient to authorize the removal of a new vessel from the district where she may be built, to another district in the same, or an adjoining state, where the owner or owners actually reside, provided it be with ballast only.

§ 9. That the several matters herein-before required, having been complied with, in order to the registering of any ship or vessel, the collector of the district comprehending the port to which she shall belong, shall make, and keep, in some proper book, a record or registry thereof, and shall grant a abstract or certificate of such record or registry, as nearly as may be in the form following:

"In pursuance of an act of the congress of the United States of America, entitled 'An act concerning the registering and recording of ships or vessels,' [inserting here the name, occupation, and place of abode of the person by whom the oath or affirmation aforesaid shall have been made] having taken or subscribed the oath (or affirmation) required by the said act, and having sworn (or affirmed) that he (or she, and if more than one owner, adding the words, 'together with,' and the name or names, occupation or occupations, place or places of abode, of the other owner or owners) is (or are) the only owner (or owners) of the ship or vessel, called the [inserting here her name] of [inserting here the port to which she may belong] whereof [inserting here the name of the master] is at present master, and is a citizen of the United States, and that the said ship or vessel was [inserting here, when and where built] and [inserting here, the name and office, if any, of the person by whom she shall have been surveyed or admeasured] having certified that the said ship or vessel has [inserting here, the number of decks] and [inserting here, the number of masts] and that her length is [inserting here, the number of feet] her breadth [inserting here, the number of feet] her depth

[inserting here, the number of feet] and that she measures [inserting here, her number of tons] the
she is [describing here, the particular kind of vessel, whether ship, brigantine, snow, schooner, sloop
or whatever else, together with her built, and specifying whether she has any, or no, gallery or head
And the said [naming the owner, or the master, or other person acting in behalf of the owner or own
ers, by whom the certificate of admeasurement shall have been countersigned, as aforesaid] having
agreed to the description and admeasurement above specified, and sufficient security having been
given, according to the said act, the said ship or vessel has been duly registered at the port of [naming
the port where registered.] Given under my hand and seal, at, [naming the said port] this [inserting
the particular day] day of [naming the month] in the year [specifying the number of the year, in words
at length:"] *Provided*, That if the master, or person having the charge or command of such ship or
vessel, shall, himself, have made oath or affirmation touching his being a citizen, the wording of the
said certificate shall be varied so as to be conformable to the truth of the case: *And provided*, That
where a new certificate of registry is granted, in consequence of any transfer of a ship or vessel,
the words shall be so varied as to refer to the former certificate of registry for her admeasurement.

§ 11. That where any citizen or citizens of the United States shall purchase, or become owner or
owners of, any ship or vessel, entitled to be registered by virtue of this act, such ship or vessel, being
within any district, other than the one in which he or they usually reside, such ship or vessel shall be
entitled to be registered by the collector of the district where such ship or vessel may be, at the choice
of his or their becoming owner or owners thereof, upon his or their complying with the provisions
herein-before prescribed, in order to the registry of ships or vessels: And the oath or affirmation
which is required to be taken, may, at the option of such owner or owners, be taken, either before the
collector of the district, comprehending the port to which such ship or vessel may belong, or before
the collector of the district within which such ship or vessel may be, either of whom is hereby em-
powered to administer the same: *Provided, nevertheless*, That whenever such ship or vessel shall
arrive within the district, comprehending the port to which such ship or vessel shall belong, the cer-
tificate of registry, which shall have been obtained as aforesaid, shall be delivered up to the collector
of such district, who, upon the requisites of this act, in order to the registry of ships or vessels, being
complied with, shall grant a new one, in lieu of the first; and the certificate, so delivered up, shall
forthwith be returned, by the collector who shall receive the same, to the collector who shall have
granted it: and if the said first mentioned certificate of registry shall not be delivered up, as above
directed, the owner or owners, and the master of such ship or vessel, at the time of her said arrival
within the district comprehending the port to which such ship or vessel may belong, shall, severally,
forfeit the sum of one hundred dollars, to be recovered, with costs of suit; and the said certificate of
registry shall be thenceforth void. And, in case any of the matters of fact in the said oath or affirma-
tion alleged, which shall be within the knowledge of the party so swearing or affirming, shall not be
true, there shall be a forfeiture of the ship or vessel, together with her tackle, furniture, and apparel,
in respect to which the same shall have been made, or of the value thereof, to be recovered, with costs
of suit, of the person by whom such oath or affirmation shall have been made: *Provided always*, That
if the master, or person having the charge or command of such ship or vessel, shall be within the dis-
trict aforesaid when application shall be made for registering the same, he shall, himself, make oath
or affirmation, instead of the said owner, touching his being a citizen, and the means whereby, or
manner in which, he is so a citizen; in which case, if what the said master, or person having the said
charge or command, shall so swear or affirm, shall not be true, the forfeiture aforesaid shall not be in-
curred, but he shall, himself, forfeit and pay, by reason thereof, the sum of one thousand dollars.

§ 12. That when any ship or vessel, entitled to be registered pursuant to this act, shall be purchased
by an agent or attorney for, or on account of, a citizen or citizens of the United States, such ship or
vessel, being in a district of the United States more than fifty miles distant, taking the nearest usual
route by land, from the one comprehending the port to which, by virtue of such purchase, and by force
of this act, such ship or vessel ought to be deemed to belong, it shall be lawful for the collector of the
district, where such ship or vessel may be, and he is hereby required, upon the application of such
agent or attorney, to proceed to the registering of the said ship or vessel, the said agent or attorney
first complying, on behalf, and in the stead of, the owner or owners thereof, with the requisites pre-
scribed by this act, in order to the registry of ships or vessels, except that in the oath or affirmation
which shall be taken by the said agent or attorney, instead of swearing or affirming that he is owner,
or an owner of such ship or vessel, he shall swear or affirm that he is agent or attorney for the owner
or owners thereof, and that he hath bona fide purchased the said ship or vessel, for the person or per-
sons whom he shall name and describe as the owner or owners thereof. *Provided, nevertheless*, That
whenever such ship or vessel shall arrive within the district comprehending the port to which such
ship or vessel shall belong, the certificate of registry which shall have been obtained as afore-
said, shall be delivered up to the collector of such district, who, upon the requisites of this act, in order
to the registry of ships or vessels, being complied with, shall grant a new one, in lieu of the first; and
the certificate, so delivered up, shall forthwith be returned by the collector, who shall transmit the
same to the collector who shall have granted it. And if the said first mentioned certificate of registry
shall not be delivered up, as above directed, the owner or owners, and the master of such ship or ves-
sel at the time of her said arrival within the district comprehending the port to which she may belong,
shall, severally, forfeit the sum of one hundred dollars, to be recovered, with costs of suit, and the
said certificate of registry shall be thenceforth void. And in case any of the matters of fact in the said
oath or affirmation alleged, which shall be within the knowledge of the party so swearing or affirm-
ing, shall not be true, there shall be a forfeiture of the ship or vessel, together with her tackle, furni-
ture, and apparel, in respect to which the same shall have been made, or of the value thereof, to be
recovered, with costs of suit, of the person by whom such oath or affirmation shall have been made:
Provided always, That if the master, or person having the charge or command of such ship or vessel,
shall be within the district aforesaid, when application shall be made for registering the same, he
shall, himself, make oath or affirmation, instead of the said agent or attorney, touching his being a
citizen, and the means whereby, or manner in which, he is so a citizen; in which case, if what the
said master, or person having the said charge or command, shall so swear or affirm, shall not be true,
the forfeiture aforesaid shall not be incurred, but he shall, himself, forfeit and pay, by reason thereof,
the sum of one thousand dollars.

§ 13. That if the certificate of the registry of any ship or vessel shall be lost, or destroyed, or mis-
laid, the master, or other person having the charge or command thereof, may make oath or affirma-
tion, before the collector of the district where such ship or vessel shall first be after such loss, destruc-
tion, or mislaying, who is hereby authorized to administer the same, which oath or affirmation shall
be of the form following: "*I* [inserting here the name of the person swearing or affirming] *being master*
(or *having the charge or command*) *of the ship or vessel, called the* [inserting the name of the vessel] *do*
swear (or *affirm*) *that the said ship or vessel hath been, as I verily believe, registered, according to law, by the*
name of [inserting again the name of the vessel] *and that a certificate thereof was granted by the collector*
of the district of [naming the district where registered] *which certificate has been lost*, (or *destroyed*, or *un-*
intentionally and by mere accident mislaid, as the case may be,) *and* (except, where the certificate is mis-
laid to have been destroyed) *that the same, if found again, and within my power, shall be delivered up*
to the collector of the district in which it was granted;" which oath or affirmation shall be subscribed by

the party making the same; and upon such oath or affirmation being made, and the other requisites of this act, in order to the registry of ships or vessels, being complied with, it shall be lawful for the collector of the district, before whom such oath or affirmation is made, to grant a new register, inserting therein that the same is issued in the room of the one lost or destroyed. But in all cases where a register shall be granted, in lieu of the one lost or destroyed, by any other than the collector of the district to which the ship or vessel actually belongs, such register shall, within ten days after her first arrival within the district to which she belongs, be delivered up to the collector of said district, who shall thereupon, grant a new register in lieu thereof. And in case the master or commander shall neglect to deliver up such register, within the time aforesaid, he shall forfeit one hundred dollars; and the former register shall become null and void.

§ 14. That when any ship or vessel, which shall have been registered pursuant to this act, or the act hereby, in part, repealed, shall, in whole or in part, be sold, or transferred to a citizen or citizens of the United States, or shall be altered in form, or burthen, by being lengthened, or built upon, or from one denomination to another, by the mode or method of rigging or fitting, in every such case the said ship or vessel shall be registered anew, by her former name, according to the directions hereinbefore contained, (otherwise she shall cease to be deemed a ship or vessel of the United States,) and her former certificate of registry shall be delivered up to the collector to whom application for such new registry shall be made, at the time that the same shall be made, to be by him transmitted to the register of the treasury, who shall cause the same to be cancelled. And in every such case of sale or transfer, there shall be some instrument of writing, in the nature of a bill of sale, which shall recite, at length, the said certificate, otherwise the said ship or vessel shall be incapable of being so registered anew. And in every case, in which a ship or vessel is hereby required to be registered anew, if she shall not be so registered anew, she shall not be entitled to any of the privileges or benefits of a ship or vessel of the United States. And further, if her said former certificate of registry shall not be delivered up, as aforesaid, except where the same may have been destroyed, lost, or unintentionally mislaid, and no oath or affirmation thereof shall have been made, as aforesaid, the owner or owners of such ship or vessel shall forfeit and pay the sum of five hundred dollars, to be recovered, with costs of suit.

§ 15. That when the master, or person having the charge or command of a ship or vessel, registered pursuant to this act, or the act hereby in part repealed, shall be changed, the owner, or one of the owners, or the new master of such ship or vessel, shall report such change to the collector of the district where the same shall happen, or where the said ship or vessel shall first be, after the same shall have happened, and shall produce to him the certificate of registry of such ship or vessel, and shall make oath or affirmation, showing that such new master is a citizen of the United States, and the manner in which, or means whereby, he is so a citizen; whereupon the said collector shall endorse upon the said certificate of registry a memorandum of such change, specifying the name of such new master, and shall subscribe the said memorandum with his name; and, if other than the collector of the district by whom the said certificate of registry shall have been granted, shall transmit a copy of the said memorandum to him, with notice of the particular ship or vessel to which it shall relate; and the collector of the district by whom the said certificate shall have been granted, shall make a like memorandum of such change in his book of registers, and shall transmit a copy thereof to the register of the treasury. And if the said change shall not be reported, or if the said oath or affirmation shall not be taken, as above directed, the registry of such ship or vessel shall be void, and the said master, or person having the charge or command of her, shall forfeit and pay the sum of one hundred dollars.

§ 16. That if any ship or vessel heretofore registered, or which shall hereafter be registered, as a ship or vessel of the United States, shall be sold or transferred, in whole or in part, by way of trust, confidence, or otherwise, to a subject or citizen of any foreign prince or state, and such sale or transfer shall not be made known, in manner hereinbefore directed, such ship or vessel, together with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, shall be forfeited: *Provided*, That if such ship or vessel shall be owned in part only, and it shall be made appear to the jury, before whom the trial for such forfeiture shall be had, that any other owner of such ship or vessel, being a citizen of the United States, was wholly ignorant of the sale or transfer to, or ownership of, such foreign subject or citizen, the share or interest of such citizen of the United States shall not be subject to such forfeiture; and the residue only shall be so forfeited.

Act of the 18th of February, 1793.—§ 1. That ships or vessels, enrolled by virtue of "An act for regulating and clearing vessels, regulating the coasting trade, and for other purposes," and those of twenty tons and upwards, which shall be enrolled, after the last day of May next, in pursuance of this act, and having a license in force, or, if less than twenty tons, not being enrolled, shall have a license in force, as is hereinafter required, and no others shall be deemed ships or vessels of the United States, entitled to the privileges of ships or vessels employed in the coasting trade or fisheries.

§ 2. That from and after the last day of May next, in order for the enrolment of any ship or vessel, she shall possess the same qualifications, and the same requisites, in all respects, shall be complied with, as are made necessary for registering ships or vessels by the act, entitled "An act concerning the registering and recording of ships or vessels," and the same duties and authorities are hereby given and imposed on all officers, respectively, in relation to such enrolments, and the same proceedings shall be had, in similar cases, touching such enrolments; and the ships or vessels so enrolled, with the master, or owner or owners thereof, shall be subject to the same requisites as are, in those respects, provided for vessels registered by virtue of the aforesaid act; the record of which enrolment shall be made, and an abstract or copy thereof granted, as nearly as may be, in the form following: "Enrolment, in conformity to an act of the congress of the United States of America, entitled 'An act for enrolling and licensing ships or vessels, to be employed in the coasting trade and fisheries, and for regulating the same.' [inserting here the name of the person, with his occupation and place of abode, by whom the oath or affirmation is to be made,] having taken and subscribed the oath (or affirmation) required by this act, and having sworn (or affirmed) that he (or she, and, if more than one owner, adding the words "together with," and the name or names, occupation or occupations, place or places, of abode, of the owner or owners) is, (or are) a citizen (or citizens) of the United States, and sole owner (or owners) of the ship or vessel, called the [inserting here, her name] of [inserting here, the name of the port to which she may belong] whereof [inserting here, the name of the master] is at present master, and is a citizen of the United States, and that the said ship or vessel was [inserting here, when and where built] and [inserting here, the name and office, if any, of the person by whom she shall have been surveyed, or admeasured] having certified that the said ship or vessel has [inserting here, the number of decks] and [inserting here, the number of masts] and that her length is [inserting here, the number of feet] her breadth [inserting here, the number of feet] her depth [inserting here, the number of feet] and that she measures [inserting here, her number of tons] that she is [describing here, the particular kind of vessel, whether ship, brigantine, snow, schooner, sloop, or whatever else, together with her built, and specifying whether she has any or no gallery or head] and the said [naming the owner, or the master, or other person acting in behalf of the owner or owners, by whom the certificate of admeasurement shall have been countersigned] having agreed to the description and admeasurement above specified, and sufficient security having been given, according to the said act, the said ship or vessel has been duly enrolled, at the port of [naming the port where enrolled.] Given under my hand and seal, at [naming the said port] this [inserting

the particular day] day of [naming the month] in the year [specifying the number of the year, in words at length.]"

§ 3. That it shall and may be lawful for the collectors of the several districts, to enrol and license any ship or vessel that may be registered, upon such registry being given up, or to register any ship or vessel that may be enrolled, upon such enrolment and license being given up. And when any ship or vessel shall be in any other district than the one to which she belongs, the collector of such district, on the application of the master or commander thereof, and upon his taking an oath or affirmation, that, according to his best knowledge and belief, the property remains as expressed in the register or enrolment proposed to be given up, and upon his giving the bonds required for granting registers, shall make the exchanges aforesaid; but in every such case, the collector, to whom the register or enrolment and license, may be given up, shall transmit the same to the register of the treasury; and the register, or enrolment and license, granted in lieu thereof, shall within ten days after the arrival of such ship or vessel within the district to which she belongs, be delivered to the collector of the said district, and be by him cancelled. And if the said master or commander shall neglect to deliver the said register, or enrolment and license, within the time aforesaid, he shall forfeit one hundred dollars.

§ 4. That, in order to the licensing of any ship or vessel for carrying on the coasting trade or fisheries, the husband, or managing owner, together with the master thereof, with one or more sureties, to the satisfaction of the collector granting the same, shall become bound to pay to the United States, if such ship or vessel be of the burthen of five tons and less than twenty tons, the sum of one hundred dollars; and if twenty tons and not exceeding thirty tons, the sum of two hundred dollars; and if above thirty tons and not exceeding sixty tons, the sum of five hundred dollars; and if above sixty tons, the sum of one thousand dollars, in case it shall appear, within two years from the date of the bond, that such ship or vessel has been employed in any trade, whereby the revenue of the United States has been defrauded during the time the license granted to such ship or vessel remained in force; and the master of such ship or vessel shall also swear or affirm, that *he is a citizen of the United States, and that such license shall not be used for any other vessel, or any other employment, than that for which it is specially granted, or in any trade or business whereby the revenue of the United States may be defrauded;* and if such ship or vessel be less than twenty tons burthen, the husband or managing owner shall swear or affirm, that *she is wholly the property of a citizen or citizens of the United States;* whereupon it shall be the duty of the collector of the district, comprehending the port whereto such ship or vessel may belong, (the duty of six cents per ton being first paid,) to grant a license, in the form following: "License for carrying on the [here insert, coasting trade, whale fishery, or cod fishery, as the case may be.]

"In pursuance of an act of the congress of the United States of America, entitled "An act for enrolling and licensing ships or vessels to be employed in the coasting trade and fisheries, and for regulating the same," [inserting here, the name of the husband or managing owner, with his occupation and place of abode, and the name of the master, with the place of his abode] having given bond that the [insert here, the description of the vessel, whether ship, brigantine, snow, schooner, sloop, or whatever else she may be] called the [insert here, the vessel's name] whereof the said [naming the master] is master, burthen [insert here the number of tons, in words] tons, as appears by her enrolment, dated at [naming the district, day, month, and year, in words at length] (but, if she be less than twenty tons, insert, instead thereof) proof being had of her admeasurement, shall not be employed in any trade, while this license shall continue in force, whereby the revenue of the United States shall be defrauded, and having also sworn (or affirmed) that this license shall not be used for any other vessel, or for any other employment, than is herein specified, license is hereby granted for the said [inserting here, the description of the vessel] called the [insert here, the vessel's name] to be employed in carrying on the [inserting here, coasting trade, whale fishery, or cod fishery, as the case may be] for one year from the date hereof, and no longer: Given under my hand and seal, at [naming the said district] this [inserting the particular day] day of [naming the month] in the year [specifying the number of the year, in words at length.]"

§ 6. That after the last day of May next, every ship or vessel of twenty tons or upwards, (other than such as are registered,) found trading between district and district, or between different places in the same district, or carrying on the fishery, without being enrolled and licensed, or, if less than twenty tons, and not less than five tons, without a license, in manner as is provided by this act, such ship or vessel, if laden with goods the growth or manufacture of the United States only, (distilled spirits only excepted) or in ballast, shall pay the same fees and tonnage in every port of the United States at which she may arrive, as ships or vessels not belonging to a citizen or citizens of the United States; and if she have on board any articles of foreign growth or manufacture, or distilled spirits, other than sea stores, the ship or vessel, together with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, and the lading found on board, shall be forfeited: *Provided*, however, if such ship or vessel be at sea at the expiration of the time for which the license was given, and the master of such ship or vessel shall swear or affirm that such was the case, and shall, also, within forty-eight hours after his arrival, deliver to the collector of the district in which he shall first arrive the license which shall have expired, the forfeiture aforesaid shall not be incurred, nor shall the ship or vessel be liable to pay the fees and tonnage aforesaid.

§ 7. That the collector of each district shall progressively number the licenses by him granted, beginning anew at the commencement of each year, and shall make a record thereof, in a book to be by him kept for that purpose, and shall, once in three months, transmit to the register of the treasury, copies of the licenses which shall have been so granted by him; and also, of such licenses as shall have been given up or returned to him, respectively, in pursuance of this act. And where any ship or vessel shall be licensed or enrolled anew, or being licensed or enrolled, shall afterwards be registered, or being registered, shall afterwards be enrolled or licensed, she shall, in every such case, be enrolled, licensed, or registered, by her former name.

§ 8. That if any ship or vessel, enrolled or licensed as aforesaid, shall proceed on a foreign voyage, without first giving up her enrolment and license to the collector of the district comprehending the port from which she is about to proceed on such foreign voyage, and being duly registered by such collector, every such ship or vessel, together with her tackle, apparel, and furniture, and the goods, wares, and merchandise, so imported therein, shall be liable to seizure and forfeiture: *Provided always*, if the port from which such ship or vessel is about to proceed on such foreign voyage, be not within the district where such ship or vessel is enrolled, the collector of such district shall give to the master of such ship or vessel a certificate, specifying that the enrolment and license of such ship or vessel is received by him, and the time when it was so received; which certificate shall afterwards be delivered by the said master to the collector who may have granted such enrolment and licence.

Act of the 1st of June, 1790.—§ 2. That every ship and vessel of the United States, going to any foreign country, shall, before she departs from the United States, at the request of the master, be furnished, by the collector for the district where such ship or vessel may be, with a passport of the form prescribed and established, pursuant to the foregoing section; for which passport the master of such ship or vessel shall pay to the said collector ten dollars, to be accounted for by him; and, in order to be entitled to such passport, the master of every such ship or vessel shall be bound with sufficient sureties, to the treasurer of the United States, in the penalty of two thousand dollars, conditioned, that the said

passport shall not be applied to the use or protection of any other ship or vessel than the one described in the same; and that, in case of the loss or sale of any ship or vessel having such passport, the same shall, within three months, be delivered up to the collector from whom it was received, if the loss or sale take place within the United States; or within six months, if the same shall happen at any place nearer than the cape of Good Hope; and within eighteen months, if at a more distant place.

Act of the 27th of June, 1797.—§ 1. That no ship or vessel which has been, or shall be registered pursuant to any law of the United States, and which hereafter shall be seized, or captured and condemned, under the authority of any foreign power, or that shall, by sale, become the property of a foreigner or foreigners, shall, after the passing of this act, be entitled to, or capable of receiving a new register, notwithstanding such ship or vessel should afterwards become American property; but that all such ships and vessels shall be taken and considered, to all intents and purposes, as foreign vessels: *Provided*, That nothing in this act contained shall extend to, or be construed to affect, the person or persons owning any ship or vessel, at the time of the seizure, or capture of the same, or shall prevent such owner, in case he regain a property in such ship or vessel, so condemned, by purchase or otherwise, from claiming and receiving a new register for the same, as he might or could have done if this act had not been passed.

Act of the 2d of March, 1803.—§ 1. That if any person shall knowingly make, utter, or publish, any false sealetter, Mediterranean passport, or certificate of registry, or shall knowingly avail himself of any such Mediterranean passport, sealetter, or certificate of registry, he shall forfeit and pay a sum not exceeding five thousand dollars, to be recovered by action of debt, in the name of the United States, in any court of competent jurisdiction; and, if an officer of the United States, he shall forever thereafter be rendered incapable of holding any office of trust or profit under the authority of the United States.

§ 2. That it shall be the duty of the comptroller of the treasury to cause to be provided blank certificates of registry, with such water and other secret marks as he may direct, which marks shall be made known only to the collectors and their deputies, and to the consuls or commercial agents of the United States; and from and after the thirty-first day of December next, no certificate of registry shall be issued, except such as shall have been provided and marked as aforesaid; and the ships or vessels of the United States, which shall have been duly registered as such, shall be entitled to new certificates of registry (gratis) in exchange for their old certificates of registry: And it shall be the duty of the respective collectors, on the departure of any such ship or vessel, after the said thirty-first day of December, from the district to which such ship or vessel shall belong, to issue a new certificate accordingly, and to retain and deface the former certificate.

§ 3. That when any ship or vessel, which has been, or which shall be, registered pursuant to any law of the United States, shall, whilst such ship or vessel is without the limits of the United States, be sold or transferred, in whole or in part, to a citizen or citizens of the United States, such ship or vessel, on her first arrival in the United States thereafter, shall be entitled to all the privileges and benefits of a ship or vessel of the United States: *Provided*, That all the requisites of law, in order to the registry of ships or vessels, shall be complied with, and a new certificate of registry obtained for such ship or vessel, within three days from the time at which the master or other person having the charge or command of such ship or vessel, is required to make his final report upon her first arrival afterwards, as aforesaid, agreeably to the thirtieth section of the act, passed on the second day of March, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-nine, entitled "An act to regulate the collection of duties on imports and tonnage." And it shall be lawful to pay to the collector of the district within which such ship or vessel may arrive, as aforesaid, the duties imposed by law on the tonnage of such ship or vessel at any time within three days from the time at which the master, or other person having the charge or command of such ship or vessel, is required to make his final report, as aforesaid, any thing to the contrary in any former law notwithstanding: *Provided, always*, That nothing herein contained shall be construed to repeal, or in any wise change the provisions, restrictions, or limitations, of any former act or acts, excepting so far as the same shall be repugnant to the provisions of this act.

Act of the 28th of March, 1810.—§ 1. That, from and after the thirtieth of June next, no sealetter, or other document, certifying or proving any ship or vessel to be the property of a citizen or citizens of the United States, shall be issued, except to ships or vessels duly registered, or enrolled and licensed, as ships or vessels of the United States, or to vessels which, at that time, shall be wholly owned by citizens of the United States, and furnished with, or entitled to, sealetters or other customhouse documents; any law or laws, heretofore passed, to the contrary notwithstanding: *Provided, nevertheless*, That no sealetter shall be issued to any vessel which shall not at this time be furnished or entitled to a sealetter, unless such vessel shall return to some port or place in the United States, or territories thereof, on or before the said thirtieth day of June next: *Provided, nevertheless*, That no sealetter or other document, certifying or proving any ship or vessel to be the property of a citizen or citizens of the United States, shall be issued to any vessel now abroad, which shall not, at this time, be furnished or entitled to a sealetter, unless such vessel shall arrive at some port or place in the United States, or territories thereof, on or before the said thirtieth day of June next: *And provided*, That nothing herein contained shall be construed to operate against any such vessel or vessels that now are, or may be prior to the said thirtieth of June, detained abroad by the authority of any foreign power.

See further *Gordon's Digest of the Laws of the United States*, Book 9th, Chapter 2d, and *Kent's Commentaries on American Law*, Lecture 45th.—*Am. Ed.*]

REPORT, in commercial navigation, a paper delivered by the masters of all ships arriving from parts beyond seas to the Custom-house, and attested upon oath, containing an account of the cargo on board, &c.—(See *antè* p. 4.)

REPRISALS. Where the people of one nation have unlawfully seized and detained property belonging to another state, the subjects of the latter are authorised, by the law of nations, to indemnify themselves, by seizing the property of the subjects of the state aggressing. This is termed making reprisals; and commissions to this effect are issued from the Admiralty.—(See PRIVATEERS.)

RESPONDENTIA. See BOTTOMRY AND RESPONDENTIA.

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE. Though not properly belonging to a work of this sort, we believe we shall do an acceptable service to our readers by laying before them the following comprehensive Table of the revenue and the expenditure of the United Kingdom in 1836, 1837, and 1838. It contains more information in a brief space than most parliamentary papers. It was originally framed according to the suggestion, and printed upon the motion of Mr. Pusey; and there are not very many members who have left so useful a memorial of their parliamentary career.

Heads of Income.	Public Income in the Years.					
	1836.		1837.		1838.	
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	
Customs and Excise.						
Spirits { foreign	1,462,573		1,396,868		1,389,371	
Spirits { rum	1,496,156		1,412,922		1,411,067	
Spirits { British	5,508,477		5,015,071		5,467,301	
Malt	5,948,260		2,252,410		4,262,080	
Hops	402,290		344,954		302,906	
Wine	1,794,033		1,697,201		1,848,097	
Sugar and molasses	4,479,809		5,026,828		4,863,694	
Tea	4,674,535		3,923,940		3,962,035	
Coffee	691,606		606,644		694,979	
Tobacco and snuff	2,997,108		2,417,668		2,561,812	
Butter	258,806	23,750,527	265,563	27,496,876	231,665	27,851,468
Cheese	105,087		120,034		113,907	
Currants and Raisins	311,016		307,998		300,829	
Corn	149,661		583,721		186,780	
Cotton wool and sheep's imported	662,296		571,080		725,445	
Silk	94,768		218,375		234,974	
Hides and skins	97,171		52,556		61,478	
Paper	719,119		554,497		541,786	
Soap	756,193		730,788		810,813	
Candles and tallow	207,738		203,977		183,669	
Coals, sea borne	8,987		8,910		7,232	
Glass	652,225		657,947		666,857	
Bricks, tiles, and slates	474,931		436,954		418,326	
Timber	1,537,483		1,269,381		1,572,613	
Auctions	294,909		274,264		226,186	
Excise licences	1,018,002		1,019,451		1,023,202	
Miscellaneous duties of Customs and Excise	1,633,221	9,014,554	1,501,173	8,858,709	1,596,366	9,023,423
Total Customs and Excise		32,765,081		36,355,577		36,874,891
Stamps.						
Deeds and other instruments	1,621,741		1,603,207		1,653,720	
Probate and legacies	2,042,528		2,185,890		2,192,231	
Insurance { marine	252,712		260,512		251,856	
Insurance { fire	831,367		924,136		801,704	
Bills of exchange, bankers' notes	739,957		714,709		734,109	
Newspapers and advertisements	466,701		522,651		541,376	
Stage coaches	514,625		498,943		494,294	
Post horses	226,049		240,283		241,206	
Receipts	175,086		172,280		173,855	
Other stamp duties	432,601		426,506		468,784	
		7,350,577		7,565,127		7,462,133
Assessed and Land Taxes.						
Land taxes	1,199,609		1,192,535		1,194,890	
Windows	1,254,325		1,257,878		1,262,561	
Servants	207,311		201,044		201,018	
Horses	380,222		380,593		377,477	
Carriages	449,792		441,173		442,787	
Dogs	158,190		155,931		156,300	
Other assessed taxes	162,056		260,892		278,243	
		3,921,506		3,990,146		3,905,276
Pos. office	2,360,000		2,339,730		2,348,278	
Crown lands	261,593		419,780		286,642	
Other ordinary revenues and other resources	146,130		822,188		818,175	
Total Income	52,295,226		50,492,553		51,275,195	
Excess of expenditure over income			726,460		441 919	
	52,295,226		51,219,113		51,720,747	

ACCOUNT of the Public Expenditure of the United Kingdom in the Years 1836, 1837, 1838.

Heads of Expenditure.	1836.		1837.		1838.	
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Income—Charges of Collection:						
Civil Department { Customs	647,136		635,842		636,347	
Civil Department { Excise	869,191		862,080		851,494	
		1,516,329		1,497,922		1,488,341
Preventive service, land guard, revenue police cruisers and harbour vessels		562,219		561,096		570,129
		2,078,548		2,059,018		2,058,470
Stamps		159,394		169,055		164,218
Assessed taxes		176,211		165,190		209,303
Other ordinary revenues		47,837		46,437		54,213
Superannuation and other allowances		389,435		381,162		374,401
Total charge of collection		2,851,225		2,818,792		2,868,600
Public Debt.						
Interest of permanent debt	24,156,664		24,215,779		24,212,590	
Terminable annuities	4,224,427		4,195,745		4,143,966	
Management	126,958		132,482		133,556	
	28,508,049		28,544,006		28,530,112	
Interest on Exchequer bills	726,824		886,888		720,938	
Total debt		29,234,873		29,430,894		29,251,040
Civil Government. Civil List. Privy Purse.						
Salaries of the household, tradesmen's bills	411,800		391,972		371,800	
The allowances to the several branches of the Royal Family, and to his Royal Highness Leopold Prince of Coburg (now King of the Belgians)	208,000		278,857		208,000	
The Lord Lieutenant of Ireland's establishment	30,345		31,955		33,999	
The salaries and expenses of the Houses of Parliament (including printing)	197,731		157,820		142,195	
Civil departments, including superannuation allowances	866,992		456,202		460,064	
Other annuities, pensions and superannuation allowances on the consolidated fund and on the gross revenue	325,664		322,641		357,576	
Pensions civil list	75,000		71,589		621	
Total civil government		1,656,472		1,721,034		1,574,126
Justice.						
Courts of justice	320,887		404,992		454,502	
Police and criminal prosecutions	529,420		492,773		562,191	
Correction	389,827		428,711		465,666	
Total justice		1,010,134		1,326,435		1,482,359
Diplomatic.						
Foreign ministers' salaries and pensions	186,201		188,142		192,028	
Consuls' salaries and superannuation allowances	94,620		99,950		148,606	
Disbursements, outfit, &c.	23,515		28,840		62,198	
Total diplomatic		315,436		316,932		392,832
Forces.						
Army { Effective { Number of men	(90,537)		(78,090)		(82,746)	
Army { Effective { Charge	3,829,805		3,941,996		4,263,541	
Army { Non-effective { Number of men	(87,122)		(83,965)		(80,914)	
Army { Non-effective { Charge	2,643,380		2,579,719		2,552,100	
Total army	6,473,185		6,521,715		6,815,641	
Navy { Effective { Number of men	(29,076)		(30,995)		(30,390)	
Navy { Effective { Charge	2,616,829		3,216,075		3,046,867	
Navy { Non-effective { Number of men	(26,237)		(23,329)		(24,530)	
Navy { Non-effective { Charge	1,588,897		1,534,584		1,473,561	
Total navy	4,205,726		4,750,659		4,520,428	
Ordnance { Effective { Number of men	(8,337)		(8,852)		(9,012)	
Ordnance { Effective { Charge	1,274,442		1,299,258		1,218,533	
Ordnance { Non-effective { Number of men	(1,403)		(1,513)		(622)	
Ordnance { Non-effective { Charge	159,617		154,165		165,048	
Total ordnance	1,434,059		1,444,523		1,384 681	
Total forces		12,112,968		12,716,897		12,720,750
Army and ordnance, insurrection in Canada						500,000
Bounties, &c. for promoting fisheries		15,683		12,466		13,454
Public works		316,841		304,896		322,539
Payments out of the revenue of crown lands, for improvements and various public services		327,458		324,451		144,731
Post office; charges of collection and other payments		712,304		688,704		676,835
Quarantine and warehousing establishments		111,663		121,700		134,534
Miscellaneous services not classed under the foregoing heads		2,254,296		1,491,112		1,559,048
Total expenditure		50,819,805		51,314,113		51,720,747
Surplus		2,075,993				
		52,895,298		51,319,113		51,720,747
Memorandum.—The amount of terminable Annuities on 5th January was		4,220,217		4,202,042		4,222,173
In corresponding perpetuities, as estimated by Mr. Finlaison		1,928,155		1,870,746		1,830,654
Difference		2,292,062		2,331,297		2,461,519

[Revenue and Expenditure of the United States for 1838 and 1839, as reported by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Receipts or means in 1838.	Amount.
Balance on the 1st of January, 1838,	$37,166,351 99
Receipts from customs,	17,476,770 56
Receipts from lands,	3,136,98 54
Miscellaneous,	253,431 65
Treasury notes issued,	12,716,220 86
Second and third bonds of United States Bank of Pennsylvania,	4,543,102 22
	$75,294,306 01

Expenditures in 1838.	
Civil and miscellaneous, first three quarters,	$4,029,074 13
Military, first three quarters,	15,731,232 03
Naval, first three quarters,	4,225,563 21
Estimate of above expenditures for the fourth quarter	8,349,000 00
Public debt for the year,	2,317 98
Redemption of Treasury notes for the year,	8,069,440 64
Balance on the 31st of December, 1838,	34,866,987 33
Total,	$75,294,306 01

Unavailable Funds in 1838.	
Deposites with the States,	$28,101,644 97
Due from insolvent banks before 1837,	1,100,000 00
Due from banks that suspended payment in 1837, and not payable till 1839,	2,400,000 00
Part of money in the mint,	500,000 00
Total,	$32,101,644 97
From balance on the 31st December, 1838, being	$34,866,987 33
Deduct total unavailable as above,	32,101,644 97
Available balance remaining,	$2,765,342 36

Revenue and Means for 1839, exclusive of Trusts and the Post-office.

The balance in the Treasury on the 1st of January, 1839, which could be considered available for general purposes, was	$2,466,901 99
The receipts from customs, the first three quarters, as appearing on the Register's books, are	18,288,313 59
This includes about two millions and three-fourths collected last year in Treasury notes, but not carried on his books till 1839. From this cause, the actual receipts in this year will, to that extent, appear larger than they ought.	
Receipts from Lands the first three quarters, including also some collected last year in Treasury notes	5,417,396 31
Miscellaneous receipts	195,39973
Estimated receipts for the fourth quarter from all those sources	5,700,000 00
Receipts on some of the debts against banks not available, on 1st January, 1839, but since paid	1,399,666 00
From the third issue of Treasury notes under the act of March 2d, 1839	3,857,376 91
Aggregate means,	$37,317,812 75

Expenditures for 1839, exclusive of the Post-office and Trusts.

Civil, foreign, and miscellaneous for the first three quarters	$3,649,509 23
Military, for the first three quarters	10,791,799 91
Naval, for the first three quarters	4,713,701 37
Estimate for all during the fourth quarter	5,600,000 00
Funded debt for the year	14,656 86
	$24,769,667 99
Redemption of Treasury notes in the first three quarters, interest as well as principal	9,891,759 53
This includes two millions and three-fourths paid in for duties and lands last year, but not carried on the Register's books till 1839. From this cause, the expenditures on that account will appear larger by that amount than they actually have been within those quarters.	
Estimated amount of notes redeemed in the fourth quarter,	1,000,000 00
Aggregate payments	$35,661,427 72
Leaving an available balance of money in the Treasury, on the 31st of December, 1839, of	1,656,384 93
	$37,317,812 75

Statement of the Annual Expenditures, exclusive of the Public Debt, from the commencement of the Government to the last of December, 1837: as reported by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Years.	Dollars.	Years.	Dollars.	Years.	Dollars.	Years.	Dollars.
March 4, 1789		For 1802	3,737,090	For 1814	30,127,687	For 1826	13,062,336
to Dec. 31, 1791	1,919,500	1803	4,009,824	1815	26,953,571	1827	12,813,760
For 1792	1,977,904	1804	4,452,959	1816	22,375,433	1828	13,286,940
1793	1,710,070	1805	6,357,225	1817	15,454,610	1829	12,660,66
1794	3,500,546	1806	6,081,109	1818	13,808,674	1830	13,229,33
1795	4,360,658	1807	4,984,572	1819	16,300,273	1831	13,864,087
1796	2,831,930	1808	3,404,339	1820	13,134,530	1832	16,516,58
1797	3,953,591	1809	7,414,672	1821	10,723,179	1833	21,711,753
1798	4,623,225	1810	5,311,082	1822	9,827,643	1834	18,125,47
1799	6,480,167	1811	5,562,604	1823	9,784,154	1835	17,514,9 0
1800	7,411,370	1812	17,829,409	1824	15,390,144	1836	30,868,54
1801	4,981,669	1813	28,082,397	1825	11,490,459	1837	36,164,74

RHUBARB (Du. *Rhubarber*; Fr. *Rhubarbe, Rubarbe*; It. *Rabarbaro, Reo-barbaro*; Sp. *Ruibarbo*; Rus. *Rewen*; Arab. *Rawend*; Chin. *Ta-hwang*), the root of a plant, a native of China and Tartary. Three varieties of rhubarb are known in the shops; viz. Russian, Turkey, and East Indian or Chinese rhubarb. The first two resemble each other in every respect. They are, in fact, the same article, being both derived from Tartary. The portion destined for the Petersburgh market being selected and sorted at Kiachta, acquires the name of Russian rhubarb; while the portion that is sent from Tartary to Smyrna and other places in Turkey, is called Turkey rhubarb. The best pieces only are sent to Petersburgh; and according to the contract with the government, on whose account it is bought, all that is rejected must be burnt; and that which is approved undergoes a second cleaning before being finally packed up for Petersburgh. The best pieces of Russian and Turkey rhubarb are roundish and perforated with a large hole, of a reddish or yellow colour on the outside, and when cut or broken exhibit a mottled texture, and alternate streaks of red and grey. Its odour is peculiar; and its taste nauseous, bitter, and astringent. It should not be porous, but rather compact and heavy. East Indian or Chinese rhubarb is in oblong flat pieces, seldom perforated; has a stronger odour, and is more nauseous to the taste than the other; it is heavier, more compact, breaks smoother, and affords a powder of a redder shade.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Ainslie's Mat. Indica*, &c.)

The total quantity of rhubarb imported in 1831 amounted to 140,395 lbs.; of which 6,901 lbs. came from Russia, and 133,462 from the East Indies. Of the quantity imported, 40,124 lbs. were retained for home consumption. The price of rhubarb in bond varies from 2*s.* per lb. for the inferior East India, to 8*s.* for the best Russian.

RICE (Fr. *Riz*; It. *Riso*; Arab. *Aruz*; Hind. *Chawl*), one of the most valuable of the cereal grasses, the *Oryza sativa* of botanists. It is raised in immense quantities in India, China, and most eastern countries; in the West Indies, Central America, and the United States; and in some of the southern countries of Europe. It, in fact, occupies the same place in most intertropical regions as wheat in the warmer parts of Europe, and oats and rye in those more to the north. Forming, as it does, the principal part of the food of the most civilised and populous Eastern nations, it is more extensively consumed than any other species of grain. It is light and wholesome, but is said to contain less of the nutritive principle than wheat. When rough, or in its natural state in the husk, it is called *paddy*. There is an immense variety in the qualities of rice. That which is principally exported from Bengal has received the name of *cargo* rice. It is of a coarse reddish cast, but is sweet and large grained, and is preferred by the natives to every other sort. It is not kiln-dried, but is parboiled in earthen pots or caldrons, partly to destroy the vegetative principle, so that it may keep better, and partly to facilitate the process of husking. Patna rice is more esteemed in Europe than any other sort of rice imported from the East. It is small grained, rather long and wiry, and remarkably white. But the rice raised on the low marshy grounds of Carolina is unquestionably very superior to any brought from any part of India.

The produce of lands naturally or artificially irrigated is, as far as rice is concerned, from 5 to 10 times greater than that of dry land having no command of water: and hence the vast importance of irrigation in all countries where this grain is cultivated. But it is worthy of remark, that owing to the not unfrequent occurrence of severe droughts, there is a greater variation in the crops of rice than in those of any other species of grain. Those who, like the Hindoos, depend almost entirely on it for subsistence, are, consequently, placed in a very precarious situation. There can be no doubt that famines are at once more frequent and severe in Hindostan than in any other quarter.

A few years ago England was principally supplied with cleaned rice from Carolina. Latterly, however, the imports of Carolina rice have been much reduced. An improved method of separating the husk, which throws out the grain clean and unbroken, has recently been practised in this country; and as the grain, when in the husk, is found to preserve its flavour and sweetness better during a long voyage than when shelled, large quantities are now imported rough from Bengal and the United States. Unquestionably, however, the oppressive discriminating duty of 14*s.* a cwt. on American and other foreign cleaned rice has done more than any thing else to increase the imports of rough grain; and the fact of the duty on paddy from Bengal being only 1*d.* per quarter, while that on paddy from Carolina is 2*s.* 6*d.* a bushel, sufficiently accounts for the increased imports from the former.

The consumption of rice increased rapidly after the reduction of the duty on the cleaned and rough grain from India in 1828. In 1830, the entries for home consumption amounted to 153,652 cwt. of cleaned, and 189,949 cwt. of rough grain. But, contrary to our anticipations in the former edition of this work, the consumption has since materially fallen off. The entries for home consumption in 1832 amounted to only 111,461 cwt. of clean, and 179,697 cwt. of rough grain, or paddy; and, during last year (1833), there was a still further decline. Mr. Cook ascribes this diminution to the reduction that has taken place in the price of wheat, which has fallen from 64*s.* 3*d.* in 1830 to 52*s.* 11*d.* in 1833. Mr. C. farther mentions that, in bad seasons, when grain is soft and damp, the millers consider it advantageous to grind a certain proportion of rice with it.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*; *Ainslie's Mat. Ind.*, *Cook's Com. of Great Britain* in 1833; and *private information.*)

The price of rice in bond in the London market, in January, 1834, was as under:—

	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
Rice, Carolina, new, per cwt.	0 19 0	to 1 1 0
East India, fine, Patna, &c.	0 17 0	– 1 1 0
Bengal, white, do.	0 13	6 – 0 16 0
cargo, and ordinary	0 9 0	– 0 12 0

Duty on paddy, the produce of, and imported from, British possessions, 1*d.* per quarter.
From America and other foreign places, 2*s.* 6*d.* per bushel.
Duty on American and other foreign places of growth, 15*s.* per cwt —Bengal, and other sorts, 1*s.* per cwt.

RIGA, a city of European Russia, the capital of Livonia, situated on the Duna, about 9 miles from the sea, in lat. 56° 56′ 5″ N., lon. 24° 0′ 4″ E. Population about 47,000.

Harbour.—A light-house has been erected on Fort Comet, on the western side of the mouth of the river. It has 2 lights; the first, elevated about 101 feet (English) above the level of the sea, may b

seen, under favourable circumstances, at the distance of 4 leagues; and the second, elevated about 24½ feet, may be seen at the distance of 3½ leagues. The bar at the mouth of the river has usually from 12 to 13 feet water; and vessels drawing more than this frequently load and unload part of their cargoes by means of lighters at Bolderaa, a small town on the west side of the river, near its mouth. There is a fairway beacon without the bar, in 5 fathoms water; and within the channel, is buoyed with black and white buoys; the black being left on the right or starboard side when entering, and the white on the larboard. Vessels bound for Riga take pilots at Bolderaa, who carry them to their anchorage. No ballast is allowed to be discharged, except at Poderague. Regulations as to clearing, &c. similar to those at Petersburgh.—(*Coulier sur les Phares*, 2d ed.; and *Regulations published by the Russian Authorities*.)

Trade.—Owing to its advantageous situation near the mouth of a great navigable river, the trade of Riga is very extensive; being, of the Russian towns on the Baltic, in this respect second only to Petersburgh. The trade is chiefly carried on by foreign merchants, particularly by the English. The principal exports are corn, hemp and flax, linseed, iron, timber, masts, leather, tallow, &c.; the imports are salt, cloth and cotton stuffs, silks, wine, sugar, coffee, and groceries of all sorts, indigo, dye woods, salted herrings, &c.

The mast trade is very extensive. The burghers of Riga send persons who are called mast brokers into the provinces to mark the trees, which are purchased standing. They grow mostly in the districts which border on the Dnieper, are sent up that river to a landing place, transported 30 versts to the Duna, when, being formed into rafts of from 50 to 200 pieces, they descend the stream to Riga. The tree which produces the largest masts is the Scotch fir. Those pieces which are from 18 to 25 inches in diameter are called masts; under those dimensions, spars, or, in England, Norway masts, because Norway exports no trees more than 18 inches in diameter. Great skill is required in distinguishing those masts that are sound from those which are in the least internally decayed. They are usually from 70 to 80 feet in length.

Hemp is brought from the Ukraine and Poland, and requires 2 years in its passage to Riga. The barks in which it is conveyed are from 250 to 300 tons burden, covered with mats sloping like a pent house roof, and have a false bottom. They ascend the Dnieper and the Duna; but on account of numerous shoals, can only pass the Duna in the spring, or about 3 weeks after the snow begins to melt; and, if they miss that time, are delayed till autumn. The hemp exported from Riga is considered the best in Europe, and is generally about 30 per cent. dearer than that exported from Petersburgh. Riga hemp is chiefly used for the shrouds and stays of men-of-war.—(*Coxe' Travels in the North of Europe*, 5th ed. vol. ii. p. 241.)

The best kind of flax shipped from Riga is grown in White Russia, and is called Druana rakitzer; its colour is very white, and the threads long, fine, and loose, but it has sometimes black spots: the next quality, coming from the province of Trockic in Lithuania, is called Lithuanian rakitzer, and is very little inferior to Druana, but its colour is a little brown; of this kind the best sort is Thiesenhausen. The best kind of Courland flax shipped from Riga is Marienburgh; that grown in Livonia is of inferior quality. There are two kinds of linseed: that of the last crop, which is used for sowing; and that of former years, for crushing. To prevent deception, the year of its growth is stamped on the barrel by sworn inspectors (*brackers*). Some hemp-seed is occasionally shipped, mostly to Holland. Riga wheat is very inferior to that of Dantzic. Two descriptions are shipped—one the growth of Russia, the other of Courland; the last is much the best, being larger bodied and of a brighter colour than the Russian; still, however, it makes but indifferent flour. Oats are of a good quality, and are largely exported; peas are also occasionally exported.

In shipping masts, the rest of the cargo generally consists of deals and wainscot logs; the latter are much exported to England, and are very superior. Tallow is not so cheap here as at Petersburgh.

Money.—For the monies of Riga, see PETERSBURGH. The current rixdollar of Riga = 3*s.* 1½*d.* sterling; hence 1*l.* sterling = 6 rixdollars 36 groschen currency; the Riga dollar being divided into 90 groschen.

Weights and Measures.—The commercial pound is divided into 2 marcs, or 32 loths; and also into halves, quarters, &c. It contains 6,452 English grains. Hence, 100 lbs. of Riga = 92·17 lbs. avoirdupois = 41·8 kilog. = 86·32 lbs. of Hamburgh = 84·64 lbs. of Amsterdam. The lispound = 20 lbs.; the shippound = 20 lispounds.

The loof is the measure for grain: 48 loofs = 1 last of wheat, barley, or linseed; 45 loofs = 1 last of rye; and 60 loofs = 1 last of oats, malt, and beans.—According to Dr. Kelly, the loof = 1·9375 Winchester bushel; and, consequently, the last of wheat = 11·625 quarters. Neikenbrecher does not value the loof quite so high as Dr. Kelly.

The fuder, the measure for liquids, is divided into 6 ahms, 24 ankers, 120 quarts, or 720 stoofs. The anker = 10½ English wine gallons.

The foot of Riga = 10·79 English inches. The ell = 2 feet; the clafter = 6 feet.

I. Account of the Quantities of the Principal Articles exported from Riga during each of the Three Years ending with 1833.

Articles.		1831.	1832.	1833.	Articles.		1831.	1832.	1833.
Flax, 1st sort	sh. lbs.	85,106	88,003	98,613	Wheat	lasts	11,365	4,951	407
2d	—	17,365	24,802	40,749	Rye	—	34,375	86,020	474
3d	—	9,170	10,860	13,647	Barley	—	5,958	7,441	646
codilla	—	3,090	2,950	4,060	Oats	—	10,802	1,491	99
Hemp, Rhine	—	31,099	25,529	22,143	Peas	—	499	54	17
outshot	—	12,938	19,571	15,104	Tallow	sh. lbs.	6,084	5,370	5,425
pass	—	21,146	30,111	23,725	Hides	pieces	117,318	103,184	114,806
codilla	—	7,974	10,174	11,776	Wainscot logs	—	5,699	6,841	6,501
Linseed, crushing	barrels	245,378	189,926	174,921	Deals	—	344,389	122,000	204,715
sowing	—	119,218	37,528	95,595	Square timber	—	26,103	44,299	28,715
Hemp-seed	—	16,022	23,880	100,703	Masts and spars	—	2,361	2,209	1,738

II. Value of Exports in Bank Note Roubles.

	1830.	1831.
To Great Britain	23,458,286	37,158,481
Other Countries	21,070,020	18,431,0 9
Total	44,528,306	55,589,920

III. Ships cleared out from Riga in 1832.

Flag.	Ships.	Flags.	Ships.	To what Country.	Ships.	To what Country.	Ships.
British	340	Prussian	146	To Great Britain	342	To Prus'a	27
Hanoverian	109	Mecklenburgh	158	Hanover	5	Lubeck	24
Dutch	195	Oldenburgh	27	Holland	322	Hamburgh	9
Danish	178	Hamburgh	2	Belgium	165	Bremen	43
Swedish	81	Lubeck	16	France	30	Rostock	8
Norwegian	121	Bremen	19	Denmark	143	America	1
French	12	American	2	Sweden & Norway	112	Elsinore	344
Spanish	1	Russian	44	Portugal	8		
			1,483				1,483

IV. Ships despatched from Riga during the Six Years ending with 1832.

Years.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.
Ships.	1,378	1,180	1,331	1,245	1,573	1,483

RIO DE JANEIRO, the capital of Brazil, situated in lat. 22° 54′ 15″ S., lon. 43° 16′ 50″ W. Population about 160,000. The harbour of Rio is one of the finest in the world, both as respects capaciousness and security for all sorts of vessels. In coming from the N.E. it is usual to make Cape Frio, in lat. 23° 1′ 18″ S., lon. 42° 3′ 19″ W., being about 4 leagues nearly E. of Rio. The entrance to the harbour is marked by a remarkable hill in the form of a sugar loaf, 900 feet high, close to its west side; while on the east, or opposite side of the bay, at the distance of about 1¼ mile, is the fort of Santa Cruz. But the wood-cut in the next page, taken from a chart published by order of the Brazilian authorities, gives a much better idea of this noble harbour than could be obtained from any description.

Entrance to the Harbour.—Vessels bound for Rio, coming from the N., should, after rounding Cape Frio, steer due W., keeping about 3 leagues from the coast, until they come within 5 or 6 miles of the *Ilha Raza*, or Flat Island, lying almost due S. from the mouth of the harbour, at the distance of about 3 leagues. A light-house, the lantern of which is said to be elevated nearly 300 feet above the level of the sea was erected on this island in 1829. The light is a revolving one, finishing its revolution in 3 minutes, and exhibiting alternately a white and a red light. There is also a light-house in the fort of Santa Cruz, the light of which is fixed and elevated about 50 feet above the level of the sea.—(*Coulier sur les Phares*, 2d ed.) Having got within 5 or 6 miles of the Ilha Raza, ships may enter by day or by night, the dotted line in the cut marking the fairway into the harbour. There are no pilots to be met with; and, as there are no hidden dangers of any kind, their services are not wanted. On entering, vessels must pass within hail of Fort Santa Cruz, to be ready to answer any questions that may be put to them. They then proceed to Fort Vilganhon, below or opposite to which they must bring to, or come to anchor, allowing no boats to come alongside, but those of the government, until they have received *pratique*, when they will be permitted to proceed to the usual place of anchorage for the merchant shipping.

The sea breeze generally sets in about 11 A. M., and lasts till about sun-set. It is strong enough to enable ships to overcome the ebb. High water at full and change at 2 in the afternoon.

Trade.—The trade of Rio is extensive, and has increased rapidly of late years. The principal articles of export are coffee, sugar, cotton, hides, rum, tallow, indigo, coarse cotton cloths, gold, diamonds, precious stones, tobacco, cabinet and dye woods, rice, &c. The imports consist principally of cottons, hardware, flour, dried fish, linens, woollens, soap and candles, wines, oils, &c. Until 1830, slaves formed one of the principal articles of import into Rio and other Brazilian ports; so many as 45,000 having been imported in one year, of which Rio received the greater proportion. But, according to a convention entered into with this country, this infamous traffic should have ceased in February, 1830: whether it has really done so is more than we can undertake to affirm.

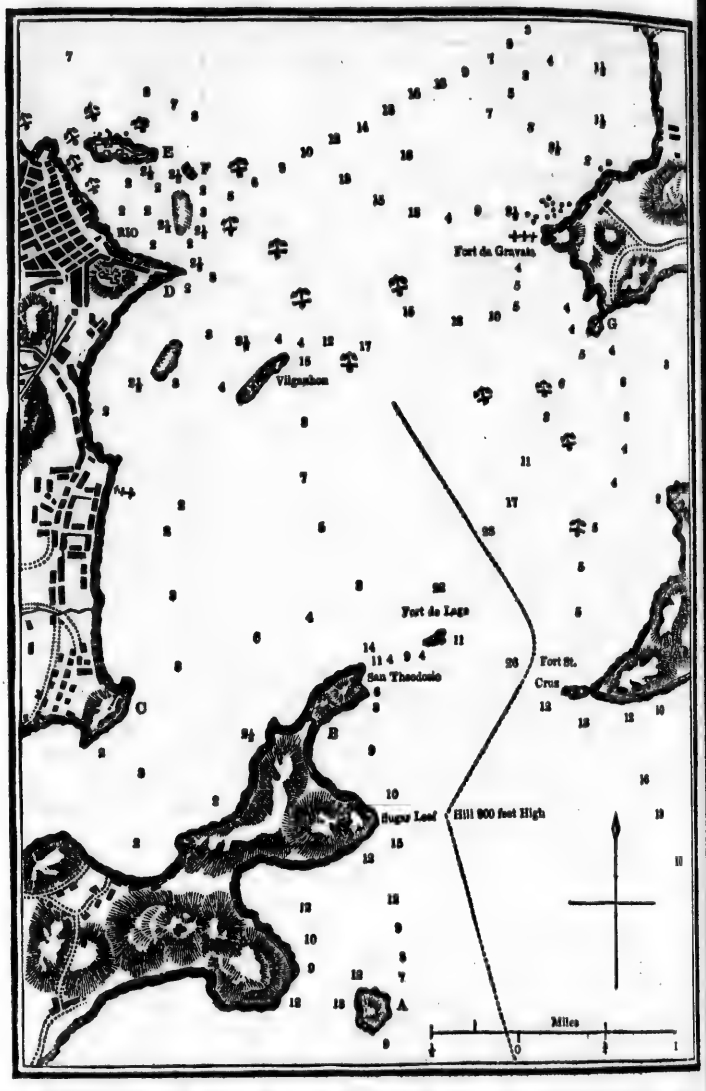
Comparative Monthly and Yearly Statement of the Coffee, Sugar, and Hides exported from Rio de Janeiro, during the Six Years ending with 1832.

Months.	Coffee.						Sugar.					
	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.
	Bags.	*Bags.*	*Bags.*	*Bags.*	*Bags.*	*Bags.*	*Cases.*	*Cases.*	*Cases.*	*Cases.*	*Cases.*	*Cases.*
January	25,971	21,824	34,102	38,490	19,028	43,074	1,141	1,679	1,656	3,224	1,912	1,093
February	18,687	20,569	33,236	24,527	26,630	35,405	1,256	1,287	1,669	2,737	747	1,389
March	30,614	34,560	23,590	31,289	37,665	35,274	3,193	1,463	3,623	2,076	1,827	3,475
April	10,013	14,396	13,089	22,341	31,534	26,508	1,721	855	2,660	1,318	1,112	1,974
May	27,105	29,960	27,511	20,109	23,627	29,817	2,227	2,078	1,248	2,310	2,924	694
June	28,618	32,344	27,210	24,028	38,192	31,871	1,117	2,769	1,558	1,796	4,418	1,336
July	31,096	37,295	36,547	43,717	35,179	28,396	1,865	693	1,279	1,277	2,710	1,870
August	40,315	52,160	47,207	33,959	53,237	45,912	1,484	1,134	1,377	671	947	1,941
September	33,688	41,395	33,074	45,824	48,093	40,034	908	1,900	173	806	682	841
October	41,707	28,677	36,891	28,789	42,173	44,712	795	794	1,807	1,781	1,100	771
November	31,415	30,562	26,029	33,815	42,164	51,215	876	456	583	2,101	1,270	757
December	32,001	25,415	28,778	44,997	50,477	46,952	3,091	3,407	1,112	2,391	2,375	665
Total	360,900	369,147	375,107	391,785	448,249	478,950	19,644	19,035	18,864	22,488	22,004	16,045

Hides.

Months.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	Months.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.
	No.	*No.*	*No.*	*No.*	*No.*	*No.*		*No.*	*No.*	*No.*	*No.*	*No.*	*No.*
January	60,173	15,828	46,065	8,578	36,911	5,990	July	24,365	24,868	45,057	13,389	13,772	37,776
February	12,548	12,205	32,473	18,835	42,860	5,312	August	29,658	16,300	36,306	16,458	26,236	14,561
March	48,477	33,107	21,562	24,258	28,698	32,707	September	12,093	15,569	10,567	19,274	9,979	14,300
April	21,558	418	34,242	31,882	28,977	74,641	October	10,743	990	43,180	4,788	26,319	32,928
May	47,088	18,106	17,467	44,346	12,998	18,016	November	31,148	21,281	30,572	33,816	30,750	5,275
June	11,737	15,538	16,823	30,592	41,488	9,944	December	10,189	33,133	16,969	30,513	44,397	14,217
							Total	329,520	307,268	351,893	266,719	342,385	263,667

This statement is taken from the *Circular* of *Stockmeyer, Gracie, & Co.*, dated Rio de Janeiro, 4th of January, 1833, who state that they derived the details from the manifests of the vessels clearing out at the Custom house.



References to Plan.—A, Ilha do Catunduba. B, Fort de St. Joao. C, Morro do Flamengo. D, Ponta do Calhabouco. E, Fort da Ilha das Cobras. F, Ilha das Rattos. G, Fort da Boa Viagem.

The increase in the exports of sugar and coffee from Brazil during the last 10 years has been quite unprecedented. In 1822, the total export of sugar from the empire was only 40,000 tons, whereas it now amounts to about 75,000 tons. In 1821, the quantity of coffee exported from Rio did not exceed 7,500 tons; but in 1833 it amounted to more than 4 times that quantity, or to about 35,000 tons! The exports of cotton have also increased, but not so rapidly. The imports of cotton from Brazil to England in 1831, were 31,695,761 lbs, being between a 7th and an 8th of the total quantity we imported that year. In 1832, the imports declined to 20,109,560 lbs.

A considerable part of the extraordinarily rapid increase of the sugar and coffee cultivation in Brazil must be ascribed to the facility with which slaves have recently been imported; and it is possible that the cessation of their importation, supposing the convention to that effect to be executed, may check, for a while, the extension of cultivation in Brazil.

We have derived the following statements, as to the trade of Brazil, from the highest mercantile authority. Of their accuracy there can be no more question than of their interest and importance:—"Unfortunately, the government of Brazil does not publish any official statements of the trade of the different ports, not even of the amount of exports or imports, so that information on these points can only be drawn from private sources.

"Estimated Amount of Brazilian Exports, with their Values at the Port of Shipment.

	£ s. d.	£	£	£
Middle Provinces.				
Rio.—Coffee - - bags, 550,000*	at 3 10 0 per bag	- -	- -	1,925,000
Hides - - No. 300,000	— 0 13 0 per skin	- -	- -	195,000
Sugar - - cases, 28,000†	— 11 16 0 per case	- -	- -	260,000
Cotton, drugs, dyes, gold, and diamonds	- - -	- -	- -	500,000
				2,880,000
Northern Provinces.				
Bahia.—Coffee - - bags, 10,000	at 3 10 0 per bag	35,000		
Cotton - - — 47,000	— 4 0 10 —	190,000		
Sugar - - cases, 58,000	— 10 0 0 per case	580,000		
Tobacco - packages, 15,000	— 3 4 0 per pck.	50,000		
Drugs, hides, leather, rice, rum, &c.	- - -	20,000		
			875,000	
Ceara.—Cotton - - bags, 14,000	— 4 13 0 per bag	65,000		
Hides - - -	- - -	5,000		
			70,000	
Maçayo.—Cotton - - bags, 10,000	— 4 10 0 per bag	45,000		
Sugar - - cases, 3,000	— 10 0 0 per case	30,000		
			75,000	
Maranham.—Cotton - bags, 75,000	— 4 10 8 per bag	340,000		
Rice - - - -	- - -	60,000		
			400,000	
Para.—Cocoa - - bags, 60,000	— 0 16 8 per bag	50,000		
India rubber - - tons, 300	— 66 13 4 per ton	20,000		
Isinglass, rice, drugs, and cotton	- - -	180,000		
			250,000	
Pernambuco.—Cotton - bags, 60,000	— 5 0 0 per bag	300,000		
Hides and dye woods	- - -	100,000		
Sugar - - - cases, 20,000	— 10 0 0 per case	200,000		
			600,000	
Paraiba.—Cotton - - bags, 20,000	— 5 0 0 per bag	100,000		
Sugar - - - cases, 5,000	— 10 0 0 per case	50,000		
			150,000	
Southern Provinces.				2,420,000
Rio Grande of the South.—Hides and tallow, (chiefly coastwise to other ports, but) foreign export about	- - -	100,000		
Santos.—Sugar, rice, and coffee, (much direct to Rio, but) foreign export - - - - - - - -		100,000		
				200,000
				5,500,000

"The imports are chiefly from Great Britain, consisting principally of our cotton, linen, woollen, hardware, and other manufactures, amounting annually to about 4,000,000*l*. The remainder of the imports consist of wines, brandies, &c. from Portugal and the Mediterranean; flour from the United States; cod fish from ditto and Newfoundland; with a comparatively small amount of French, German, Swiss, and Indian manufactures, and tea; the latter chiefly through the United States.

"The duties on all imports, without exception, are 15 per cent. on the tariff value, which averages about 20 per cent. on the real value of British goods: those on exports vary at the different ports, and on every description of produce. On coffee they amount to about 10 per cent.; on sugar, 12 per cent. (it being paid by the planter). The export duty on cotton has lately been reduced from 20 to about 3 per cent.

"There are no commercial or discount banks in any part of Brazil; but at Rio there is one of issue, the whole of its transactions being with the government.

"The usual mode of selling goods in Brazil is on an open credit of 4 to 8 months, and sometimes even 12 months, the parties paying by weekly or monthly instalments, as they effect sales, generally exceeding the stipulated credit, by 2, 3, and even 6 months, according to the state of the markets, without allowing any charge for interest. On the other hand, all produce is bought by the foreign merchants for *cash down*, or, if any credit be given, the usual extra charge is 1 per cent. per month; in fact, the whole commerce of the country is on British capital.

"The usual commissions are, 5 per cent. on the sale of goods; 2½ ditto for guarantee; with 2½ per cent. for the purchase and shipment of produce in return; 5 per cent. when purchased by credits on London: the usance being 60 days after sight.

"The currency of Brazil is chiefly paper and copper, of a very depreciated and base kind, and varying in almost every province. The par of exchange, when the silver currency was maintained, was 67d. and the current rate always above it, say from 70*d.* to 72*d.*; but *now*, owing to the introduction of paper and copper, the exchange has fallen at Rio, to 36*d.*, Bahia 32*d.*, Pernambuco 38*d.*, and Maranham 40*d.*; and, at one period, the exchange at Rio fell as low as 30*d.*, owing to the extensive issue of paper by the bank.

"The great difficulties under which our trade with Brazil labours are,—1st, The prohibitory duties chargeable on sugar and coffee, the chief productions of the country; which admit to consumption

* Bag of coffee about 1 cwt. 1 qr. 14 lbs. † Case of sugar about 15 cwt.

only cottons and hides, the latter not being wanted; so that, with an export of nearly 4,000,000*l.*, we have no *direct* means of return for 1-4th the amount, the other 3-4ths being forced into the hands of the Americans, Germans, Swedes, &c. who thus get employment for their shipping, and carry on an extensive commerce, entirely on British capital, whilst the British merchant is compelled to transfer his property into their hands for 5 or 6 months, as the only means of getting payment for the manufactures he has exported; at the same time that the British consumer at home is compelled to pay, exclusive of the heavy duties, a decidedly higher price for sugar and coffee than is paid by the consumers of any other European state.

"The 2d grievance is the wretched state of the currency in Brazil, which occasions fluctuations in the exchange of from 10 to 20 per cent. in 2 or 3 months, and even 50 per cent. in the course of the year; so that the actual proceeds, in sterling, of any goods sold on credit can never be guessed at till the money is received; there being no discount banks or means of realisation, till the expiration of the credit.

"The Brazilian Regency have at length recommended their currency to the immediate attention of the 'Assembly;' but it may be doubted whether they have either courage or honesty to take any effectual means to eradicate the evil; this can only be done by a return to a gold and silver standard, and a new coinage, calling in the old, one-half of which is debased."—(*13th of August*, 1833.)

Account of the Trade of Great Britain with Brazil, for the Six Years ending with 1831, according to the Official Returns and Values.

Years.	Exports.		Totals.	Imports from Brazil.
	British and Irish Manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial Produce.		
	L.	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*
1826	4,116,130	80,743	4,196,873	1,815,281
1827	2,556,140	37,591	2,593,731	787,918
1828	3,757,014	66,473	3,823,487	1,582,818
1829	6,055,902	99,819	6,155,721	1,466,271
1830	4,566,010	76,314	4,642,324	1,469,015
1831	2,394,662	36,992	2,431,654	2,276,099

Account of the Quantity and Declared Value of the principal Articles of British Produce and Manufacture exported to Brazil in 1833.

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.	Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
		L.			*L.*
Apparel, slops, and haberdashery		14,759	Saddlery and harness		3,389
Arms and ammunition		5,732	Linen manufactures yards	7,527,781	197,581
Bacon and hams cwt.	637	2,092	Thread, tapes, &c.		5,075
Beef and pork barrels	77	199	Machinery and mill work		1,071
Beer and ale tuns	467	7,778	Painters' colours		4,739
Books, printed cwt.	20	516	Plate, plated ware, jewellery, and watches		20
Brass and copper manufactures —	5,425	27,195	Salt bushels	57,944	668
Butter and cheese —	21,371	72,083	Silk manufactures		27,758
Coals, culm, and cinders tons	1,863	853	Soap and candles lbs.	3,330,495	64,910
Cordage cwt.	9,144	14,786	Stationery of all sorts		6,284
Cotton manufactures yards	68,203,208	1,607,735	Sugar, refined cwt.	10	38
Hosiery, lace, and small wares		59,848	Tin, unwrought —	322	1,116
Cotton twist and yarn lbs.	11,434	1,073	Tin and pewter wares, tin plates		3,062
Earthenware of all sorts pieces	2,950,158	27,468	Woollen manufactures, by the piece pieces	99,107	233,139
Fish—herrings barrels	6	6	Do. by the yard yards	231,956	17,416
Glass cwt.	11,616	22,371	Hosiery and small wares		4,627
at value		23	All other articles		23,504
Hardwares and cutlery —	17,955	42,099	Total declared value		2,275,699
Hats, beaver and felt dozens	3,439	14,430			
Iron and steel tons	2,191	34,918			
Lead and shot —	522	7,780			
Leather, wrought and unwrought lbs.	43,573	6,386			

The number of ships which arrived at Rio in 1826, were—

From Great Britain	62	From slave settlements	53 Portuguese & Brazilian.
France	19	South America	81
Spain	4 Spanish. 15 foreign.	Total	440
Portugal	51 Portuguese. 10 British.		
Holland	14 Dutch. 5 foreign.		
Hanse Towns	15		
United States	53 American. 6 foreign.		
North of Europe	37		
Cape of Good Hope, and Cape Verd Islands	12 British. 3 French.		

In 1832, there arrived at Rio 591 vessels; and in 1833, 631. Of the arrivals during the last-mentioned year, 244 were English, including packets, and 161 American. Perhaps not more than 2-3ds of the 626 ships would load at Rio; many calling in quest of freight and for orders, stores, &c. The returns do not include the mere coasting vessels.

In order still better to illustrate the trade of Brazil, we take leave to subjoin the following details from *Mr. Caldcleugh's Travels in South America*. They are neither, however, so recent, nor of such authority, as those already laid before the reader:—"The colonial system, which was strictly preserved until the arrival of the court, kept the country in a state of ignorance of many of those beautiful articles of English manufacture, now so greedily purchased by all. The Brazil trade may be considered as entirely in the hands of the British, as if an exclusive monopoly existed in their favour. Brazil takes from us every thing she requires, excepting wine from Portugal; and the importance of this trade to England may be well conceived, when it is mentioned that, after the East and West Indies and the United States, it forms the greatest mart for our fabrics, and one that is most rapidly increasing.

"In 1820, the imports of British manufactures amounted to 1,860,000*l.*; in 1821, to 2,230,000*l.* The exports of 1820 were 950,000*l.*; in 1821, 1,300,000*l.*; showing a great and progressive increase.

"Of the amount of imports, about *three fifths* are brought to the capital, owing to the greater consumption, and from its being in communication with the mines, the most inhabited districts of the interior.

"The other nations trading to Brazil exhibit a poor figure after Great Britain. By far the most active of them—the United States—exported to Brazil only to the amount of 320,000*l.*, chiefly in flour, fish, and minor articles. It is impossible to say what may happen, but at present it does not appear that England has much to fear in this quarter. The immense command of capital which our merchants possess strikes all foreigners with astonishment, and forces them to abandon all idea of competition. The trade carried on by the rest of the world amounts, in the aggregate, to little: that of

France being chiefly confined to articles of dress and fashion; and of Sweden, to a few ship loads of iron annually.

"The trade expressly confined to Brazilian vessels is the coasting and African. The latter traffic, it is well known, is now restricted, by treaty, to that part of Africa south of the line, which comprehends, in fact, almost the whole of the Portuguese possessions. The importation of negroes varies in amount; but of late years it cannot be estimated, on an average, at less than 21,000 into Rio de Janeiro only. It affords too great a return of gain to be easily abandoned; more especially when, strange to say, patriotic feelings are considered, in this instance, to go hand in hand with profit; and when it is imagined, that the moment the trade is prohibited, the prosperity of the country must decay. When it is considered that this number is annually received into the capital, and that there are 3 other ports trading to the same extent, and that scarcely ½ of the negroes taken from the coast live to be landed, the number of negroes carried away by this outlet only in the course of the year appears prodigious.

"Many years since, a considerable capital was employed in the whale fishery. The black whale was extremely common near the mouth of the harbour; but an increasing traffic has driven this animal to the southward, and the only establishments at present are in the province of St. Catharine's. It forms another of the royal monopolies; and, in 1820, was farmed by some Frenchmen.

"The other trade carried on in Brazilian bottoms is very much confined to that with the mother country; its dependencies, as Madeira; and its possessions in Africa and the East. The traffic with China is still continued, but no longer in that way which made Portugal at one time the envy of all maritime nations.

"The internal trade is very much confined to the products of the district of the mines; and is carried on by means of large troops of mules, some of which, from the western provinces of Goyas and Matto Grosso, are 4 months on the journey. It is not easy to learn with accuracy the produce of the diamond mines; as they are worked by government, and strictly monopolized: much smuggling consequently prevails. In some years, the quantity recovered by government has amounted to as much as 4,000 octavas of 18 carats; but these are years of rare occurrence: taking the average, however, of some years, the number of octavas would come to near 1,200. In this quantity there would be, of course, many of large size, adding immensely to their value. It is calculated that about the same quantity is smuggled; and there are strong reasons to suppose, that if no difficulties were thrown in the way, owing to the facility with which they are obtained, the produce of Brazil diamonds, in every way as fine as the Oriental, would have considerable effect on the demand.

"With respect to the quantity of gold which comes from the mines, it is immersed in a certain degree of obscurity. The 1-5th due to government is the principal cause that I could never ascertain, in any mine which I visited, its exact produce. I shall have another opportunity of saying more on this head, and explaining why the produce of gold mines is on the decrease, which I certainly conceive to be the case.

"No silver is produced in Brazil. As there is lead, it would be too much to affirm that none exists; but probably the quantity would be trifling. The silver coin is mostly Spanish dollars, restamped into 3-patac pieces, by which a considerable profit is obtained on each.

"The quantity of precious stones shipped is now very considerable. In most cases they are sent to a losing market; being, in fact, more valuable in Brazil than in London or Paris. Aquamarines—(see Brazil)—of a very large size have been found. In January, 1811, one was found in the Riberao das Americanas, near the diamond district, which weighed 15 lbs.; and in the same place, in the October following, one was discovered weighing 4 lbs. Topazes of fine quality, but seldom large, amethysts, and chrysolites, are also articles of exportation; and at times some fine specimens of these gems are to be met with in the jewellers' shops.

"Correctly speaking, there are no trading companies in Rio de Janeiro: there is a society for effecting maritime assurances, but no other.

"The Bank of Brazil has had very extensive concessions made in its favour, and ought to be in a flourishing state. It has the power of issuing notes; and all disputed monies and property of the deceased and absent (*mortes e auzentes*) must be placed in its hands, and 2 per cent. per annum charged for the care and trouble. This, in addition to the interest which might be obtained for the deposit, would alone, in an active mercantile country, form no inconsiderable revenue. Specie is prohibited from being carried coastwise: merchants who wish to deposit cash in one of the northern ports, where the largest purchases are made, are therefore forced to take hand bills, and pay a premium for them, varying from 3 to 5 per cent.

"Some enormous capitals have been amassed; but generally the speculations of the native merchants are conducted on a very limited scale.

"The legal rate of interest is 6 per cent.; but money can seldom be obtained under 12."—(*Caldcleugh's Travels in South America*, vol. i. pp. 53—59.)

Population of Brazil.—The magnitude of the population of Brazil is involved in great uncertainty. One of the latest estimates is as follows:—Portuguese and creoles, 900,000: free mestizos, 600,000; enslaved mestizos, 250,000; free negroes, 180,000; enslaved negroes, 2,900,000; Indians, 450,000; making in all, 5,280,000.—(*Weimar Almanac*, for 1833.) But we incline to think that this estimate is rather beyond the mark.

(Account of the principal Articles of Export from Rio Janeiro, during the Four Years ending with 1836.

Years.	Coffee.	Sugar.		Hides.	Horns.	Customs Duties in France.
	Sacks and Barrels.	Chests.	Sacks and Barrels.	No.	No.	
1833	563,195	15,000	18,421	187,530	380,242	13,135,446
1834	529,117	17,977	20,028	196,675	439,293	14,936,562
1835	627,165	19,165	24,389	144,401	295,903	14,929,269
1836	*701,385	20,594	27,856	155,009	251,859	16,960,151

Account of the Shipping entered Inwards and Outwards at Rio Janeiro, during the Four Years ending with 1836.

Years.	Trade with other Ports of Brazil.				Trade with Foreign Countries.			
	Entered.		Left.		Entered.		Left.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
1833	1,704	. .	1,629	. .	606	. .	617	
1834	1,609	105,095	1,612	117,063	383	131,479	585	159,847
1835	1,920	115 117	1,970	138,106	572	134,912	522	138,743
1836	1,976	121,788	2,008	132,388	660	146,384	629	140,214

Port Regulations.—The captain of every ship entering Rio, or any other port of Brazil, is ordered,—

1. To go directly with his vessel from the entrance of the harbour to the anchorage ground in *Praraqua*; and if, on account of the wind, contrary winds, or any other just cause, he should be compelled to go to anchor, and shall remain anchored for twelve hours after all boats are removed (except in case of being quarantined), he shall pay a fine of 100,000 reis, and shall be compelled, by the fort, or by a government vessel of war, (whichever may be nearest,) to proceed immediately to the Praraqua anchoring ground.

2. He shall not suffer any kind of vessel to board him, nor any person to come on board, or to leave his vessel, before he has been visited from the custom-house, excepting only the pilot, health officer, the head officer at the entrance, when there is one, and in the case of a shipwreck, or for the saving of lives.

3. Even after the custom-house visit on arrival, and until the vessel is discharged, he shall allow no person to come on board without a written permission from the inspector of the customs; and this permission shall only be given in the following cases, viz.:—

A. To allow the buyers of goods to go on board to examine the cargo they wish to purchase, when sufficient specimens cannot be seen on shore.

3. To workmen or labourers necessary to put the cargo in order, taking care to have them examined when they go on board and return. In case of the infraction of the above regulations, a fine shall be imposed on him from 100,000 to 200,000 reis for every vessel he allows to board him, and of 500,000 for each person who shall enter or leave his vessel without licence, unless he be a passenger, or belonging to the crew; and every other person who goes on board or leaves the vessel, shall pay 100,000 reis fine, and be kept in custody until payment is made. The one third part of these fines shall be divided amongst the watchmen or military who shall have taken up the offenders.

4. He shall deliver to the *guarda-mor* (chief customs-officer), when he makes his visit on arrival, his passport and cargo book.

5. He shall deliver to the commander of the guard-boat without the port, if he be there, or at the Franqueia, if he be there, the manifest as described below.

6. He shall enter at the custom-house, within 24 hours after the *guarda-mor* has been on board, not counting the days on which the custom-house is shut, and present himself to the inspector, and swear, or affirm, that he has not on board of his vessel any merchandize other than what is described in the manifest he has delivered, and that he has no further declaration to make; and if he do not enter within the 24 hours, he shall pay 100,000 reis for each day's delay additional.

7. If he shall detain his vessel at either of the anchorages more than 24 hours, when he shall be directed by the guarda-mor, or his representative, to remove thence, he shall pay 100,000 reis for every day he delays.

8. He shall discharge no part of his cargo but by an order in writing from the inspector; and if he land any without such order, he shall pay 100,000 reis for each package so landed.

9. He shall give notice to the officer attending the discharge of the vessel, as soon as his cargo is discharged, that he has nothing remaining on board. If he omit to do this on the same day, so that the vessel may be immediately examined, he shall be fined 100,000 reis.

10. The master of every vessel going with a cargo to any part of the empire, must have two manifests of the cargo, exact copies of each other, exhibiting the name, class, and tonnage, of the vessel; the name of the captain, whose signature must follow the date; the name of the port where the articles stated in the manifest were taken on board; the names of the port or ports for which the vessel is destined; the marks or counter-marks and numbers of the packages, and their description, as bales, cases, pipes, half-pipes, barrels, &c; a declaration of the quantity and quality of the merchandize of each package, or several similar ones of the same mark, and also of what is on board in bulk; the names of the consignees, or to order; all to be written at length, except the numbers of the packages.

11. When the vessel has taken in her cargo at more than one port, there must be two manifests from each port.

14. At the end of the manifest, the captain shall declare the number of passengers, whether cabin or steerage, and the baggage for the use of each, and in addition any declaration necessary for his security; and in good faith he shall declare whether he has any package to add to the manifest, or whether any are deficient, with the cause of it, as no after declaration will relieve him from responsibility, for he will not be exempted upon the vague declarations frequently made, which do not account for deficiencies or differences.

13. The captain of any vessel bound to Brazil, when he has completed his cargo in the port or ports from which he is to sail, and made the manifests, as required in the 9th article, shall present his documents to the Brazilian consul residing in the port, who shall examine them, and if agreeable to these regulations, certify them.

14. In those ports where there is no Brazilian consul or substitute, the manifests shall be certified by two Brazilian resident merchants; or if there be none, by two merchants of the place: in either case, the signatures to be authenticated by legal authority.

15. Should any greater quantity of goods be found on board than are stated in the manifest or the declaration of the captain, the overplus shall be seized and divided amongst those who seize them, after paying the duties, and the captain shall pay a fine of half the value of the goods.

16. If there are any goods missing of those stated in the manifest or declaration of the captain, they shall be reputed to be concealed or smuggled, and he shall pay the value thereof to those who have discovered the deficiency, and half the value to the national treasury. These condemnations shall take place on the simple fact of there being an overplus or deficiency of goods, without further proof being required.

17. For each difference in the quality or mark of the package, the captain shall pay 4,000 reis, although in every other respect the goods discharged may agree with the manifest.

18. The captain whose manifests are not conformable to these regulations, shall be fined from 100,000 reis to one conto de reis, at the will of the collector, according to the degree of culpability that shall appear, and he cannot discharge until the fine is paid.

19. In case the captain brings no manifest, he may still be allowed to discharge, by paying 5 per cent. on the value of the cargo, on addition to the usual duties.

Franquia.—Vessels proceeding to Brazil, and when it is wished to dispose of their cargoes at different ports, must clear out for "Rio and other ports," or for "Fernambuco, Bahia, Rio de Janeiro, and other ports." They are then entitled to the privilege of Franquia, and may land a part of their cargoes at one port, paying custom on the goods so landed, and proceed with the remainder to other ports. But if they clear out for one port only, they are compelled to make a complete entry, and discharge the whole of the cargo.

In proceeding from one Brazil an port to another, it is necessary that a bill of health should be taken from the local authorities at each port; and where any part of the cargo is landed, the same must be noted on the original manifest by the customs' officer of the port.

Anchorage.—Foreign vessels pay, in all ports of the empire, 40 reis per ton per day, from the 5th day after their entry.

Light-house.—The light-house duty, 100 reis per ton, for all vessels over 40 tons departing from ports where there is a light-house. Vessels under 40 tons are exempted from this duty.

Port-duty.—On all vessels not crossing the bar at the harbour of Rio de Janeiro, the following charges are levied, viz., of three masts, 12,800 reis; of two masts, 9,600 reis; and of one mast, 6,400 reis.

Seal.—The duty is 40 reis for every written half-sheet.

Health.—Visit of the physician is fixed at 8,320 reis; but in case the vessel is made to perform quarantine, then another sum of 4,160 reis is payable on the admission of the vessel to free pratique.

Hospitals.—A vessel of three masts pays 5,000 reis; brigs, corvettes, and yachts, 4,000; pinnaces, 2,560; barks, 1,280.

Each one of the ship's company of vessels sailing from a foreign port pays 400 reis.

Usages of Merchants.—It is customary that the expense of landing and shipping a cargo on freight should be paid by the vessel, unless the contrary be stipulated in the bills of lading.

When hard Spanish dollars are bargained for, in contracts of freight, they should be so expressed in the instrument of contract, to prevent disputes.

Purchases of produce are paid for in cash, and sales are made on stipulated credits, but nominally for cash.

If bills on London are sent out for the purchase of produce in Brazil, the credit must have the confirmation of the London house.

Rates of Commission charged at Rio.

5 per cent. on sales of merchandize.
2 1-2 per cent. on purchase of merchandize, with funds in hand, on amount of cost and charges.
2 1-2 per cent. guaranty on amount of sales on credit.
2 1-2 per cent. for drawing or indorsing, and negociating bill
2 1-2 per cent. on purchase or sale of vessels by private contract.
5 per cent. on amount of vessels condemned by surveyors.
2 1-2 per cent. for procuring or collecting freights.
2 1-2 per cent. on disbursements of vessels in common cases, with funds in hand.
5 per cent. on disbursements of vessels when funds are advanced, or in case of condemnation, or in vessels entering for repairs only.
1 per cent. on receiving and forwarding goods; and
2 1-2 per cent. on amount of responsibilities incurred thereon.
1 per cent. on receiving and paying money on which no other commission is derived.
1-2 per cent. on purchase or sale of specie.
1-2 per cent. for effecting marine insurance on the amount insured; and when the premium exceeds 10 per cent., 5 per cent. on the amount of premium.
1-2 per cent. on remittances on bills not indorsed.
On consignments of merchandise withdrawn or reshipped, full commission to be charged to the extent of advances or responsibilities incurred, and half commission on the residue of the value.
1 per cent. per month on all cash advanced.
No interest allowed on money on deposite.
1 per cent. storage on all dry goods.
In the case of discharging and reshipping the cargoes of vessels in distress, on the invoice amount, 2 1-2 per cent.
2 1-2 per cent., or half the commission charged on sales of sea-damaged, will be returned to supercargoes, but nothing on insurances or other business.—*Sup.*)

[The commerce of the United States with Brazil is important; nearly one-third of the coffee, and a large portion of the sugar and hides, of foreign importations, is from Brazil. Our exports of flour, provisions, and the various articles of domestic manufactures, amounted last year, (1838,) closing with 30th September, to $2,094,957. To show the importance of our commerce, we subjoin the imports and exports of a few leading articles for the last five years; and thereto attach an article from a late Rio Circular, which we think will be found useful to some of our commercial men who have a direct intercourse with the Brazilian provinces, and particularly with Rio Janeiro.

The *Importations* into the United States from Brazil for the five preceding years, ending 30th September, were as follow:

Year.	Am. vessels.	For. vessels.	Total imp.
1834	*D.* 4,547,119	*D.* 182,850	*D.* 4,729,969
1835	5,447,949	26,517	5,574,466
1836	6,563,196	657,004	7,220,190
1837	3,940,069	1,051,924	4,991,993
1838	3,116,843	74,395	3,191,238

Of the above, besides the value of the hides imported each year, the following shows the value of the coffee for each consecutive year, which was *D.*2,819,036; *D.*3,602,000; *D.*4,623,395; *D.*3,214,360; *D.*2,423,205; and of the brown sugar in like manner: *D.*356,865; *D.*385,063; *D.*1,579,596; *D.*199,387; *D.*429,853.

ears.	Coffee.	Brown sugar.	Hides in val.
1834	*Lbs.* 26,571,368	*Lbs.* 6,816,156	*D.*1,093,131
1835	35,774,876	7,969,683	1,150,691
1836	46,840,219	27,843,884	879,834
1837	33,906,246	5,287,401	947,193
1838	27,411,986	7,886,067	124,730

Exported from the United States to Brazil within the above specified time, of foreign and domestic articles, the following amount:

Year	For. export.	Dom. export.	Total exp.
1834	*D.*473,214	*D.*1,586,097	*D.*2,059,311
1835	797,885	1,810,791	2,608,646
1836	1,362,195	1,732,741	3,094,936
1837	441,992	1,371,217	1,813,209
1838	562,337	2,094,957	2,657,194

Of the domestic exports noticed above, the following will show how far Flour and Bread, Cotton Manufactures, and Spirits from Grain, contributed to make up the list, to say nothing of provisions, oil, sperm candles, household furniture, and other manufactures of the United States.

Year.	Flour and bread.	Cotton man.	Spirits,
1834	*D.*894,440	*D.*234,731	*D.*16,864
1835	991,309	266,916	18,160
1836	884,126	200,964	6,958
1837	618,630	205,472	9,972
1838	1,068,033	656,513	12,841

The Exports from Rio Janeiro for the month of June last (1839), compared with those in the same period of the two preceding years, were as follow:

	Coffee, bags and barrels.	Sugar, in cases.	Hides, No.
In 1839	58,188	1,544	17,756
1838	60,603	1,565	6,350
1837	42,234	2,438	22,577

The Export of Sugar during the first six months of

1839 was	8,977 cases.
1838	10,439 do.
1837	4,519 do.

The exports from Santos, 1838–1839, were 400,000 arrobas, against 294,000 in 1837–1838.

The stock of Hides on hand at Rio Janeiro, at the close of the last, was about 20,000, nearly all heavy weights

Import in the first 6 months of 1838, : 99,332 hides.
" do. 1839, : 105,366 do.
" do. 1837, : 67,446 do.

Summary of the principal articles imported from Foreign Ports during June, 1838.

Glass, 13 barrels; Steel, 60 packages; Tar, 131 barrels; Arms, 30 cases; Brandy, 12 pipes, 500 demijohns; Oil (olive), 27 pipes, 10 casks, 25 boxes; Oil (fish), 3,300 casks; Codfish, 2,040 barrels; Windsor soap, 1,200 lbs.; Rosin, 394 barrels. Provisions—beef, 320 barrels; pork, 61 barrels; jerked beef, 16,646 quintals. Coal, 563 tons. Wax, 230 packages; Ale, 1,907 barrels; Tea, 1,204 chests; Rice, 30 bags. Zinc, 142 sheets; Lead, 270 bars, 16 rolls; Brass, 700 lbs. Cotton, 2,000 bales; Flour, American, 10,916 barrels; do. European, 250 barrels; Hemp, 1,667 packages; Linen do. 435 do.; Woollen do. 952 packages; Cotton goods, 1,667 packages; Linen do. 435 do.; Woollen do. 952 packages; Hardware, 267 packages; Nankeens, 12 bales; Ice, 260 tons; Earthenware, 300 packages; Butter, 472 barrels; Ammunition, 1,214 barrels; Macaroni, 500 boxes; Deals, 808 boards, 3,170 feet; Pitch, 240 barrels; Paper, 257 bales; Cheese, 928 packages; Lamp, 2,677 boxes; Salt, 25,448 alqueires; Tallow, 1,460 arrobas; Paints, 3,600 barrels; Furniture, 11 packages; Candles (tallow), 30 boxes; Vinegar, 34 pipes, 31 barrels; Wines, Portuguese, 36 pipes, 1,051 barrels, 6 cases; Do. other ports, 1,714 do. 105 do.

Remarks on the Import and Export Duties, Port charges, &c. in Brazil.

A direct trade with foreign countries is only permitted in such ports of the empire of Brazil, where there are custom-houses established; they are the following: Para, Maranham, Parahiba, Fernambuco (Recife), Aracaty (Ceara), Rio Grande North, Parahiba, Fernambuco, Maceio (Alagoas), Larangeiras (Sergipe), Bahia, Espirito Santo, Rio de Janeiro, Santos, Paranagua, St. Catharine, Rio Grande, (*R. G. South*), Porto Alegre (*R. G. S.*).

Import Duties.—All foreign merchandise is subject to an import duty of 15 per cent., except tea, which pays 30 per cent., and gunpowder, as also wines and spirituous liquors, (the production of countries with which have no commercial treaty with Brazil) paying 50 per cent. on valuations fixed by a tariff, (which is the same throughout the empire) and articles not specified in such tariff, pay duty on a value declared by the importer, the custom house officers having the right to take the goods at such value, and 10 per cent. thereon. The countries having treaties with Brazil, and the dates when they expire, according to the intimation sent from the foreign office to the custom house, are as follows: Prussia, 24th November, 1839; Hanse-towns, do.; Denmark, 7th March, 1840; United States of North America, 17th November, 1841; Holland and Belgium, 18th April, 1841; Great Britain, 18th November, 1842. Since the 1st of July, 1838, wines, spirituous liquors, and flour, are subject to a special weekly tariff. A committee has been appointed by the government to revise the general tariff; considerable progress has already been made in its revision.

Besides the aforementioned duties, goods (excepting linen cambrics, laces of thread or silk, manufactures of gold or silver, and precious stones, which pay only 1 1-2 per cent. *expediente*) are subject to a charge of 5 per cent. on the like valuations for clearance charges and warehouse rent (*expediente* and *armazenagem*), dry goods are, however, permitted to remain in the custom-house warehouses without any further additional charge, for a period not exceeding four months; after the expiration of which they incur a charge of 1-4 per cent. per month; articles that come under the denomination of Estive-goods are allowed to remain for the space of one month, and then pay 1-4 per cent. per month storage rent.

Machinery, and previously in use at the port where imported, by duty free, but subject to the charge of 5 per cent. for *expediente* and *armazenagem*.

N. B. Wines and spirituous liquors, pay further 1,500 rs. per pipe of 180 medidas to the *misericordia* hospital, and 300 rs. per pipe of any size, town dues.

Exportation.—Prior to the first of July, coffee from the serra-abaixo (low country) paid 11 per cent., and from the serra-acima (upper country) 10 per cent. If of the provinces of Rio Janeiro; but if from any other, on presentation of the requisite certificate of origin, only 7 per cent. However, by the Provincial Budget of the 10th of June, the distinction between from the serra-abaixo and serra-acima is done away with, both paying alike, namely, 11 per cent.

Tobacco pays 12 per cent., if from the provinces of St. Paul's; but if from that of Minas, only 7 per cent. Maize, rice, and pulse, if of the province of Rio Janeiro, pays 12 per cent., if any other, 7 per cent. Indigo, tapioca, and any articles not otherwise specified, pay 7 per cent. Sugar pays since 1st July, 2 per cent. additional provincial duty, which is likely to fall on the exporter.

The above duties are levied upon valuations fixed by a weekly tariff.

Precious metals in coin or bars, and gold dust, whether foreign or national, are subject to an export duty of 2 per cent. ad valorem.

Custom-house Terms and Allowances.—On goods imported in packages and cleared by weight, the real tares are allowed; on liquors there is allowed for leakage and breakage, in glass bottles 5 per cent., stone do. 3 per cent., and in casks or demijohns 2 per cent., and on glass and earthenware 5 per cent.

Re-exportation and Transhipment.—Goods re-exported or transhipped pay 2 per cent., and when for the coast of *Africa*, 13 per cent. additional.

Franquia.—Vessels may enter in Franquia, 1st, when bringing no cargo for the port; 2d, when bringing only part cargo for the port, and the remainder for another destination; 3d, when putting in to learn the state of the market, or for refreshments or repairs.

Manifests.—Every commander of a vessel is required to bring a very exact manifest of her cargo in duplicate, signed by the Brazilian Consul, resident at the loading port. At ports where no such Consul resides, the said manifest must be signed by two Brazilian merchants, or if there be none such, then by two native merchants, the signatures in either case being certified by the competent local authority. Non-compliance with this regulation, or inaccuracies in the manifests, as also irregularities in discharging or loading, subject vessels to heavy fines.

Port Charges.—All foreign vessels, as also national vessels trading with foreign ports, pay 30 reis per diem anchorage, for each ton of Brazilian admeasurement (which proves generally about the true burthen), calculated for 60 days from the date of each entry into the port, but all vessels are exempt from this due that introduce 100 white colonists into any port of Brazil. The remaining port charges do not exceed from 30 to 40 milreas for each vessel, according to her size.

Pilotage.—There are no pilots for the port of Rio de Janeiro, nor are any necessary for entering that noble harbour, as there are no hidden dangers of any kind.

Sale of Vessels.—A duty of 5 per cent ad valorem is payable upon the sale of all vessels, whether foreign or national, and of 15 per cent. upon foreign vessels being naturalised.—*Lyford's Price Currents Am. Ed.*]

ROADS, pathways formed through the country with more or less art and care, for facilitating the transit of individuals, carriages, &c. between different places. They are of every variety of form—from rude, narrow, rugged, and unformed paths, carried over mountains, interrupted by every petty rivulet, and almost impracticable to any but foot passengers, to smooth, broad, and level ways, formed of solid materials, winding round or cut through mountains, and carried over swamps and rivers at an immense expense, and admitting of the easy passage of carriages and of all sorts of goods.

The laying out of improved roads, and their construction, forms an important part of what is denominated the science of civil engineering. But as it would be quite foreign to our purpose to enter into any details as to the formation of roads, we shall satisfy ourselves with laying before the reader the following statements as to their importance in a commercial point of view.

Importance and Utility of Improved Roads.—Next to the introduction of money, and weights and measures, the formation of good roads and bridges gives the greatest facility to commerce, and contributes more powerfully, perhaps, than any thing else to the progress of improvement. They have been denominated national veins and arteries; and the latter are not more indispensable to the existence of individuals, than improved communications are to a healthy state of the public economy. It were vain to attempt to point out in detail the various advantages derived from the easy means of communication that exist in Great Britain. There is not a single district that is not indebted to others for a large part of its supplies, even of some of the bulkiest commodities. Besides the coal, metals, minerals, timber, corn, &c. conveyed from one part of the empire to another by sea, immense quantities are conveyed from place to place in the interior, by roads and canals; and every improvement effected in the means of conveyance has obviously the same effect upon the cost of commodities that have to be conveyed, as an improvement in the methods by which they are raised or manufactured.

Wherever the means of internal communication are deficient in a country, the inhabitants must unavoidably disperse themselves over the surface. Cities were originally founded by individuals congregating more, perhaps, for the purpose of national defence and protection, than for any other cause. But in countries where good government is established, and property is secure, men resort to cities only from a sense of the advantages they afford. The

scale on which business is here conducted presents facilities that cannot be elsewhere afforded for making a fortune; and the extent to which the subdivision of employments is carried opens a field for the exercise of all sorts of talent; at the same time that it improves and perfects all sorts of arts, whether subservient to industrious or scientific pursuits, or to those of pleasure and dissipation. It is this that attracts the aspiring, the industrious, the gay, and the profligate, to cities,—that fills them with the best and the worst part of the species. The competition that takes place in a great town,—the excitement that is constantly kept up, the collision of so many minds brought into immediate contact, and all endeavouring to outstrip each other in their respective departments,—developes all the resources of the human mind, and renders a great city a perpetually radiating focus of intelligence and invention. There are, however, considerable clogs upon the continued increase of cities. The food and fuel made use of by the inhabitants, and the raw products on which their industry is to be exerted, must all be brought from the country; and according as the size of the city increases, the distances from which its supplies must be brought become so much the greater, that ultimately the cost of their conveyance may be so great as to balance or more the peculiar advantages resulting from a residence in town. Hence the impossibility of a large or even a considerable city existing any where without possessing extensive means of communication either with the surrounding country, or with other countries; and hence, too, the explanation of the apparently singular fact, of almost all large cities having been founded on or near the sea, or a navigable river. Had London been an inland town, 50 miles from the shore, it is abundantly certain that she could not have attained to one third her present size; but the facilities afforded, by her admirable situation on the Thames, for the importation of all sorts of produce from abroad, as well as from other parts of England, will enable her, should her commerce continue to prosper, to add to her colossal magnitude for centuries to come.

But all towns cannot be founded on the sea coast, or the banks of navigable rivers; and the growth of those in inland situations must, in all cases, depend on their means of communicating with the surrounding country. Without our improved roads, the great inland manufacturing towns with which England is studded, such as Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, Sheffield, Bolton, Preston, &c., could not exist. They enable the inhabitants to obtain the rude products of the soil and the mines almost as cheap as if they lived in country villages. There is thus nothing, or next to nothing, to detract from the advantages which the inventive and enterprising artisan may expect to realise from resorting to these great hives of industry. And, owing to the gigantic scale on which all sorts of industry are conducted in them, the scope afforded for the employment of the most powerful machines, and the appropriation of particular sets of workmen to every separate process, however minute, manufacturing industry is carried to a degree of perfection that almost exceeds belief.

The influence that the growth of a large town has upon agriculture is great and striking. "In the neighbourhood," says Dr. Paley, "of trading towns, and in those districts which carry on a communication with the markets of trading towns, the husbandmen are busy and skilful, the peasantry laborious: the land is managed to the best advantage, and double the quantity of corn or herbage (articles which are ultimately converted into human provision) raised from it, of what the same soil yields in remoter and more neglected parts of the country. Wherever a thriving manufactory finds means to establish itself, a new vegetation springs up around it. I believe it is true, that agriculture never arrives at any considerable, much less at its highest, degree of perfection, when it is not connected with trade; that is, when the demand for the produce is not increased by the consumption of trading cities."—(*Moral Philosophy*, book vi. c. 11.)

But the fact of their being mainly conducive to the growth of cities, is not the only advantage which improved roads confer upon agriculture. Without their aid it would be impossible to carry to distant places sufficient supplies of such bulky and heavy articles as lime, marl, shells, and other manures, necessary to give luxuriance to the crops of rich soils, and to render those that are poor productive. Not only, too, would inferior roads lessen the market for farm produce, and consequently the quantity raised, but a larger proportional number of horses or other cattle would be required to convey the diminished produce to market. It is plain, therefore, that good roads are both directly and indirectly a prime source of agricultural improvement;—directly, by increasing the quantity and reducing the cost of manure, and by increasing the quantity and reducing the cost of conveying farm produce to market; and indirectly, by providing for the growth and indefinite extension of cities and towns, that is, of the markets for agricultural produce.

Increased speed of conveyance is one of the principal advantages that have resulted from the formation of good roads, the invention of steam packets, &c. Suppose that it takes 3 days to travel by an uneven ill-made road between any 2 places; and that, by improving the road, the journey may be accomplished in 1 day: the effect is the same as if the distance were reduced $\frac{2}{3}$; and there is not only a great saving of time to travellers, but also a great saving of cost from the more speedy conveyance of commodities. This latter is a point of much more importance than is commonly supposed. It is not possible to form any correct estimate of the value of the products that are constantly in the act of being carried from place to place

in Great Britain and Ireland. It is certain, however, that it is very great, and every additional facility of conveyance, by bringing such products more rapidly to their destination, and enabling them to be sooner applied to the purposes for which they are intended, renders large quantities of capital available for industrious purposes, that would otherwise be locked up.

Mode of defraying Costs of Roads.—Roads of one sort or other must, of course, exist in every country emerged from barbarism,—but in England, the statute of the 28th of Philip and Mary, which is still in force, is the first legislative enactment in which a regular provision was made for the repair of the roads. The preamble to this statute declares, that the roads were tedious and noisome to travel on, and dangerous to passengers and carriages; and, therefore, it enacts, that in every parish 2 surveyors of the highways shall be annually chosen, and the inhabitants of all parishes obliged, according to their respective ability, to provide labourers, carriages, tools, &c. for *four* days each year, to work upon the roads, under the direction of the surveyors. This system, though in many respects extremely defective, was at the time justly considered a great improvement, and answered pretty well till the reign of Charles II., when, owing to the increase of carriages, particularly about London, it became necessary to adopt more efficient measures for the formation and repair of roads; and the plan of imposing tolls upon those who made use of them began then to be adopted. But this system was not carried into full effect, and placed upon a solid footing, till about 1767, when it was extended to the great roads to all parts of the country; the contributions of labour under the act of Philip and Mary being then appropriated entirely to the cross or country roads. A money payment is also very frequently made instead of a contribution in labour.

When the plan for extending turnpike roads from the metropolis to distant parts of the country was in agitation, the counties in the neighbourhood of London petitioned parliament against it, alleging that the remoter counties would be able, from the comparative cheapness of labour in them, to sell their produce in London at a lower rate than they could do; and that their rents would be reduced, and cultivation ruined, by the measure! Luckily this interested opposition proved ineffectual; and instead of being injurious to the counties adjoining the metropolis, the improvement of the roads has been quite as beneficial to them as to those at a distance, inasmuch as, by providing for the indefinite extension of the city, it has rendered it a far better market for their peculiar productions, than it would have been had its growth been checked, which must have been the case long ago, had the improvements in question not been made.

The plan of making and repairing roads by contributions of labour is not peculiar to England, but was at one period general all over Europe. By an act of the Scotch parliament, passed in 1669, all persons engaged in husbandry were obliged to labour 6 days each year, before or after harvest, upon the public roads; the farmers and landlords being, at the same time, obliged to furnish horses, carts, &c. according to the extent of land occupied by them. The inconveniences of such a system are many and obvious. Those who get no pay for their work, and who perform it against their will, waste their time and industry; and there is, besides, a great loss incurred by the interruption of the regular pursuits of the labourer. A sense of these disadvantages led, in the early part of the reign of George III., to a commutation of the labour contribution for a money tax on land, rated according to its valuation in the cess books. This measure has been productive of the best effects. Previously to its taking place, the roads, even in the best cultivated districts of Scotland, were in the worst possible state; now, however, they are about the very best in Europe.

A similar system has been followed on the Continent. When Turgot entered on his administration, he sent a circular letter to the road surveyors and engineers of the different provinces of France, desiring them to transmit estimates, framed on the most liberal scale, of the sums of money for which the usual repairs might be made on the old roads, and the ordinary extent of new ones constructed. The average of the estimates showed that a money contribution of about 10,000,000 livres a year would suffice for these objects; whereas Turgot showed, that the execution of these repairs and constructions, by contributions of forced labour, or *corvées*, cost not less than 40,000,000 livres!—(Art. *Taxation, Sup. to Ency. Brit.*)

There is still, however, a great deal of labour performed on the cross and country roads of England, under the system established by the act of Philip and Mary. Its continuance is most probably to be ascribed to the want of any ready means for its commutation.

It is the duty of government to furnish assistance towards the formation of roads and bridges in parts of the country where they are necessary, and where the funds required for their formation cannot otherwise be obtained. But it is in such cases extremely desirable, in order to prevent government from being deceived by interested representations, that those more immediately concerned in the undertaking should be bound to contribute a considerable portion of its expense. This has been done in the case of the Highland roads. Down to a very recent period, large tracts in the Highlands were quite inaccessible, and were, consequently, in a great measure shut out from all improvement; while the rugged nature of the country and the poverty of the inhabitants rendered any attempt to construct improved roads an undertaking beyond their means. Under these circumstances, government came forward and engaged to advance ½ the expense of making roads and bridges in certain districts,

on condition that the landlords and others interested should advance the other ⅓, and that the work should be executed under the direction of parliamentary commissioners and engineers. This arrangement has been highly beneficial. Through its means about 600 miles of excellent roads have been constructed; and in consequence of the easy means of communication they afford, a spirit of improvement has been excited even in the wildest and least frequented districts.

Dr. Smith seems to have inclined to the opinion, that the roads of a country would be better attended to, and more economically managed, were they placed under the control of government, than when they are left to be planned and superintended by private individuals. But this opinion does not seem to rest on any good foundation. It is, perhaps, true that a few of the great roads between the principal towns of a county might be better laid out by government surveyors, than by surveyors appointed by the gentlemen of the different counties through which they pass. But these great roads bear but a very small proportion to the total extent of cross and other roads with which every county either is, or ought to be, intersected; and, besides, it is abundantly certain, that when the formation of the great roads is left, as in Great Britain, to the care of those who, either by themselves or their tenants, have to defray the greater part of the expense of their construction and repair, they will be managed, if not with greater skill, at least with far more economy than if they were intrusted to the agents of government. M. Dupin has set this matter in the clearest point of view, in the remarks he has made on the administration of the roads in France and England. In the former they are entirely under the control of government; and the consequence is, that while there is a useless expenditure upon a few great roads, the cross roads are almost entirely neglected, and the facilities of internal intercourse are incomparably inferior to ours.

Sir Henry Parnell, who has published by far the best treatise on road-making in the English language, while he approves of the system of local trusts, proposes that measures should be taken for increasing the responsibility of the trustees, and that every trust should be obliged to submit its accounts to the inspection of some public Board. We have no doubt that this plan would be in several respects advantageous. Perhaps, however, the object in view, in making accounts be submitted to a public Board, might be attained by the erection of local tribunals for their inspection. We should be extremely jealous of any plan, how advantageous soever in other respects, that might lead to the employment of government surveyors generally in the laying out of roads, or to any material abridgment of the powers of the private trusts.

Length of Roads, Cost, &c.—The following details, taken from the report of the committee of the House of Lords on turnpike road trusts, show that, in 1829, the total length of the different paved streets and turnpike roads in England and Wales amounted to 19,798 miles; that the direct expenditure by the trustees, on account of these roads, during the same year, was about 1,500,000*l.*, and the revenue about 1,455,000*l.* But, exclusive of this pecuniary outlay, the value of the work performed on these roads, by parishes, and not brought into the charge, is estimated at 100,000*l.*; making the whole expenditure 1,600,000*l.* The length of the various cross roads and other highways is estimated at about 95,000 miles.

Summary Statement of Roads, in England and Wales.

Length of turnpike roads	miles, 19,798
Number of turnpike trusts	1,119
Acts of parliament passed	8,753
Toll gates	4,971
Debt	£.7,304,908

Income in 1829.

	£.
Income from tolls	1,369,014
— parish compositions received	50,015
— fines	248
— incidental causes	28,048
Rents of toll gates and parish compositions due, but unpaid	Tolls 29,542 / Parish compositions* 7,983
Total income for the year	£. 1,455,298

Expenditure in 1829.

	£.
Interest paid on mortgage debt	295,619
Manual labour	303,178
Team labour, improvements, materials, on contracts,	578,237
Land purchased or damages paid for in getting materials	16,33
Repairs to toll houses, gates, &c.	63,44
Salaries to clerks, surveyors, law bills, printing, advertising, stationery, and incidental charges	199,05
Payments comprising part of the debts or accounts of former years, &c. (as deducted from the accounts delivered to the clerk of the peace)	248,75
The gross expenditure for the year 1829, as delivered to the clerk of the peace by the clerks of the roads	1,670,64
Interest not brought into charge in the accounts delivered to the clerk of the peace, but included in the current expenditure	69,29
The nett current expenditure of the several turnpike road trusts for the year 1829	1,601,3
Expenditure	£. 1,498,68
Income	1,455,81
Expenditure above income	£. 44,877

Tolls.—In fixing the rate of tolls, great care should be taken to keep them as low as possible. When they are either too much multiplied, or too high, they have a very pernicious influence. They then operate as a most oppressive and unequal tax on commerce; and obstruct that intercourse they are intended to promote. The same remark is applicable to all sorts of dock and harbour dues, light-house dues, &c. When confined within due bounds, they cannot justly be objected to; for nothing can be fairer than that those who benefit by such increased facilities and security in the prosecution of their business should pay for them. But whenever they exceed the proper limits, they tempt the navigator to resort to ports where the charges are lower, and to direct his course through more insecure but less costly channels.

Improvement of Roads.—It is not easy for those accustomed to travel along the smooth and level roads by which every part of this country is now intersected, to form any accurate idea of the difficulties the traveller had to encounter a century ago. Roads were then hardly

* Exclusive of parish labour, valued at 100,000*l.*

formed; and, in summer, not unfrequently consisted of the bottoms of rivulets. Down to the middle of the last century, most of the goods conveyed from place to place in Scotland, at least where the distances were not very great, were carried, not by carts or wagons, but on horseback. Oatmeal, coals, turf, and even straw and hay were conveyed in this way! At this period, and for long previous, there was a set of single-horse traffickers (cadgers), that regularly plied between different places, supplying the inhabitants with such articles as were then most in demand, as salt, fish, poultry, eggs, earthenware, &c.; these were usually conveyed in sacks or baskets, suspended one on each side the horse. But in carrying goods between distant places, it was necessary to employ a cart, as all that a horse could carry on his back was not sufficient to defray the cost of a long journey. The time that the *carriers* (for such was the name given to those that used carts) usually required to perform their journeys, seems now almost incredible. The common carrier from Selkirk to Edinburgh, *thirty-eight* miles distant, required a *fortnight* for his journey between the two places going and returning! The road originally was among the most perilous in the whole country; a considerable extent of it lay in the bottom of that district called Gala-water, from the name of the principal stream, the channel of the water being, when not flooded, the track chosen as the most level, and easiest to travel in.

Even between the largest cities, the means of travelling were but little superior. In 1678, an agreement was made to run a coach between Edinburgh and Glasgow,—a distance of 44 miles,—which was to be drawn by *six* horses, and to perform the journey from Glasgow to Edinburgh and back again in *six* days. Even so late as the middle of last century, it took 1½ day for the stage coach to travel from Edinburgh to Glasgow,—a journey which is now accomplished in 4½ or 5 hours.

So late as 1763, there was but one stage coach from Edinburgh to London, and it set out only once a month, taking from 12 to 14 days to perform the journey. At present, notwithstanding the immense intercourse between the two cities by means of steam packets, smacks &c., 6 or 7 coaches set out each day from the one for the other, performing the journey in from 45 to 48 hours.—(*Robertson's Rural Recol.* pp. 39—44.)

The effects of this extraordinary improvement in the means of travelling have been as striking on the manners as on the industry of all classes. The remark of Dr. Smith that "man is the least transportable species of luggage," is no longer true as applied to Great Britain. During spring, the metropolis is crowded with visiters of all ranks and orders from the remotest provinces; and during summer and autumn vast numbers of the citizens are spread over the country. Hence it is, that manners as well as prices are reduced nearly to the same standard. A respectable family in Penzance or Inverness live very much in the same way as a respectable family in London. Peculiarities of all sorts have disappeared; every thing is, as it were, brought to a level; the fashions and opinions of the metropolis are immediately diffused over every part of the country, while those that originate in the latter powerfully influence the former.

(These details have been partly borrowed from the treatise on *Commerce*, published by the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, contributed by the author of this work.)

[The roads of the United States have been improved and multiplied exceedingly within a few years past; and the extension of the system of *internal improvement*—meaning thereby the introduction of easier and more rapid communications between the different points of their territory, has been latterly urged forward with a zeal that seemed nearly regardless of the amount of present expenditure. Turnpike roads have been carried through the country, especially the eastern and middle portions of it, in almost every direction. But it is by their canals and railroads, as much as by any other circumstance connected with their progress, that the United States have rendered themselves conspicuous among the nations of the earth. This will be apparent from the following condensed summary of the canals and railroads in the United States, with their lengths and terminating points, drawn up by Mr. H. S. Tanner, which we have been kindly permitted to copy, with his latest corrections.

A Condensed Summary of the Canals and Railroads in the United States; their Lengths, and Terminating Points.

Canals in Maine.

Name.	From	To	Miles.
Cumberland and Oxford, near Portland,		Long Pond,	20·50

Rail-roads in Maine.

Bangor and Orono,	Bangor,	Orono,	10·00

Canals in New Hampshire.

Bow Falls,			0·75
Hooksett Falls,			0·13
Amoskeag Falls,			1·00
Union,			9·00
Sewall's Falls,			0·25

Rail-roads in New Hampshire.

Eastern,	Mass. Line,	Portsmouth,	15·17
Nashua and Lowell,*			14·25

Canals in Vermont.

White River Falls,			0·80
Bellows Falls,			0·16
Waterquechy,			0·40

Canals in Massachusetts.

Name.	From	To	Miles.
Middlesex,	Boston,	Chelmsford,	27·00
Pawtucket,	Lowell,		1·50
Blackstone,	Providence,	Worcester,	45·00
Hampshire and Hampden,	Conn. Line,	Northampton,	22·00
Montague Falls,			3·00
South Hadley Falls			3·00

Rail-roads in Massachusetts.

Eastern,	Boston,	N. H. Line,	38·00
Boston and Lowell,	Boston,	Lowell,	26·00
Boston and Portland,†	Wilmington,	Exeter, N. H.	34·00
Charlestown,	Charlestown,		1·75
Boston and Worcester,	Boston,	Worcester,	45·00
Milbury Branch,		Milbury,	3·25
Western,	Worcester,	W. Stockb'e,	116·00
Boston and Providence,	Boston,	Providence,	41·00
Dedham Branch,		Dedham,	8·00
Taunton Branch,	Mansfield,	Taunton,	11·00
Taunton and New Bedford,	Taunton,	New Bedford,	10·00

* 9 miles in Massachusetts.

† 14 miles in New Hampshire.

Name.	From	To	Miles.
New Bedford and Fall River,	N. Bedford,	Fall River,	13·00
Sekonk,	Sekonk,	Providence,	5·00
Quincy,	Granite Q.,	Q. Landing,	3·00
Rail-roads in Rhode Island.			
Providence and Stonington	Providence,	Stonington,	47·00
Canals in Connecticut.			
Farmington,	New Haven,	Mass. Line,	58·00
Enfield Falls,			5·50
Rail-roads in Connecticut.			
Norwich and Worcester,*	Norwich,	Worcester,	58·50
New Haven and Hartford,	New Haven,	Hartford,	36·00
Housatonic,	Bridgeport,	New Milford,	35·00
Canals in New York.			
Erie,	Albany,	Buffalo,	363·00
Champlain,	West Troy,	Whitehall,	76·00
Chenango,	Utica,	Binghamton,	97·00
Black River,	Rome,	Carthage,	36·00
Oswego,	Syracuse,	Oswego,	38·00
Cayuga and Seneca,	Seneca lake,	Cayuga lake,	23·00
Crooked Lake,	Pennyan,	Seneca Lake,	7·75
Chenung,	Seneca Lake,	Elmira,	23·00
Branch of do.	Elmira,	Knoxville,	16·00
Delaware and Hudson,	Eddyville,	Lackawaxen,	63·00
Genesee Valley,	Rochester,	Olean,	119·63
Dansville Branch,	Mt. Morris,	Dansville,	11·00
Harlem,	Hudson river,	East river,	8·00
Croton Aqueduct,	Croton river,	N. York,	40·56
Rail-roads in New York.			
Long Island,	Brooklyn,	Hicksville,	27·00
Harlem,	New York,	Harlem,	9·00
Hudson and Berkshire,	Hudson,	W. Stockbridge,	33·00
Catskill and Canajoharie,	Catskill,	Canajoharie,	78·00
Rensselaer and Saratoga,	Troy,	Balston,	23·50
Mohawk and Hudson,	Albany,	Schenectady,	15·86
Saratoga and Schenectady,	Schenectady,	Saratoga,	21·50
Utica and Schenectady,	Schenectady,	Utica,	77·00
Syracuse and Utica,	Utica,	Syracuse,	53·00
Syracuse and Auburn,	Syracuse,	Auburn,	26·00
Auburn and Rochester,	Auburn,	Rochester,	80·00
Tonawanda,	Rochester,	Attica,	45·00
Buffalo and Niagara Falls,	Buffalo,	N. Falls,	23·00
Lockport and Niagara Falls,	Lockport,	N. Falls,	20·00
Buffalo and Black Rock,	Buffalo,	B. Rock,	3·00
Rochester,	Rochester,	Port Genesee,	3·00
Ithaca and Oswego,	Ithaca,	Oswego,	29·00
Bath,	Bath,	Crooked Lake,	5·00
Fort Kent and Keesville,	P. Kent,	Keesville,	4·50
Canals in New Jersey.			
Delaware and Raritan,	Bordentown,	N. Brunswick,	42·00
Morris,	Jersey city,	N. Easton, Pa.	101·75
Salem,	Salem creek,	Delaware river,	4·00
Rail-roads in New Jersey.			
Camden and Amboy,	Camden,	S. Amboy,	61·00
Trenton Branch,			8·00
Jobstown Branch,	Jobstown,	Craft's creek,	13·00
Paterson and Hudson	Jersey city,	Paterson,	16·30
Camden and Woodbury,	Camden,	Woodbury,	9·00
New Jersey,	Jersey city,	N. Brunswick,	31·00
Trenton and Brunswick,	Trenton,	N. Brunswick,	27·00
Morris and Essex,	Newark,	Morristown,	22·00
Elizabethport and Somerville,	Elizabethport,	Somerville,	25·00
Canals in Pennsylvania.			
Penn'a. Canal. Central Division,	Columbia,	Hollidaysburg,	172·00
Penn'a. Canal. Western Division,	Johnstown,	Pittsburg,	104·25
Susquehanna, do.	Duncan's Is.	Northumberland,	39·00
West Branch do.	North'land,	Farrandsville,	73·00
North Branch, do.	do.	Lackawana,	72·00
Delaware Division,	Bristol,	Easton,	60·75
Beaver Division,	Beaver,	Shenango R.	30·75
Schuylkill Navigation,	Philadelphia,	Port Carbon,	108·00
Union,	Reading,	Middletown,	82 00
Lehigh,	Easton,	Stoddartsville,	84·48
Lackawaxen,	Delaware R.	Honesdale,	25·00
Conestoga,	Lancaster,	Safe Harbor,	18·00
Codorus,	York,	Susquehanna R.	11·00
Bald Eagle,	West Br. Ca.	Bellefonte,	25·00
Susquehanna,	Wrightsville,	Havre de Grace,	45·00
Minor Canals			24·00
Rail-roads in Pennsylvania.			
Columbia and Philadelphia,	Philadelphia,	Columbia,	81·00
Portage,	Hollidaysburg,	Johnston,	36·00
Philadelphia City, &c.			6·00
Valley,	Norristown,	Columbia R. R.	20·25
West Ches'er,	Columbia R.R.	West Chester,	10·00
Harrisburg and Lancaster,	Harrisburg,	Lancaster,	31·50
Cumberland Valley,	Harrisburg,	Chamberburg,	50·00
Franklin,	Chamberburg,	Williamsport,	30·00
York and Wrightsville,	York,	Wrightsville,	13·00
Strasburg,	C. Val. R. R.	Strasburg,	7·00
Philadelphia and Reading,	Philadelphia,	Pottsville,	95·00
Little Schuylkill,	Port Clinton,	Tamaqua,	23 00
Danville and Pottsville,	Pottsville,	Sunbury,	44·54
Lit. Sch. and Susq.	Tamaqua,	Williamsport,	106·00
Beaver Meadow Branch,	Lindner's Gp.	Beaver M. R. R.	12 00
Williamsport and Elmira,	Williamsport,	Elmira,	75·50
Corning and Blossburg,	Blossburg,	Corning,	40·00
Mount Carbon,	Mt. Carbon,	Norwegian Cr.	7·24
Schuylkill Valley,	Port Carbon,	Tuscarora,	10·00
Branches of do.			16·00
Schuylkill,	Schuylkill,	Valley,	15·00
Mill Creek,	Port Carbon,	Coal Mine,	9·00
Mine H. and Sch. Haven,	Sch. Haven,	Mine Hill Gp.	20 00
Mauch Chunk,	Mauch Chunk,	Coal M.	9·00
Branches of do.			16 00

Name.	From	To	Miles.
Room Run,	Mauch Chunk,	Coal M.	5·25
Beaver Meadow,	Parryville,	Coal M.	20·00
Hazelton and Lehigh,	Hazelton M.	Beaver M. R. R.	8·00
Nesquehoning,	Nesquehoning M.	Lehigh R.	5·00
Lehigh and Susquehanna,	White Haven,	Wilkesbarre,	19·50
Carbondale and Honesdale,	Carbondale,	Honesdale,	17·67
Stony Creek,	Port Lyon,	Coal Mines,	20·25
Lykens Valley,	Broad Mount.	Millersburg,	10·50
Pine Grove,	Pine Grove,	Coal M.	4·00
Philadelphia and Trenton,	Philadelphia,	Morrisville,	30·25
Philad'a. Ger. and Norris.	Philadelphia,	Norristown,	17·00
Germantown Br.			4·00
Philadelphia and Wilmington,	Philadelphia,	Wilmington,	27·00
Rail-roads in Delaware.			
New Castle and Frenchtown,	N. Castle,	Frenchtown, Md.	16·00
Rail-roads from New Castle to Wilmington and from Wilmington to Nanticoke Creek, are proposed.			
Canals in Delaware.			
Chesapeake and Delaware,	Delaware City,	Back Creek,	13·00
Rail-roads in Maryland.			
Baltimore and Ohio,	Baltimore,	Harper's Ferry,	80·50
Washington Branch,	Patapsco river,	Washington,	30 34
Baltimore and Port Deposite,	Baltimore,	Havre de Grace,	36·00
Baltimore and Susquehanna,	Baltimore,	York, Pa.	59·00
Reisterstown Branch,	6 m. from Bal.	Reisterstown,	6 00
Wil. and Susquehanna,	Hav. de Grace,	Wilmingt., Del.,	32·00
Annapolis and Elkridge,	Wash. Br.,	Annapolis,	19·75
Canals in Maryland.			
Chesapeake and Ohio,	Georgetown,	Hancock,	109·00
Rail-roads in Virginia.			
Richmond, Fredericksburg and Potomac,	Richmond,	Aquia Creek,	75·00
Louisa Branch,	24 m. fr. Rich.,	Gordonsville,	49·00
Richmond and Petersburg,	Richmond,	Petersburg,	23·00
Petersburg and Roanoake,	Petersburg,	Weldon,	59·00
Greensville,	Near Hicksford,	Gaston, N. C.	10·00
City Point,	Petersburg,	City Point,	12·00
Chesterfield,	Coal Mines,	Richmond,	13·50
Portsmouth and Roanoake,	Portsmouth,	Weldon, N. C.	80·00
Winchester and Potomac,	Harp. Ferry,	Winchester,	32·00
Canals in Virginia.			
Alexandria Canal,	Georgetown,	Alexandria,	7·25
James River and Kanawha,	Richmond,	Buchanan,	197·00
Dismal Swamp,	Deep Creek,	Joyce's Creek,	22·00
Branches,			11·00
Rail-roads in North Carolina.			
Wilmington and Raleigh,	Wilmington,	Weldon,	161·00
Raleigh and Gaston,	Raleigh,	Gaston,	86·00
Canals in North Carolina.			
Weldon Canal,	Weldon,	Hd. Roanoake Pa.	12·00
Club Foot and Harlow,	Club Foot cr.,	Harlow cr.,	1·00
Rail-roads in South Carolina.			
South Carolina,	Charleston,	Hamburg,	136·75
Columbia Branch,	Branchville,	Columbia,	69·00
Canals in South Carolina.			
Santee,	Cooper river,	Santee river,	22·00
Winyaw,	Kinlock Cr.,	Winyaw Bay,	7·00
Saluda,	Shoals,	Granby,	6 21
Drehr's,	Saluda Falls,	Head of Falls,	1·38
Lorick,	Broad River,	Head of Falls,	1·00
Lockhart's,	Head of Falls in Broad Riv.	To Foot,	2·75
Watatee,	Jones's Mill,	Elliott's,	4·00
Catawba,	At var. points on the Catawba,		7·77
Rail-roads in Georgia.			
Georgia,	Augusta,	De Kalb Co.	166·00
Athens Branch,	Georgia R. R.	Athens,	32·00
Western and Atlantic,	De Kalb Co.	Tennessee R.	137·62
Central,	Savannah,	Macon,	189·00
Monroe,	Macon,	Forsyth,	21·38
Macon and Talbotten,	Macon,	Talbotten,	70·00
Canals in Georgia.			
Savannah, Ogeechee, and Alatamaha,	Savannah,	Alatamaha R.	16·00
Brunswick,	Alatamaha,	Brunswick,	16·00
Rail-roads in Florida.			
Wimico and St. Joseph,	Lake Wimico,	St. Joseph,	19·00
Rail-roads in Alabama.			
Alabama, Florida, and Georgia,	Pensacola,	Montgomery,	166·00
Montgomery and West Point,	Montgomery,	West Point,	87·00
Tuscumbia, Courtland, and Decatur,	Tuscumbia,	Decatur,	44·00
Selma and Cahawba,	Selma,	Cahawba,	10·00
Wetumpka,	Wetumpka,		10·00
Canals in Alabama.			
Muscle Shoals Canal,	Head of Falls,	Florence,	38·38
Huntsville,	Triana,	Huntsville,	10·00
Rail-roads in Mississippi.			
West Feliciana,	St. Francisv.,	Woodville, (Miss.)	27·00
Vicksburg and Clinton,	Vicksburg,	Clinton,	46·00
Grand Gulf,	Grand Gulf,	Port Gibson,	7·00
Jackson and Brandon,	Jackson,	Brandon,	16·00
Rail-roads in Louisiana.			
Pontchartrain,	New Orleans,	L. Pontchartrain,	4·00
West Feliciana,	St. Francisv.,	Woodv. (La. p.)	20·00
Atchafalaya,	Ft. Coupee,	Opelousas,	30·00

* 20 miles of this road are in Massachusetts.

Names.	From	To	Miles.
Alexandria and Chesneyville,	Alexandria,	Chesneyville,	30·00
New Orleans and Carrollton,	New Orleans,	Lafayette,	11·25
Carrollton Railway,	New Orleans,	R. St. Johns,	1·50
Canals in Louisiana.			
Orleans Canal,	New Orleans,	Lake Ponch.	4·25
Canal Carondelet,	New Orleans,	R. St. John,	3·00
Bayou,	Near N. Orleans,	Berwick's Bay,	25·00
Lake Verret,	Lake Verret,	La Fourche riv.	8·00
Rail-roads in Tennessee.			
La Grange and Memphis,	La Grange,	Memphis,	50·00
Somerville Branch,	Moscow,	Somerville,	16·00
Eighteenmile,	Knoxville,	West and Atlantic R. R.	96·50
Rail roads in Kentucky.			
Lexington and Ohio R. R.,	Louisville,	Lexington,	82·75
Portage,	Bowlinggreen,	Barren river,	1·50
Rail-roads in Illinois.			
Meredosia and Jacksonville,	Meredosia,	Jacksonville,	20·00
Coal Mine Bluff,	Illinois,	Coal mine,	6·00
Canals in Illinois.			
Illinois and Michigan,	Chicago,	Near Peru,	105·00
Wabash and Erie,	Canals in Indiana. Lafayette,	Lake Erie,	187·00
Whitewater,	Lawrenceburg,	Brookville,	30·00
Madison and Indianapolis,	Rail-roads in Indiana. Madison,	Indianapolis,	95·00
Ohio and Erie,	Canals in Ohio. Portsmouth,	Cleveland,	307·00
Columbus Branch,	Columbus,	Canal,	10·00
Lancaster Branch,	Lancaster,	Canal,	9·00
Hocking,	Lancaster,	Athens,	50·00
Zanesville Branch,	Zanesville,	Canal,	1·00
Walhonding Branch,	Walhonding,	R. Canal,	23·00
Miami,	Cincinnati,	Defiance,	178·00
Warren Branch,	Middletown,	Lebanon,	20·00
Sandy and Beaver,	Bolivar,	Ohio river,	76·00
Mahoning,	Akron,	Beaver river,	77·00
Mad R., and Sandusky city,	Rail-roads in Ohio. Tiffin,	Sandusky city,	36·00
Ohio,	Manhattan,	Sandusky city,	40·00
Central,	Rail-roads in Michigan. Detroit,	Ann Arbor,	44·00
Erie and Kalamazoo,	Toledo,	Adrian,	33·00
Ypsilanti and Tecumseh,	Ypsilanti,	Tecumseh,	25·00
Detroit and Pontiac,	Detroit,	Pontiac,	25·00

For farther information on the present subject, the reader is referred to Mr. Tanner's work on the canals and railroads of the United States. See also article STEAM VESSELS.—*Am. Ed.*]

ROPE consists of hemp, hair, &c. spun into a thick yarn, of which several strings are twisted together by means of a wheel. When made very small, it is called a cord; and when very thick, a cable. All the different kinds of this manufacture, from a fishing-line, or whip-cord, to the cable of a first-rate ship of war, go by the general name of cordage.—(See CABLE.)

ROSEWOOD (Ger. *Rosenholz*; Fr. *Bois du rose, de Rhode*; It. *Legno rodie*; Sp. *Leno de rosa*; Port. *Páo de rosado*) is produced in Brazil, the Canary Islands; in Siam, whence it is pretty largely exported by the Chinese; and in other places. It is in the highest esteem as a fancy wood. The width of the log imported into this country averages about 22 inches, so that it must be the produce of a large tree. Rosewood has a slightly bitterish, somewhat pungent, balsamic taste, and fragrant smell, whence its name. It should be chosen sound, heavy, of the deepest colour, in the largest pieces that can be procured, and of the most irregular knotty grain. The small, light-coloured and large shivered pieces should be rejected. The more distinct the darker parts are from the purple red, which forms the ground, the more is the wood esteemed. It is usually cut into veneers of 9 to an inch.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com., &c.*)

Rosewood is one of the dearest as well as most beautiful of the fancy woods. Its price in bond varies from about 120*l.* to 125*l.* per ton; so that it is principally used in veneering. Its consumption has more than trebled since 1820. At an average of the 3 years ending with 1823, the entries for home consumption were 277 tons a year, whereas they amounted, during the 3 years ending with 1832, to 913 tons a year! This increase is principally to be ascribed to the reduction of the duty, in 1826, from 3*l.* to 1*l.* a ton,—a wise and judicious measure, by which the revenue as well as the consumption has been considerably increased.

ROSIN. "This substance is obtained from different species of fir; as the *Pinus abies, sylvestris, larix, balsamea.* It is well known that a resinous juice exudes from the *pinus sylvestris*, or common Scotch fir, which hardens into tears. The same exudation appears in the *pinus abies*, or spruce fir. These tears constitute the substance called *thus*, or frankincense. When a portion of the bark is stripped off these trees, a liquid juice flows out, which gradually hardens. The juice has obtained different names, according to the plant from which it comes. The *pinus sylvestris* yields common turpentine; the *larix*, Venice turpentine—(see TURPENTINE); the *balsamea*, balsam of Canada—(see BALSAM), &c. All these juices, which are commonly distinguished by the name of turpentine, are considered as composed of two ingredients; namely, oil of turpentine, and rosin. When the turpentine is distilled, the oil comes over, and the rosin remains behind. When the distillation is continued to dryness, the residuum is known by the name of common rosin, or *colophonium*; but when water is mixed with it while yet fluid, and incorporated by violent agitation, the mass is called *yellow rosin*. During winter, the wounds made in the fir trees become incrusted with a white brittle substance, called *barras* or *galipot*, consisting of rosin united to a small portion of oil. The yellow rosin, made by melting and agitating this substance in water, is preferred for most purposes, because it is more ductile, owing, probably, to its still containing some oil. The uses of rosin are numerous and well known."—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

(ROSTOCK, the principal city of the Grand Duchy of Mecklenburg Schwerin, on the Warnow, about 9 miles above where it falls into the Baltic, in lat. 54° N., long. 12° 12′ E. Population, 20,000. A large fair for merchandise is annually held at Whitsuntide; and there are wool fairs at other seasons of the year.

The outport of Rostock is at Warnemunde, at the mouth of the Warnow. The depth of water at

the latter varies from 10½ to 12 feet; but when the west pier, now in the course of being constructed, has been completed, it is expected that the depth of water will be from 12 to 14 feet. The depth of water in the river from Warnemunde up to Rostock is usually from 8 to 9 feet; so that vessels drawing more than this must be lightened to get up to the latter. Rostock has a good harbour, and commodious quays.

Money.—Rostock and all Mecklenburg reckon by rix-dollars new, two thirds of 48 schillings. The rix-dollar contains 199·1 grains pure silver, and is worth nearly 2s. 4d. (2s. 3 8d.) sterling.

Weights.—The commercial weights are the same as those of Hamburg, which see. There are, however, other weights, introduced in 1737, which are 5 per cent. heavier than the above. They are principally used in the trade with Russia.

Measures.—The Rostock foot = 11·36 Eng. inches. The ell = 2 feet. The last contains 96 scheffels: the last used in the measuring of oats = 14 1·2 imp. quarters = 42 hectolitres: the last used in the measuring of other grain = 13 imp. quarters or 37·3 hectolitres.—(*Kelly's Cambist.*)

Imports.—The principal articles of import are sugar, coffee, and other colonial products; cottons, woollens, and hardware, with coal, earthenware, salt, iron, horses, &c., from England; hemp, flax, tallow, oil, sail-cloth, &c., from Russia; alum, deals, timber, lime, tar, &c., from Sweden; herrings and fish oil from Norway; wine, brandy, molasses, drugs, &c., from France; with rice, rum, groceries, &c., from Copenhagen and Hamburgh. The total value of the imports by sea, in 1835, was estimated at about 200,000*l.*

Exports.—These consist chiefly of very good red wheat, barley, peas, rapeseed, and a few oats; with wool, rags of a very superior quality, oil cake, rape oil, bones, flax, horses, cattle, provisions, &c. The average export of all kinds of grain may be taken of late at from about 115,000 to about 150,000 quarters a year. The total value of all sorts of exports, in 1835, was estimated at about 185,000*l.*

Shipping.—The port of Rostock has 180 ships, of the burthen of 25,996 register tons, which trade with most European nations, the United States, and Brazil. In 1835, there entered the port 540 ships (burthen not stated), of which 215 belonged to Mecklenburg, 152 (mostly small craft) to Denmark, 83 to Sweden, 27 to Hanover, 18 to Prussia, 12 to Russia, 19 to Holland, 10 to Lubeck, 2 Hamburgh, and 1 each to France and England. It is only, in fact, when our ports are open to the importation of foreign corn that British ships are met with, in considerable numbers, in the ports of Mecklenburg.

Port Charges.—These are the same on native and privileged ships, among which are included those of England, France, America, Prussia, Norway, &c. The port charges on a vessel of 100 tons burthen are as follow, viz.:—

	Privileged.		Not privileged.	
	Rix-d.	Schill.	Rix-d.	Schill.
Inward with cargo	10	8	10	2
Outward ditto	23	44	23	6
Inward in ballast	12	6	12	6
Outward ditto	19	26	21	10
Ditto without either	17	32	25	42

Duties.—These are extremely moderate. On most imported articles they amount to only 3 per cent. *ad valorem*. An export duty of about 5*d.* per quarter is charged on corn, and of about 4*s.* 8*d.* per hhd. on wine. Wool is not subject to any duty on export. Goods imported in vessels not privileged pay 50 per cent. additional on the above duties; that is, they pay 4½ instead of 3 per cent. *ad valorem*.

Wismar, the second sea-port town of Mecklenburg, at the confluence of the river Stor with the sea, in lat. 53° 49′ 25″ N., long. 11° 36′ 15″ E. Population 11,000. The harbour of Wismar is commodious and safe, being nearly land-locked by the islands of Poel and Wallfisch. Close to the town there is from 8 to 8½ feet water; in the inner roads there is from 12 to 13 feet; and in the outer, from 16 to 20 feet water. The port charges on a native or privileged vessel of 100 tons amount to about 30 rix-dollars. The articles of import and export are the same at Wismar as at Rostock; but, owing to the proximity of Lubeck, from which Wismar is not more than 27 miles distant, her foreign trade is comparatively limited. About 30 ships, of the burthen of 4,360 tons, belong to this port. There cleared from it, in 1835, 277 ships, of which 11 were English. The duties at Wismar are somewhat higher than at Rostock, being 4½ per cent. *ad valorem* on colonial products, and from 4*d.* to 8*d.* per quarter on corn exported. It is believed, however, that they will shortly be reduced to the Rostock level.

General Remarks on the Trade of the Duchies.—Mecklenburg is essentially an agricultural, wool-growing, grazing, and breeding country. In some places it is sandy and barren; but it is for the most part very fertile, and the crops and pastures are both luxuriant. Having few manufactures, her imports necessarily consist principally, as already stated, of manufactured goods, and her exports of raw produce. Owing, however, to the circumstance of the south-western part of the province being bounded by the Elbe, and approaching to within about 30 miles of Hamburgh, almost all the manufactured goods, as well as a very large proportion of the colonial products used by the population (540,000), are imported by way of Hamburgh. Hence, in Mecklenburg, as in Prussia, the direct foreign trade carried on by the sea frontier forms but a very small part of the entire trade of the country. It is impossible, however, to form any precise estimate of what the latter may amount to. Probably there is no European country so little fettered by customs' regulations as Mecklenburg. The duties on articles imported by sea amount only, as already stated, to about 3 per cent. *ad valorem*; and those entering by the land frontier are subject merely to a trifling charge, on account of toll, of which we have not seen any account. It is impossible, indeed, that any commercial system can be bottomed on more liberal principles; and this enlightened policy, and her situation near the mouth of the Elbe, and on the western frontier of the Prussian league, give to Mecklenburg far greater importance, as a commercial state, than is indicated by the amount of her population, or of her internal consumption.

(We have drawn up this article from authentic details obligingly furnished by Christopher Kreeft, Esq., Consul for Mecklenburg.)—*Sup.*)

ROTTERDAM, on the north bank of the Maese, in lat. 51° 55′ 19″ N., lon. 4° 29′ 14″ E. Population about 60,000. Rotterdam is the second commercial city of Holland. It is more advantageously situated than Amsterdam; being nearer the sea, and the canals which intersect it are so deep as to admit of the largest vessels coming up to the quays and warehouses of the merchants. Its commerce, during the last 15 years, has increased more rapidly than that of any town in Holland. The exports and imports are similar to those of Amsterdam. The white Zealand wheat shipped here is of a peculiarly fine quality; and it is

the best market for madder and geneva. Our imports of madder from the Netherlands, in 1831, amounted to about 18,726 cwt., most of which came from Rotterdam.—(See MADDER.) Geneva is sold by the aam; but, for the convenience of smuggling to England, it is divided into ankers and ½ ankers. The legitimate imports of geneva from the Netherlands, in 1831, amounted to 210,038 gallons.

N. B.—The channel from the sea to Rotterdam is exhibited in the chart of the Dutch coast in the map of Europe in this work.

Monies, Weights, and Measures.—See the article *Amsterdam*, for account of the current monies, weights, and measures of Holland.

Two different commercial lbs. were formerly used at Rotterdam: one was the Amsterdam weight, 100 lbs. of which = 109·93 lbs. avoirdupois; the other, used by retailers, was 5 per cent. lighter, 100 lbs. of it being = 103·43 lbs. avoirdupois.

The Rotterdam last of corn = 10·642 Winchester bushels.

The aam = 40 English wine gallons very nearly.

A hogshead of flax-seed contains from 7 1-2 to 8 Winchester bushels. Rock salt is sold per great hundred of 464 masten, containing from 21 to 23 tons. Coals per boat = 1-2 a chaldron of Newcastle.

The liquid measures were divided in the same manner as at Amsterdam, but were larger: thus, 100 stoops of Rotterdam, were = 97 3-4 English wine gallons. Brandies were sold per 30 viertels whale oil, per 90 stoops; vegetable oils per 300 stoops.

The ell is the same as at Amsterdam. 100 feet of Rotterdam = 109 1-3 feet of Amsterdam, or 102 English feet.

Account of the principal Articles imported into Rotterdam in 1834 and 1835, with the Stocks on hand, at the End of each Year.—(*Circular of Labouchere and Co.*)

		Imports.				Stocks on the 1st January.			
		1834.		1835.		1835.		1836.	
Sugar:									
Chiefly Surinam and Nickarie	hhds.	1,900		3,888		90		102	
Java	baskets	37,533		31,985		6,974		4,003	
Brazil white	chests	36		78		·		44	
muscovado	· —	·	kilogs.	586	kilogs.	214	kilogs.	408	1,776,000 kilogs.
Havanna white	· boxes	2,575	11,037,000	674	16,264,000	1,058	2,113,000	·	
yellow	· —	5,080		7,104		·		2,014	
Manilla	· mats	10,169		4,093		·		·	
Sundries bags and mats	·	2,409		3,392		1,939		178	
Coffee:—									
East India	· bags	254,180		227,995		126,000		103,000	·
West India	· —	50,937	16,700,000	30,491	13,808,000	16,000	7,650,000	6,400 St. Domingo	kilogs.
Dito	· casks	824		404		·		300 Havannah	5,870,000
								2,900 Brazil	
Tea	· chests	10,500½		8,070½		2,400½		1,700½	
Ditto	· casks	9,370		7,120		·		1,500	
Ditto	· bags	34,600		45,800		4,000		3,500	
Pepper	· —	3,710		7,060		800		2,000	
Tobacco:—									
Maryland	· hhds.	7,031		8,407		6,394		4,220	
Virginia	· —	2,530		886		2,111		253	
Kentucky	· —	59		60		·		7	
Stems	· —	598		279		232		232	
Hides:—									
East India	number	43,048		42,967		5,091		12,732	
Buenos Ayres	· —	9,568		8,660		4,000		6,460	
Rio Grande	· —	7,857		2,899		3,500		2,899	
Valparaiso	· —	·		·		400		·	
St. Domingo	· —	455		·		·		·	
Maranham	· —	2,918		·		·		·	
Tin, Banca	· slabs	24,554		25,990		4,127		·	
Cotton:—									
North American	· bales	10,390		9,626		·		1,653	
Surinam	· —	2,048		838		·		10	
Nickarie	· —	·		1,030		·		86	
Egyptian	· —	·	bales	·	bales	·	bales	·	3,412 bales.
Surat and Bengal	· —	11,900	25,785	10,376	22,135	87	200	1,615	
Smyrna	· —	98		172		·		100	
St. Domingo	· —	1,223		·		113		·	
Maranham	· —	200		238		·		·	
Indigo, Java	chests	·		1,060		·		460	
Dyewoods, sundries	tons	·		3,000		·		500	

Taxes and Allowances.

	Taxes.	Drafts.	Allowances.
Coffee, Surinam	6 per cent.	1 per ct.	1 per ct.
St. Domingo			
Bourbon	10 lbs. per bale	1 —	1 —
Mocha	24 lbs. —	1 —	1 —
Java	14 lbs. per bale of 270 lbs.	1 —	3 —
Sugar, Jamaica	15 per cent.		
Surinam	20 —	1 —	1 —
East India, in bags	10 —		
Sierra chests below 434 lbs.	20 lbs. per chest	1 —	1 —
above	15 per cent.		
Martinique	18 —	1 —	1 —
St. Domingo			
Cocoa	6 —	1 —	1 —

	Taxes.	Drafts.	Allowances.
Hides, Buenos Ayres	2 lbs. per hide	2 per ct.	1 per ct.
Tobacco, Virginia	3 per cent.	2 —	3 —
Logwood	3 —	1 —	1 —
Pimento	real tare	1 —	1 —
Indigo	3 per cent.	·	3 —
Pepper	5 lbs. per bale	1 —	· —
Whale oil	1 per cent.	·	1 —
Madders	real tare	·	1 —

The number of ships entering the Masse and the Goré, chiefly destined for Rotterdam, in the 5 years ending with 1828, was as follows:—

Years.	Ships.	Years.	Ships.
1824	1,976	1827	1,751
1825	1,998	1828	2,085
1826	1,887		

RUBY, a precious stone, very highly esteemed; but under this name a variety of minerals have not unfrequently been sold, which differ essentially in their characters.

The *Oriental Ruby* is, in fact, a red variety of the sapphire. When perfect, its colour is a cochineal red, presenting a richness of hue the most exquisite and unrivalled: it is, however, in general, more or less pale, and often mixed with blue; hence it occurs rose red, peach blossom red, and lilac blue, passing into the amethyst. It is harder than any other mineral, except the diamond. Easily frangible. Specific gravity from 3·916 to 4·283. Infusible before the blowpipe. Oriental rubies of 10 carats are extremely rare and valuable. One of 22 grains was sold for 160*l*. Rubies in lots, Indian cut, or small sizes, and of different qualities, are at all times to be had, and sell at from 15*s*. to 65*s*. a carat; but a perfect stone of a carat, or 6 grains, may be deemed rare, and falls little short of the value of the diamond: nay, in some cases, rubies of 2, 3, or 4 carats, if *very fine*, are much scarcer, and

even more valuable, than diamonds of equal weight. The finest ruby in England, or, perhaps, in Europe, is in the collection of the late Mr. Hope, author of "Anastasius."

There are two other species of ruby, the *Spinelle* and *Balais*. When perfect, the Spinelle is a gem of great value and scarcity. Its colour is a fine full carmine or rose red, but it never presents that rich mellow tinge that attends the Oriental ruby. It is also inferior to the latter in hardness and specific gravity. Stones of 3 carats and upwards are very rare and valuable.

The *Balais Ruby* is a pale variety of the spinelle. It varies in colour from light red to yellowish red. Though not so rare as the spinelle, it is by no means common. It is much admired for its agreeable tinge of colour; and, when pure and perfect, fetches a very high price; though considerably less than the other varieties.

Rubies are not found in any considerable quantity except in Ava.—(See SAPPHIRE.)—(*Mawe on Diamonds*, 2d ed. pp. 90. 101.; *Thomson's Chemistry*.)

RUM, a well known and highly esteemed spirituous liquor, imported from the West Indies, of which it forms one of the staple products. It is obtained, by means of fermentation and distillation, from molasses, the refuse of the cane juice, and portions of the cane, after the sugar has been extracted. The flavour and taste peculiar to rum are derived from the essential oils carried over in distillation. When the distillation has been carelessly performed, the spirit contains so large a quantity of the grosser and less volatile part of the oil as to be unfit for use till it has attained a considerable age. When it is well rectified, it mellows much sooner. Rum of a brownish transparent colour, smooth oily taste, strong body and consistence, good age, and well kept, is the best. That of a clear, limpid colour, and hot pungent taste, is either too new, or mixed with other spirits. Jamaica rum is the first in point of quality; the Leeward Island rum, as it is called, being always inferior to it, both in flavour, strength, and value. The price of the latter is usually 20 per cent. below that of the former. We import all our rum in puncheons, containing from 84 to 90 gallons each. It is customary, in some of the West India islands, to put sliced pine-apples in puncheons of rum: this gives the spirit the flavour of the fruit; and hence the designation, *pine-apple rum*.

Rum is said to be much adulterated by the retail dealers in England, sometimes with corn spirit; but if done with molasses spirit, the tastes of both are so nearly allied, that the cheat is not easily discovered.

Consumption of, and Duties upon, Rum, &c.—The following Tables show the quantity of rum consumed in Great Britain and Ireland since 1800, the rates of duty charged upon it, and the produce of the duties; the quantities derived from our different colonies last year, and the countries to which the excess of imports has been again exported, &c.

I. Account, stated in *Imperial Proof Gallons*, of the Rum annually entered for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom, from 1800 to 1832, both inclusive, distinguishing England, Ireland, and Scotland; the Rates of Duty payable respectively thereon; the Produce of the Duties; and the Price of Rum in Bond since 1814. (This account has been prepared partly from published, and partly from unpublished *official* documents. The column of prices has been supplied principally by Mr. Cook.)

Years.	Quantities entered for Home Consumption.				Rate of Duty payable (Customs and Excise.)		Nett Produce of the Duties in Great Britain.	Nett Produce of the Duties in Ireland.	Price of Jamaica Rum in Bond.
	England.	Scotland.	Ireland.	United Kingdom.	In England and Scotland.	In Ireland.			
	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Gallons.	Per Gal. s. d.	Per Gal. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	Per Gallon. s. d. s. d.
1800	1,945,296	239,913	864,411	3,049,580	9 10 1-2	6 85-4	920,827 6 4	293,355 0 0	
1801	1,837,339	349,237	1,067,316	3,094,392	9 10 1-4	- -	955,177 1 5	347,455 7 9	
1802	2,204,897	468,163	637,005	3,310,065	9 0 3-4	6 11 1-4	1,232,999 11 2	206,861 2 10	
1803	2,573,602	379,043	259,966	3,214,611	13 4 1-4	9 6 1-4	1,508,870 13 4	88,140 7 8	
1804	1,506,899	124,548	180,289	1,813,736	13 5 1-4	9 23-4	1,054,425 1 6	60,392 8 3	
1805	1,698,384	143,635	123,049	1,973,068	13 5 1-2	- -	1,183,770 0 9	56,401 2 4	
1806	1,857,34.	196,811	160,148	2,208,290	13 6 1-2	- -	1,373,966 5 0	74,615 16 0	
1807	1,999,753	226,296	210,852	2,436,901	- -	- -	1,496,814 1 8	89,776 13 8	
1808	2,174,751	236,283	343,333	2,757,347	- -	10 81-2	1,637,475 16 2	161,789 3 9	
1809	2,290,925	249,325	1,063,681	3,613,611	13 7 3-4	- -	1,738,074 5 8	546,747 1 7	
1810	2,703,718	330,560	336,658	3,570,936	- -	- -	2,056,170 0 7	172,424 11 8	
1811	2,711,945	300,316	150,290	3,162,541	- -	- -	2,056,161 4 0	77,378 3 11	
1812	2,305,465	286,569	283,135	2,775,169	- -	- -	2,066,338 12 10	149,817 9 1	
1813	2,041,680	241,686	465,008	2,749,374	13 10 1-2	12 10 1-4	2,278,636 10 0	251,639 9 2	4 6n6 4
1814	2,332,188	280,493	91,154	3,703,835	- -	13 83-4	2 813,578 2 7	58,060 6 6	3 2--4 4
1815	3,019,304	281,748	94,825	3,395,765	- -	- -	2,340,472 17 10	41,396 5 0	3 2--4 4
1816	3,221,533	185,874	21,543	3,428,950	- -	- -	1,686,384 13 10	12,171 5 0	3 1--4 4
1817	2,179,213	186,412	30,686	2,408,311	- -	- -	1,619,425 16 5	19,423 9 2	3 3--5 0
1818	2,406,266	203,951	21,366	2,631,583	- -	- -	1,775,714 12 2	13,567 15 4	3 5--4 6
1819	2,390,198	148,965	23,735	2,564,883	13 11 1-2	- -	1,750,446 14 9	16,299 14 6	2 6--3 9
1820	2,625,733	142,907	20,390	2,489,120	- -	- -	1,894,625 7 8	12,981 5 0	2 8--4 0
1821	2,196,441	138,189	19,085	2,293,315	- -	- -	1,576,377 1 4	12,538 8 0	1 6--2 9
1822	2,100,925	180,579	15,035	2,246,539	- -	- -	1,516,645 11 6	9,957 6 8	1 4--2 1
1823	2,222,923	106,562	18,175	2,349,660	- -	13 11 1-2	1,590,886 18 6	11,534 6 6	1 5--2 1
1824	2,407,207	134,986	9,453	2,551,646	13 7 1-4	13 7 1-4	1,600,927 6 6	6,097 7 1	1 7--2 6
1825	1,990,507	104,732	10,148	2,095,887	- -	- -	1,378,313 19 1	6,518 19 4	2 6--3 4
1826	2,932,013	299,505	27,758	4,303,316	6 6	6 6	1,917,109 2 5	11,770 6 6	3 0--4 0
1827	3,080,152	185,214	23,240	3,288,606	- -	- -	1,386 726 1 1	9,840 7 10	3 4--4 4
1828	3,064,856	158,089	24,708	3,277,653	- -	- -	1,342,424 19 5	10,528 17 9	3 3--4 3
1829	3,202,143	154,461	21,262	3,378,866	- -	- -	1,425,746 18 5	9,033 14 5	3 2--3 3
1830	3,303,144	136,520	19,304	3,458,968	9 0	9 0	1,491,538 11 5	8,492 18 6	3 2--3 3
1831	3,479 911	125,762	18,994	3,624,597	- -	- -	1,621,341 0 5	8,540 9 0	3 2--3 3
1832	3,377,507	112,0??	24,432	3,513,985	- -	- -	1,569,402 10 3	10,977 15 6	3 0--3 3

II. An Account of the Total Number of Gallons of Rum entered for Home Consumption, with the Amount of Duty paid thereon, in Great Britain and Ireland respectively, from the 5th of January, 1832, to the 5th of January, 1833, distinguishing England from Scotland; also, a similar Account of all other Spirits from Foreign Countries, entered for Home Consumption, distinguishing such Countries, for the same Year.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 320. Sess. 1833.)

Article.	Great Britain.			Ireland.	United Kingdom.
	England.	Scotland.	Total.		
	Proof Gallons.	*Proof Gallons.*	*Proof Gallons.*	*Proof Gallons.*	*Proof Gallons.*
Rum	5,277,507	112,036	5,389,553	24,432	5,413,985
Other foreign spirits:					
From the Netherlands	17,451	7,280	24,731	1,494	26,225
France	1,808,256	61,120	1,870,376	31,717	1,902,093
the East India Company's territories and Mauritius	737		737		737
the British West Indies	2,016	764	2,780	210	2,990
other parts	1,523	73	1,600	2	1,602
Total quantity of foreign spirits entered for home consumption	4,908,495	181,282	5,089,757	57,845	5,147,602
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
Rum	1,650,102 1 11	80,411 14 2	1,870,513 16 1	10,986 6 6	1,881,499 2 7
Other foreign spirits	1,722,159 0 7	77,489 19 1	1,799,649 0 8	37,556 6 3	1,837,206 6 9
Total receipt of duty on foreign spirits	3,372,261 2 6	157,901 14 1	3,670,162 16 7	48,544 12 9	3,718,707 9 4

III. Account of the quantity of Rum imported into the United Kingdom, distinguishing the several Colonies and Countries from which the same was imported; and the Quantity imported from each, in the Year ended 5th of January, 1833.

Countries from which imported.	Rum imported in the Year ending the 5th of Jan. 1833.			Countries from which imported.	Rum imported in the Year ending the 5th of Jan. 1833.		
	Into Great Britain.	Into Ireland.	Into the United Kingdom.		Into Great Britain.	Into Ireland.	Into the United Kingdom.
British colonies and plantations in America; viz.	*Prf. Galls.*	*Prf. Galls.*	*Prf. Galls.*		*Prf. Galls.*	*Prf. Galls.*	*Prf. Galls.*
Antigua	27,233	1,940	29,173	Tortola	108	-	108
Barbadoes	5,700	40	5,740	Trinidad	1,797	3,759	5,556
Dominica	34,599	-	34,599	Bermudas	30	-	30
Grenada	103,650	4	103,654	Demerara	290,679	2,492	1,293,255
Jamaica	2,755,336	1,716	2,757,052	Berbice	122,194	-	122,194
Montserrat	11,504	-	11,504	British N. American colonies	19,716	-	19,716
Nevis	11,189	-	11,189	Foreign colonies in the West Indies; viz.			
St. Christopher	29,951	-	29,951	St. Thomas and St. Croix	10,907	-	10,907
St. Lucia	4,075	2,469	6,544	Other countries	1,230	-	1,230
St. Vincent	29,738	-	29,738				
Tobago	281,651	-	281,651	Total	4,741,367	12,422	4,753,789

IV. Account of the Quantity of Rum exported from the United Kingdom, distinguishing the Countries to which the same was exported, and the quantity exported to each, in the year ended the 5th of January, 1833.

Countries to which exported.	Rum exported in the Year ending the 5th of Jan. 1833.			Countries to which exported.	Rum exported in the Year ending the 5th of Jan. 1833.		
	From Great Britain.	From Ireland.	From the United Kingdom.		From Great Britain.	From Ireland.	From the United Kingdom.
	Prf. Galls.	*Prf. Galls.*	*Prf. Galls.*		*Prf. Galls.*	*Prf. Galls.*	*Prf. Galls.*
Russia	64,917	387	66,304	Cape of Good Hope	12,593	-	12,593
Sweden	14,342	-	14,342	Other parts of Africa	217,593	165	217,758
Norway	5,231	-	5,231	East Indies and China	32,176	-	32,176
Denmark	64,422	-	64,422	New South Wales, Swan River, and Van Diemen's Land	327,911	-	327,911
Prussia	866,211	40	866,251				
Germany	622,246	-	622,246				
The Netherlands	146,404	-	146,404	British North American colonies	69,895	14,056	83,951
France	1,681	40	1,701	British West Indies	17,334	1,465	18,799
Portugal, the Azores, and Madeira	10,978	169	11,047	Foreign West Indies	4,017	-	4,017
Spain and the Canaries	5,562	89	5,651	United States of America	7,109	2,045	9,154
Gibraltar	16,893	206	17,098	Mexico	358	-	358
Italy	113,231	-	113,231	Colombia	133	-	133
Malta	11,682	-	11,682	Brazil	3,079	185	3,264
The Ionian Islands	13,644	-	13,644	States of the Rio de la Plata	290	-	290
Turkey and Continental Greece	51,675	169	51,844	Chili	4,007	-	4,007
Mocha and Greek Islands	96	-	96	Peru	2,923	-	2,923
Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	90,317	-	90,317	The Whale Fisheries	6,213	-	6,213
				Total	2,304,324	19,011	2,323,335

Though rum has not been so much over-taxed as brandy, geneva, and wine, still it seems pretty clear that even, in its case, taxation has been carried far beyond its proper limits. During the 3 years ending with 1802, when the duty in Great Britain was about 9*s.* a gallon, and in Ireland 6*s.* 8½*d.*, the consumption of the United Kingdom amounted to 3,150,000 gallons a year; while, notwithstanding the great increase of population, during the 3 years ending with 1823, when the duty in Great Britain was 13*s.* 11½*d.* a gallon, and in Ireland 12*s.* 8½*d.*, the annual consumption amounted to only 2,307,000 gallons! The reduction of the duty in 1826 to 8*s.* 6*d.* increased the consumption from about 2,500,000 to above 3,000,000 gallons in 1830. But 6*d.* having been added to the duty in 1830, the consumption, influenced no doubt partly by this, but probably also by other circumstances, has since declined. The great demand for rum from 1811 to 1815 was occasioned chiefly by the high price and inferior quality of the British spirits that were then manufactured.

The decrease in the consumption of rum in Ireland is most striking. Unfortunately

however, this is not the only instance the sister kingdom affords of the destructive effects of oppressive taxes. The excessive additions made to the duties on brandy, wine, sugar, &c. since 1805, have had similar effects; the quantity of these articles consumed in Ireland being *decidedly less now than it was 30 years ago!*—(See BRANDY, SUGAR, &c.) Exorbitant taxes have gone far to deprive the Irish of every comfort; and, consequently, to take from them some of the most powerful incentives to industry and good conduct. The poverty of the people has set at nought the calculations of our finance ministers; *every increase of taxation in Ireland having produced a diminution of revenue and an increase of crime!* Surely it is high time to abandon so odious a system; particularly after the experience of the beneficial effects that have resulted from the diminution of the spirit duties. As a means of raising revenue, the taxation of Ireland is utterly ineffective; but the wit of man never contrived any thing better fitted to produce barbarism and disaffection.

Rum, the produce of the British possessions in America, is not liable to the duty charged on sweetened spirits, unless the actual strength exceed the strength denoted by Sykes's hydrometer by more than 10 degrees per cent.; and in lieu of such duty there shall be charged upon every degree per cent. more than 3 degrees, and not more than 10 degrees, by which the actual strength shall exceed the strength denoted by Sykes's hydrometer, a duty of 9*s.* 6*d.*: provided, that if the importer cannot make a perfect entry thereof for payment of duty on the actual strength, he may demand in writing, upon the entry, that trial be made of the actual strength (he paying the expenses of such trial), instead of entering such rum for the payment of duty upon any stated number of such excessive degrees of strength: provided also, that all trials of actual strength of such rum shall be made by some skilful person appointed by the commissioners of customs for such purpose.—(7 *Geo.* 4. c. 48. § 31.)

Rum, the produce of the British plantations, must be imported in casks containing not less than 20 gallons.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 52.) But rum in casks capable of containing 20 gallons, may be imported on the officer being satisfied that the deficiency has been *wholly occasioned by absorption or leakage*, and not by abstraction.—(*Customs Min.* 24th of March, 1831.)

Rum in bonded warehouses may be drawn off into casks containing not less than 20 gallons each, as stores for ships, and may be delivered into the charge of the searcher, to be shipped as stores for any ship, without entry or payment of duty, the same being duly borne upon the victualling bill of such ships respectively.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4 c. 57.)

Rum of the British plantations in bonded warehouses may also be drawn off into reputed quart or reputed pint bottles, for the purpose of being exported from the warehouse.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 57.)

On applications referring to a former order allowing the admixture of rums of different strengths for exportation, and praying that the rum remaining in the vats after the operation of racking might be admitted for home consumption, the Board were of opinion that the request might be complied with, to the extent of an ullage of 20 gallons, the legal quantity allowed to be exported, and that the duty should be paid, according to the strength, at the time of delivery of the said rum.—(*Mis. Com. Cus.* 27th of Sept. 1827.)

Before any rum shall be entered as being the produce of any British possession in America, or of the Mauritius, the master of the ship importing the same must deliver a certificate of origin to the collector or comptroller, and subscribe a declaration that the goods are the produce of such place.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 52. § 37.; see *ante*, 8.)

RUSSIA COMPANY, a regulated company for conducting the trade with Russia. It was first incorporated by charter of Philip and Mary, sanctioned by act of parliament in 1566. The statute 10 & 11 Will. 3. c. 6. enacts, that every British subject desiring admission into the Russia Company shall be admitted on paying 5*l.*; and every individual admitted into the Company conducts his business entirely as a private adventurer, or as he would do were the Company abolished.

Table of Duties payable to the Russia Company.

		s.	d.
Aniseed	the cwt.	0	5
Ashes, pearl and pot	the ton	0	9
Books, bound	the cwt.	0	3
unbound	the cwt.	0	2
Bristles	the dozen lbs.	0	0 1-4
Castoreum	the lb.	0	1
Caviare	the cwt.	0	2
Cordage	the cwt.	0	3
Down	the 100 lbs.	0	4
Feathers, bed	the cwt.	0	4
Flax	the ton	0	9
Hair, cow or ox	the cwt.	0	2
Hemp	the ton	0	7
Hides, of cows or horses, undressed	each	0	0 1-2
red or Muscovy	each	0	1
Iron	the ton	0	5
Isinglass	the cwt.	0	4
Linen drillings	the 120 ells	0	1 1-2
narrow or diaper	the 120 ells	0	3
22 1-2 to 31 1-2	the 120 ells	0	3
31 1-2 to 45	the 120 ells	0	4
45 and upwards	the 120 ells	0	6
sail cloth	the 120 ells	0	3
Linseed	the quarter	0	2
Mats	the hundred	0	2
Oats	the quarter	0	1
Pitch	the last	0	2
Rhubarb	the lb.	0	1 1-2
Rosin	the cwt.	0	1 1-2
Saltpetre	the cwt.	0	1 1-2
Seeds, garden	the 100 lbs.	0	3
Skins and furs, viz.—			
Armins or ermines	the zimmer of 40 skins	0	2
Bear	each	0	2
Calabar	the zimmer	0	2
Calf	the hundred	0	3
Fox	the hundred	0	4 1-2
Hare	the 100 dozen	0	2
Sables	the zimmer	1	6
Swan	each	0	1
Wolf	each	0	1 1-2
Tallow	the ton	0	9
Tongues	the hundred	0	2
Tow	the ton	0	6
Wax, beeswax	the cwt.	0	2
Wheat	the quarter	0	1
Wood, viz.—			
Balks above 6 inches sq.	the 120	0	4
under do.	the 120	0	3
Barrel boards	the 120	0	1
Battens	the 120	0	1 1-2
Capravens	the 120	0	3
Clap boards	the 120	0	1
Deals under 20 feet long	the 120	0	4
above do.	the 120	0	9
Fire wood	the fathom	0	1
Fir timber	the load	0	1
Handspikes	the 120	0	1 1-2
Lathwood	the fathom	0	1 1-2
Masts, great	each	0	2
all others	each	0	1
Oak boards	the 120	0	5
plank	the load	0	3
Timber	the load	0	2
Oars	the 120	0	4 1-2
Paling boards	the 120	0	1
Spars	the 120	0	2
Staves	the 120	0	1
Tar	the last	0	2
Wainscot logs	the load	0	2

All goods not enumerated, pay 1-8th per cent. ad valorem on the declaration of the importer.

RUSSIA LEATHER (Fr. *Cuir de Russie*; Ger. *Juften*; It. *Cuojo di Russia*; Pol. *Jachta*; Russ. *Juft, Youft*; Sp. *Moscovia*), the tanned hides of oxen and other kine, denominated by the Russians *youfts*, or *juffs*,—a designation said to be derived from their being

generally manufactured in pairs. The business of tanning is carried on in most towns of the empire, but principally at Moscow and Petersburgh. Russia leather is soft, has a strongly prominent grain, a great deal of lustre, and a powerful and peculiar odour. It is principally either red or black: the former is the best, and is largely used in this and other countries in bookbinding; for which purpose it is superior to every other material. The black is, however, in very extensive demand in Russia; large quantities being made up into boots and shoes. The process followed by the Russians in the preparation of this valuable commodity has been frequently described; but notwithstanding this circumstance, and the fact that foreigners have repeatedly engaged in the business in Russia, with the intention of making themselves masters of its details, and undertaking it at home, the efforts made to introduce the manufacture into other countries have hitherto entirely failed. One of the best tests of genuine Russia leather is its throwing out a strong odour of burnt hide upon being rubbed a little.—(*Ricard, Traité Général du Commerce*, tome i. p. 275. ed. 1781.)

We borrow from Mr. Borrisow's work on the *Commerce of Petersburgh* the following details with respect to this article:—Russia leather forms one of the principal export commodities of Petersburgh. Yet since the ports of the Black sea have been opened, the exports of leather from this port have considerably decreased; Italy, the principal consumer, supplying its wants from Odessa and Taganrog, more easily, cheaply, and expeditiously than from Petersburgh. The chief exportation from the latter is to Prussia, Germany, and England. Frankfort on the Maine and Leipzic are of great importance as respects the trade in Russia leather, on account of the fairs held in them.

Juffs are be er bought on contract, but always on the spot at cash prices. It nevertheless often happens that agents, in order to secure a lot of juffs, pay a certain sum in advance, and settle for the amount at the first market prices; no prices being fixed in the months of January, February, March, and sometimes even April.

Juffs are assorted or *bracked* when received, according to their different qualities, into *Gave, Resval, Kolo* and *Domashna*. The three first sorts are again divided into *heavy* and *light Gave, heavy* and *light Resval, &c.* Domashna is the worst, and consequently the cheapest sort. It often happens that juffs are bought unassorted, and then the prices are regulated according as the quantity of Domashna contained in the lot is greater or less. Persons well acquainted with the nature of Russia leather prefer purchasing it in this state.

Juffs are sold by the pood, which consists, as it is commonly expressed, of 4, 4½, 4¼, 5, 5½, and 5¾ hides. By this is understood, that so many hides make a pood, calculated upon the whole lot; and it is to be observed that the lightest juffs are esteemed the best in quality. Heavy juffs, or those of 4 and 4½ hides, are shipped for Italy: the Germans, on the contrary, prefer the lighter sort.

Juffs are packed in rolls, each containing 10 hides; and from 10 to 15 of these rolls are packed together in a bundle, which is well secured by thick matting. There are red, white, and black juffs; but the red are most in demand. Their goodness is determined by their being of a high red colour, of equal size, and unmixed with small hides: they must also be free from holes, well stretched, and equally thin. In a well finished lot, no thick head or feet parts should be found. If spots resembling flowers are seen on the red hides, it is an additional sign of their good quality; and they are then called *blomed juffs*. The inside should be clean, soft, and white, and, when taken in the hand, should feel elastic. The best connoisseurs of Russia leather can nearly determine the quality by the smell alone.

Great attention must be paid, in shipping juffs, to secure them from being wetted, as damp air alone is sufficient to injure them.

Sixty rolls of juffs make a last; 88 poods nett weight, when shipped for Italy, make a last; and 44 poods a ton in England.

The exports of juffs from Russia, in 1831, were 463 bales, 261,240 skins, and 80,000 poods. Their aggregate value was 3,464,209 roubles.

RYE (Ger. *Rogken, Rocken*; Du. *Rog, Rogge*; Fr. *Seigle*; It. *Segale, Segala*; Sp. *Centeno*; Russ. *Rosch, Sel, Jar*; Lat. *Secale*), according to some, is a native of Crete; but it is very doubtful if it be found wild in any country. It has been cultivated from time immemorial, and is considered as coming nearer in its properties to wheat than any other grain. It is more common than wheat in many parts of the Continent; being a more certain crop, and requiring less culture and manure. It is the bread corn of Germany and Russia. In Britain it is now very little grown; being no longer a bread corn; and, therefore, of less value to the farmer than barley, oats, or peas.—(*Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture.*)

For the regulations as to the importation and exportation of rye, see CORN LAWS AND CORN TRADE.

S.

SABLE (Ger. *Zobel*; Fr. *Zibelline*; It. *Zibellino*; Rus. *Sokol*), an animal of the weasel tribe, found in the northern parts of Asiatic Russia and America, hunted for the sake of its fur. Its colour is generally of a deep glossy brown, and sometimes of a fine glossy black, which is most esteemed. Sable skins have sometimes, though very rarely, been found yellow, and white. The finer sorts of the fur of sables are very scarce and dear.—(See FUR TRADE.)

SADDLES (Fr. *Selles*; Ger. *Sattel*; It. *Selle*; Rus. *Sädla*; Sp. *Sellas*), seats adapted to the horse's back, for the convenience of the rider. Those made in England are reckoned the best. Sherborne and Lynn are particularly remarkable for this manu-

facture. The hogskins, which, when tanned, are used for the seat of the saddle, ar mostly imported from Russia.

SAFFLOWER, or BASTARD SAFFRON (Ger. *Saffior*; Du. *Saffloer, Bastert Saffran*; Fr. *Cartame, Saffran batard*; It. *Zaffrone*; Sp. *Alazor, Azafran bastardo* Rus. *Polerroi, Prostoi schafran*), the flower of an annual plant (*Carthamus tinctorius* Lin.) growing in India, Egypt, America, and some of the warmer parts of Europe. It is not easily distinguished from saffron by the eye, but it has nothing of its smell or taste.

The flowers, which are sometimes sold under the name of *saffranon*, are the only parts employed in dyeing. They yield two sorts of colouring matter: one soluble in water, and producing a yellow of but little beauty; the other is *resinous*, and best dissolved by the fixed alkalies: it is this last which alone renders safflower valuable in dyeing; as it affords a red colour exceeding in delicacy and beauty as it does in costliness, any which can be obtained even from cochineal, though much inferior to the latter in durability. The colour of safflower will not bear the action of soap, nor even that of the sea and air for a long time; and being very costly, it is principally employed for imitating upon silk the fine scarlet (*ponceau* of the French) and rose colours dyed with cochineal upon woollen cloth.

The fine rose colour of safflower, extracted by crystallised soda, precipitated by citric acid, then slowly dried, and ground with the purest talc, produces the beautiful *rouge* known by the name of *rouge végétale*.

Safflower should be chosen in flakes of a bright pink colour, and of a smell somewhat resembling tobacco. That which is in powder, dark coloured, or oily, ought to be rejected.—(*Hasselquist's Voyages*, Eng. ed. p. 253; *Bancroft's Permanent Colours*, vol. i. pp. 286—289; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

Of 2,772 cwt. of safflower imported in 1831, 2,426 came from the East Indies; but we occasionally import considerable quantities from the United States and Egypt. The price of safflower in bond varies from 6*l.* to 9*l.* 10*s.* a cwt.

Notwithstanding the limited use of safflower, its recent history may be quoted in illustration of the beneficial effects of moderate duties. At an average of the 3 years ending with 1823, when the duty was 8*s.* 9*d.* a cwt., the entries for home consumption were at the rate of 1,997 cwt. a year. In 1825 the duty was reduced to 5*s.*, and in 1826 to 2*s.* 6*d.* a cwt.; and at an average of the 3 years ending with 1832, the entries for home consumption were 2,416 cwt. a year. The duty has since been reduced to 1*s.* a cwt.

SAFFRON (Ger. *Saffran*; Du. *Safran*; It. *Zafferano*; Sp. *Saffron*; Fr. *Azafran*; Rus. *Schafran*), a sort of cake prepared from the stigmas, with a proportion of the style, of a perennial bulbous plant (*Crocus sativus* Lin.) cultivated to a small extent in Cambridgeshire. It is also imported from Sicily, France, and Spain; but the English, as being fresher, more genuine, and better cured, is always preferred. When good, saffron has a sweetish, penetrating, diffusive odour; a warm, pungent, bitterish taste; and a rich, deep orange red colour. It should be chosen fresh, in close, tough, compact cakes, moderately moist, and possessing in an obvious degree all the above mentioned qualities. The not staining the fingers, the making them oily, and its being of a whitish, yellow or blackish colour, indicate that it is bad, or too old. Saffron is used in medicine, and in the arts; but in this country the consumption seems to be diminishing. It is employed to colour butter and cheese, and also by painters and dyers.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture.*)

SAGAPENUM (Arab. *Sugbenuj*), a concrete gum-resin, the produce of an unknown Persian plant. It is imported from Alexandria, Smyrna, &c. It has an odour of garlic; and a hot, acrid, bitterish taste. It is in agglutinated drops or masses, of an olive or brownish yellow colour, slightly translucent, and breaking with a horny fracture. It softens and is tenacious between the fingers, melts at a low heat, and burns with a crackling noise and white flame, giving out abundance of smoke, and leaving behind a light spongy charcoal. It is used only in medicine.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

SAGO (Malay, *Sagu*; Jav. *Sagu*), a species of meal, the produce of a palm (*Metroxylon Sagu*) indigenous to and abundant in such of the Eastern islands as produce spices, where it supplies a principal part of the farinaceous food of the inhabitants.

The tree, when at maturity, is about 30 feet high, and from 18 to 22 inches in diameter. Before the formation of the fruit, the stem consists of an external wall about 2 inches thick, the whole interior being filled up with a sort of spongy medullary matter. When the tree attains to maturity, and the fruit is formed, the stem is quite hollow. Being cut down at a proper period, the medullary part is extracted from the trunk, and reduced to a powder like sawdust. The filaments are next separated by washing. The meal is then laid to dry; and being made into cakes and baked, is eaten by the islanders. For exportation, the finest sago meal is mixed with water, and the paste rubbed into small grains of the size and form of coriander seeds. This is the species principally brought to England, for which market it should be chosen of a reddish hue, and readily dissolving in hot water into a fine jelly. Within these few years, however, a process has been invented by the Chinese for refining sago, so as to give it a fine pearly lustre; and the sago so cured is in the highest estimation in all the European markets. It is a light, wholesome, nutritious food. It is sent from the islands where it is grown to Singapore, where it is granulated and bleached by the Chinese. The export trade to Europe and India is now principally confined to that settlement.—(*Ainslie's Mat. Indica*; *Crawfurd's East. Archip.* vol. i. pp. 383—393., vol. iii. p. 348.; *Bell's Review of the Commerce of Bengal, &c.*)

The consumption of sago has been about trebled during the last dozen years; having amounted to 1,320 cwt. a year at an average of the 3 years ending with 1822, and to 3,859 cwt. a year at an average of the 3 years ending with 1833. This large increase is wholly ascribable to the reduction in the interest of the oppressive duties by which the article was formerly loaded.—(*Papers published by the Board of Trade.*) The price of common sago in bond varies from 12*s.* to 1*l.*; while pearl sago fetches from 15*s.* to 1*l.* 15*s.* a cwt.; but the price is liable to great fluctuation.

SAIL, a coarse linen or canvass sheet attached to the masts and yards of ships, the blades of windmills, &c., to intercept the wind and occasion their movement.

Foreign sails, when imported by, and fit and necessary for, and *in the actual use* of any British ship, are exempted from duty; but when otherwise disposed of, they pay a duty of 20 per cent. *ad valorem*. —9 Geo. 4. c. 76. § 12.)

Sails and cordage of British manufacture, exported from Great Britain to the colonies, and afterwards imported into the United Kingdom, are in all cases, other than those in which they are imported by bill *of stores*, to be deemed foreign; and such sails and cordage, although not liable to duty so long as the vessel continues to belong to the colony, become subject to the duties in question as soon as the vessel becomes the property of persons residing in this country.—(*Treasury Order*, 29th of Jan., 1833.)

SALEP, a species of powder prepared from the dried roots of a plant of the orchis kind (*Orchis mascula* Lin.). That which is imported from India is in white oval pieces, hard, clear, and pellucid, without smell, and tasting like tragacanth. As an article of diet, it is said to be light and nutritious. The plant thrives in England, but it is not cultivated to any extent; and very little is imported.—*Ainslie's Mat. Indica*; *Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

SALMON (Ger. *Lachs*, *Salm*; Fr. *Saumon*; It. *Sermone*, *Salamone*; Sp. *Salmon*; Rus. *Lemga*). This capital fish is too well known to require any description. It is found only in northern seas, being unknown in the Mediterranean and other warm regions. In this country it is an article of much value and importance. It is exceedingly abundant in Japan and Kamtschatka.

"Salmon fisheries," Marshall observes, "are copious and constant sources of human food; they rank next to agriculture. They have, indeed, one advantage over every other internal produce,—their increase does not lessen other articles of human subsistence. The salmon does not prey on the produce of the soil, nor does it owe its size and nutritive qualities to the destruction of its compatriot tribes. It leaves its native river at an early state of growth; and going, even naturalists know not where, returns of ample size, and rich in human nourishment; exposing itself in the narrowest streams, as if nature intended it as a special boon to *man*. In every stage of savageness and civilization, the salmon must have been considered as a valuable benefaction to this country."

Being rarely caught, except in estuaries or rivers, the salmon may be considered in a great degree as private property. The London market, where the consumption is immense, is principally supplied from the Scotch rivers. The Tweed fishery is the first in point of magnitude of any in the kingdom; the take is sometimes quite astonishing, several hundreds having been frequently taken by a single sweep of the net! Salmon are despatched in fast sailing vessels from the Spey, the Tay, the Tweed, and other Scotch rivers, for London, packed in ice, by which means they are preserved quite fresh. When the season is at its height, and the catch greater than can be taken off fresh, it is salted, pickled, or dried for winter consumption at home, and for foreign markets. Formerly, such part of the Scotch salmon as was not consumed at home, was pickled and kitted after being boiled, and was in this state sent up to London under the name of Newcastle salmon; but the present method of disposing of the fish has so raised its value, as to have nearly deprived all but the richer inhabitants in the environs of the fishery of the use of salmon. Within the memory of many now living, salted salmon formed a material article of household economy in all the farm-houses in the vale of the Tweed; insomuch, that in-door servants used to stipulate that they should not be obliged to take more than two weekly meals of salmon. Its ordinary price was then 2*s.* a stone of 19 lbs.; but it is now never below 12*s.*, often 24*s.*, and sometimes 42*s.* a stone. This rise in the price of the fish has produced a corresponding rise in the value of the salmon fisheries, some of which yield very large rents. The total value of the salmon caught in the Scotch rivers has been estimated at 150,000*l.* a year. There are considerable fisheries in some of the Irish and English rivers; but inferior to those of Scotland.—(*London's Ency. of Agriculture*; *General Report of Scotland*, vol. iii. p. 327.)

Decrease of the Supply of Salmon, Poaching, &c.—The decrease of salmon in the English and Scotch rivers, particularly of late years, is a fact as to which there can be no manner of doubt. Much unsatisfactory discussion has taken place as to its causes, which are, probably, of a very diversified character. A good deal has been ascribed to the increase of water machinery on the banks of the different rivers; but we hardly think that this could have much influence, except, perhaps, in the case of the smaller class of rivers. *Weirs*, or salmon traps, have also been much objected to; though, as we have been assured, with still less reason. On the whole, we are inclined to think that the falling off in the supply of this valuable fish is principally to be ascribed to the temptation to over-fish the rivers, caused by the extraordinary rise in the price of salmon; to the prevalence of poaching; and, more than all, to the too limited duration of the *close time*. In 1828, after a great deal of discussion and inquiry, an act was passed (9 Geo. 4. c. 39.), which has done a good deal to remedy these defects—in so far, at least, as respects the Scotch fisheries. The rivers are to be shut from the 14th of September to the 1st of February; and every person catching or attempting to catch fish during that period is to forfeit not less than 1*l.* and not more than 10*l.* for every offence, besides the fish, if he have caught any, and such boats, nets, or other implements, as he may have made use of. Pecuniary penalties are also inflicted upon poachers and trespassers; and provision is made for the watching of the rivers. We understand that this act has had a very good effect; though it is believed that it would be better were the *close time* extended from the 1st of September to the middle of February.

It is enacted by stat. 1 Geo. 1. st. 2. c. 18, that no salmon shall be sent to any fishmonger or fish-seller in England, of less than 6 lbs. weight, under a penalty of 5*l.* The 58 Geo. 3. c. 43. authorises the justices at quarter sessions to appoint conservators of rivers, and to fix the beginning and termination of the *close time*. The penalty upon poaching and taking fish in *close time* is by the same act fixed at not more than 10*l.* and not less than 5*l.*, with forfeiture of fish, boats, nets, &c.

SALONICA, a large city and sea-port of European Turkey, at the north-east extremity of the gulf of the same name, in lat. 40° 38′ 47″ N., lon. 22° 57′ 13″ E. Population estimated at 70,000. There is no port at Salonica, but there is excellent

anchorage in the roads opposite to the town. The access to them is by no means difficu Pilots, however, are, for the most part, employed; and of these, some are always on t look-out. During that period of the late war when the anti-commercial system of N poleon was at its height, Salonica became a great *depôt* for British goods; whence th were conveyed to Germany, Russia, and other parts of Europe. At all times, howeve Salonica has a considerable trade. The exports principally consist of wheat, barley, a Indian corn, timber, raw cotton, wool, raw silk, wax, and tobacco. The average e portation of cotton is said to be about 100,000 bales; of tobacco about 30,000 bale each bale containing about 275 lbs. The export of wool is said to amount to abo 1,000,000 lbs. The imports are sugar, coffee, dye woods, indigo, muslins, printed calico iron, lead, tin, watches, &c.

Arrivals.—In 1831, there arrived at Salonica 535 vessels, of the burden of 31,205 tons.

Money, Weights, and Measures.—Accounts are kept in piastres of 40 paras, or 120 aspers. The coi are those of Constantinople; which see.

The weights and measures are the same as those of Smyrna, except that the kisloc, killow, or co measure of Salonica, = 3·78 kisloc of Smyrna.

SALT (Ger. *Salz*; Du. *Zout*; Fr. *Sel*; It. *Sale*; Sp. *Sal*; Rus. *Sol*; Lat. *Sa* Arab. *Meth*; Chin. *Yen*; Hind. *Nimmuck*; Per. *Nun*), the *chloride of sodium* of m dern chemists, has been known and in common use as a seasoner and preserver of fo from the earliest ages. Immense masses of it are found in this and many other countrie which require only to be dug out and reduced to powder. In that state it is call rock-salt. The water of the ocean also contains a great deal of salt; to which, indee it owes its taste, and the power which it possesses of resisting freezing till cooled dow to 28·5°. When this water is sufficiently evaporated, the salt precipitates in crysta This is the common process by which it is obtained in many countries. There a various processes by which it may be obtained quite pure. Common salt usually cry tallises in cubes. Its taste is universally known, and is what is strictly denomina *salt*. Its specific gravity is 2·125. It is soluble in 2·82 times its weight of cold wat and in 2·76 times its weight of boiling water.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

Besides its vast utility in seasoning food, and preserving meat both for domestic co sumption and during the longest voyages, and in furnishing muriatic acid and sod salt forms a glaze for coarse pottery, by being thrown into the oven where it is baked it improves the whiteness and clearness of glass; it gives hardness to soap; in melti metals, it preserves their surface from calcination, by defending them from the air, an is employed with advantage in some assays; it is used as a mordant, and for improvi certain colours; and enters more or less into many other processes of the arts. Man contradictory statements have been made as to the use of salt as a manure. Probabl it may be advantageous in some situations, and not in others.

Salt Mines, Springs, &c.—The principal salt mines are at Wielitska in Poland, Catalonia in Spa Altemonte in Calabria, Loowur in Hungary, in many places in Asia and Africa, and in Cheshire this country. The mines at Wielitska are upon a very large scale; but the statements that have fr quently been published of their containing villages, inhabited by colonies of miners who never saw light, are altogether without foundation. These mines have been wrought for more than 600 years.— (*Coxe's Travels in the North of Europe*, vol. i. p. 149. 8vo. ed.)

The salt mines in the neighbourhood of Northwich in Cheshire are very extensive. They have be wrought since 1670; and the quantity of salt obtained from them is greater, probably, than is obtain from any other salt mines in the world. In its solid form, when dug from the mine, Cheshire salt i not sufficiently pure for use. To purify it, it is dissolved in sea water, from which it is afterwar separated by evaporation and crystallisation. The greater part of this salt is exported.

Salt springs are met with in several countries. Those in Cheshire and Worcestershire furnish large proportion of the salt made use of in Great Britain. The brine, being pumped up from ver deep wells, is evaporated in wrought iron pans from 20 to 30 feet square and 10 or 12 inches deep placed over a furnace.

Most of the salt used in Scotland previously to the repeal of the duty, was obtained by the evap ration of sea water nearly in the way now mentioned; but several of the Scotch salt works hav since been relinquished.

In warm countries, salt is obtained by the evaporation of sea water by the heat of the sun; and th crystals of salt made in this way are more perfect, and purer, from the greater slowness of the pro cess. French salt is manufactured in this mode, and it has always been in considerable demand i this and other countries; but the principal imports of foreign salt into Great Britain at present ar from Portugal. They amount, at an average, to from 300,000 to 350,000 bushels a year.

Consumption of Salt.—The consumption of salt in this country is immense. Necker estimated th consumption in those provinces of France which had purchased an exemption from the *gabelle* (*Pay francs rédimés*) at about 19½ lbs. (Eng.) for each individual.—(*Administration des Finances*, tome ii. p. 12.) From all that we have been able to learn on the subject, we believe that the consumption of the people of this country may be estimated a little higher, or at 22 lbs.; the difference in our food and habits, as compared with the French, fully accounting for this increased allowance. On this supposition, and taking the population at 16,500,000, the entire consumption will amount to 363,000,000 lbs., or 161,000 tons.

Exclusive of this immense home consumption, we annually export about 10,000,000 bushels, which, at 56 lbs. a bushel, are equivalent to 250,000 tons. The Americans are the largest consumers of Britis salt; the exports to the United States in 1831 having amounted to 3,130,250 bushels. During the same year we exported to the Netherlands, 1,931,601 bushels; to the British North American colonies, 1,559,630 do.; to Russia, 1,191,896 do.; to Prussia, 624,190 do., &c.

The cheapness of this important necessary of life is not less remarkable than its diffusion. Its present cost may be estimated, at a medium, at from 1*l.* to 16*s.* a ton.

Duties on Salt.—In ancient Rome, salt was subjected to a duty (*vectigal salinarum*; see Burm

Dissertatio de Vectigalibus Pop. Rom. c. 6.); and it has been heavily taxed in most modern states. The *gabelle*, or code of salt laws, formerly established in France, was most oppressive. From 4,000 to 5,000 persons are calculated to have been sent annually to prison and the galleys for offences connected with these laws, the severity of which had no inconsiderable share in bringing about the Revolution.—(*Young's Travels in France*, vol. i. p. 594.) In this country, duties upon salt were imposed in the reign of William III. In 1798, they amounted to 3*s.* a bushel; but were subsequently increased to 15*s.* a bushel, or about *forty times* the cost of the salt! So exorbitant a duty was productive of the worst effects; and occasioned, by its magnitude, and the regulations for allowing salt, duty free, to the fisheries, a vast deal of smuggling. The opinion of the public and of the House of Commons having been strongly pronounced against the tax, it was finally repealed in 1823.

That the repeal of so exorbitant a duty has been productive of great advantage, no one can doubt; but seeing that a large revenue must be raised, we question whether government acted wisely in totally relinquishing the tax. Had the duty been reduced to 2*s.* or 2*s.* 6*d.* a bushel, and no duty free salt allowed for the fisheries, but a drawback given on the fish exported, a revenue of 1,000,000*l.* a year might have been derived from this source with but little injury. It was not the nature of the salt tax, but the absurd extent to which it had been carried, that rendered it justly odious. When at the highest, it produced about 1,500,000*l.* a year.

[For the quantity and value of the salt which is annually imported into the United States see article IMPORTS AND EXPORTS. A great quantity of salt is, however, produced in the region beyond the Alleghanies, and at Salina and elsewhere in the state of New York. The following extract from a Report made to the legislature of this state, in January, 1839, exhibits the condition of its salt-works.

Some new manufactories have been erected, and a few manufacturers have enlarged their cisterns. The legislature appropriated in 1838 $6,000 for the purpose of sinking a shaft or well 600 feet in depth, in the village of Salina, and a well has been sunk to the depth of 550 feet, which will cost about $4,000, including $500 for a set of drill poles.

From some cause unknown, the brine obtained at one of the wells in the village of Geddes, during the present season, has been from three to seven per cent. weaker than that usual in other villages.

The principal well is now 120 feet deep and 3½ inches in diameter; it is proposed to increase the depth to 160 or 180 feet, and the diameter to 6½ inches, and to tube it so as to include the surface water—to cost about $450.

A well has been opened in Salina, and one in Syracuse. That at Salina was sunk 100 feet, and brine of strong quality was found, but so limited in quantity as to be useless—it has been abandoned. The well at Syracuse is 150 feet deep, and brine of good quality is obtained.

The quantity of salt manufactured in 1838 exceeds that of 1837 by 413,745 bushels; and of 1836 by 868,175 bushels. The nett revenue of 1838 amounts to $23,866·88 more than in 1837, and is $35,366·99 more than in 1836.

The annual increase since 1826, with the exception of 1836 and 1837, appears to be about equal to a ratio doubling the quantity in nine years, and trebling in twelve. At the same rate for the next twelve years the quantity would be little less than eight millions of bushels, yielding a revenue, at six cents per bushel, of about half a million of dollars.

Statement of the Revenue accruing from the Onondaga Salt Springs, from the year 1817 to 1825.

The nett revenue from the duties on salt, as appears by the books in the Comptroller's office, was

In 1818	D86,536 62
1819	62,569 10
1820	67,703 12
1821	57,548 00
1822*	58,834 74
1823	75,807 89
1824	80,553 99

A table showing the amount of Salt inspected annually from 1826 to 1838, and the annual increase of the same.

1825	827,508	*Increase.*
1827	983,410	155,902
1828	1,160,888	177,478
1829	1,291,280	130,392
1830	1,435,448	144,168
1831	1,514,037	78,591
1832	1,652,985	138,948
1833	1,838,646	185,661
1834	1,943,242	104,606
1835	2,329,907	386,615
1836	1,912,858	
1837	2,161,297	248,429
1838	2,575,039	413,745

Salt inspected in 1838.

	Bushels. lbs.
Salina	1,259,210·08
Syracuse	553,549·38
Liverpool	540,147·49
Geddes	222,125·14
Total	2,575,032·59—56lbs.

Number of manufactories in the town of Salina,

	January 1, 1839	144
Do.	pans and kettles	4,478
Do.	superficial feet of vats	6,948
Do.	gallons in kettles	344,437

Coarse Salt Companies.

	Superficial feet of Vats.
Onondaga Salt Company	618,000
Syracuse do.	66?,488
Henry Gifford do.	119,808
S. C. Brewster do at Geddes	67,198
	1,473,494

Am. Ed.]

SALTPETRE, OR NITRATE OF POTASH (Ger. *Salpeter*; Fr. *Nitre, Salpêtre*; It. *Nitro, Salnitro*; Sp. *Nitro, Salitre*; Rus. *Senitra*; Lat. *Nitrum*; Arab. *Ubkir*; Hind. *Shorah*), a salt well known in commerce, and of very great importance. It may be regarded both as a natural and an artificial production; being found on the surface of the soil in many parts of India, Egypt, Italy, &c.; but in these and other places all that is known in commerce is obtained by an artificial process, or by lixiviating earth that has been formed into *nitre* beds. The saltpetre consumed in England is brought from Bengal in an impure state, but crystallised, in bags, each containing 164 lbs. Saltpetre forms the principal ingredient in the manufacture of gunpowder; and is used in various arts. It is also of great utility in the commerce of India, from its furnishing a large amount of dead weight for the shipping engaged in it. Saltpetre possesses considerable antiseptic power. That which is of the best quality and well refined, is in long transparent crystals; its taste is sharp, bitterish, and cooling; it flames much when thrown upon burning coals; it is very brittle; its specific gravity is 1·933. It is not altered by exposure to the air.

Beckmann contends, in a long and elaborate dissertation (*Hist. of Invent.* vol. iv. pp. 525—586. Eng

* Act passed allowing a bounty of three cents per measured bushel on coarse salt sent to the Hudson, Lake Erie, or Canada.

ed.), that the ancients were unacquainted with saltpetre, and that their *nitrum* was really an alkaline salt. But, as saltpetre is produced naturally in considerable quantities in Egypt, it is difficult to suppose that they could be entirely ignorant of it; though it would appear that they had confounded it with other things. It has been known in the East from a very early period. Beckmann concurs in opinion with those who believe that gunpowder was invented in India, and brought by the Saracens from Africa to the Europeans; who improved its manufacture, and made it available for warlike purposes.—(Vol. iv. p. 571.)

The consumption of saltpetre during periods of war is very great. Its price is consequently liable to extreme fluctuation. In remarking on the varieties in the price of saltpetre, Mr. Tooke observes, "It reached its greatest height in 1795, viz., 170*s.* a cwt.; in 1796, it fell at one time to 45*s.* and rose again to 96*s.* It seems to have been affected considerably by the scale of hostilities on the Continent. But in consequence of the discoveries in chemistry, by which the French were enabled to dispense with a foreign supply, and by the increased importation from India to this country, by which we were enabled to supply the rest of the Continent at a reduced cost, the price declined permanently after 1796-9, when it had reached 145*s.*; and never after was so high as 100*s.*; except during the short interval of speculation in exports during the peace of 1814, and again upon the breaking out of the war terminated by the battle of Waterloo." The price of saltpetre in the London market varies at this moment (January, 1834) from 32*s.* to 40*s.* a cwt.

We are indebted for the following comprehensive statement of the importation, consumption, &c. of East Indian saltpetre to *Mr. Cook's State of the Commerce of Great Britain in* 1833.

Imports, Deliveries, Prices, and Stocks of East Indian Saltpetre during the 10 Years ending with 1833.

Years.	Imports.			Deliveries.			Average Price during the Year.	Stock.
	By the E. I. Company.	By the Private Trade.	Total.	For Export.	Quantity charged with Duty.	Total.		Close of the Year.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons	Tons.	Tons.	*L.* *s.* *d.*	Tons.
1824	1,570	6,170	7,740	2,650	6,780	9,430	1 1 0	12,320
1825	1,720	3,160	4,880	2,530	5,620	8,150	1 6 6	9,050
1826	1,700	4,800	6,500	2,920	6,100	8,720	1 1 10	8,830
1827	1,630	8,870	10,500	2,360	7,270	9,730	1 3 4	7,600
1828	2,100	8,140	10,240	2,450	8,590	12,040	1 4 1	5,570
1829	4,280	4,560	8,800	2,230	7,750	10,080	1 4 11	4,600
1830	2,270	4,960	7,230	750	7,150	7,900	1 15 0	3,530
1831	1,650	6,950	8,600	1,510	7,770	9,280	2 0 5	2,450
1832	2,720	10,160	12,880	1,510	9,570	11,280	1 14 1	3,850
1833	2,250	6,310	8,560	950	7,750	8,700	1 15 0	4,000
Average of 10 years.	2,205	6,413	8,722	2,096	7,445*	9,511		

Within the last 3 years, a new species of saltpetre, under the denomination of *nitrate of soda*, has been received from South America. The imports of it have increased from 70 tons in 1831, to 1,450 in 1833. Though not applicable to all the purposes for which East India saltpetre is used, it is preferred by vitriol makers, and by some other classes of manufacturers. The deliveries of this description for home consumption have been in 1831, 70 tons; in 1832, 690 do.; and in 1833, 1,210.—(Tooke, *in loc. cit.*)

SALVAGE, as the term is now understood, is an allowance or compensation made to those by whose exertions ships or goods have been saved from the dangers of the seas fire, pirates, or enemies.

The propriety and justice of making such an allowance must be obvious to every one. It was allowed by the laws of Rhodes, Oleron, and Wisby; and in this respect they have been followed by all modern maritime states. At common law, the party who has saved the goods of another from loss or any imminent peril has a *lien* upon them, and may retain them in his possession till payment of a reasonable salvage.

1. *Salvage upon Losses by Perils of the Sea.*—If the salvage be performed at sea, or within high or low water mark, the Court of Admiralty has jurisdiction over the subject, and will fix the sum to be paid, and adjust the proportions, and take care of the property pending the suit; or, if a sale be necessary, direct it to be made; and divide the proceeds between the salvors and the proprietors according to equity and reason. And in fixing the rate of salvage, the court usually has regard not only to the labour and peril incurred by the salvors, but also to the situation in which they may happen to stand in respect of the property saved, to the promptitude and alacrity manifested by them, and to the value of the ship and cargo, as well as the degree of danger from which they were rescued. Sometimes the court has allowed as large a proportion as *a half* of the property saved as salvage; and in others, not more than *a tenth*.

The crew of a ship are not entitled to salvage, or any unusual remuneration for the extraordinary efforts they may have made in saving her; it being their duty as well as interest to contribute their utmost upon such occasions, the whole of their possible service being pledged to the master and owners. Neither are passengers entitled to claim any thing for the *ordinary assistance* they may have been able to afford to a vessel in distress. But a passenger is not bound to remain on board a ship in the hour of danger, provided he can leave her; and if he perform any *extraordinary services*, he is entitled to a proportional recompence.

In the case of valuable property, and of numerous proprietors and salvors, the jurisdiction and proceedings of the Court of Admiralty are well adapted to further the purposes of justice. But, as the delay and expense necessarily incident to the proceedings of a court sitting at a distance from the subject will often be very burdensome upon the

* Including from 600 to 1,000 tons annually exported in a refined state.

parties, in cases where the property saved is not, perhaps, very considerable, the legislature has endeavoured to introduce a more expeditious and less expensive method of proceeding.

The first act for this purpose is the 12 Ann. stat. 2. c. 18. It appears from the preamble, that the infamous practices, once so common, of plundering ships driven on shore, and seizing whatever could be laid hold of as lawful property—(see WRECK),—had not been wholly abandoned; or that, if the property was restored to the owners, the demand for salvage was so exorbitant, that the inevitable ruin of the trader was the immediate consequence. To remedy those mischiefs in future, it was enacted, "that if a ship was in danger of being stranded, or being run ashore, the sheriffs, justices, mayors, constables, or officers of the customs, nearest the place of danger, should, upon application made to them, summon and call together as many men as should be thought necessary to the assistance, and for the preservation, of such ship in distress, and her cargo; and that if any ship, man-of-war, or merchantman, should be riding at anchor near the place of danger, the constables and officers of the customs might demand of the superior officers of such ship the assistance of her boats, and such hands as could be spared; and that, if the superior officer should refuse to grant such assistance, he should forfeit 100*l.*"

Then follows the section respecting salvage. It enacts, "that all persons employed in preserving ships or vessels in distress, or their cargoes, shall, within 30 days after the service is performed, be paid a *reasonable reward* for the same, by the commander, master, or other superior officer, mariners, or owners, of the ship or vessel so in distress, or by any merchant whose vessel or goods shall be so saved; and, in default thereof, the said ship or vessel so saved shall remain in the custody of the officers of customs until all charges are paid, and until the officers of the customs, and the master or other officers of the ship or vessel, and all others employed in the preservation of the ship, shall be *reasonably gratified* for their assistance and trouble, or good security given for that purpose: and if any disagreement shall take place between the persons whose ships or goods have been saved, and the officer of the customs, touching the monies deserved by any of the persons so employed, it shall be lawful for the commander of the ship or vessel so saved, or the owner of the goods, or the merchant interested therein, and also for the officer of the customs, or his deputy, to nominate 3 of the neighbouring justices of the peace, who shall thereupon adjust the *quantum* of the monies or gratuity to be paid to the several persons acting or being employed in the salvage of the said ship, vessel, or goods; and such adjustment shall be binding upon all parties, and shall be recoverable in an action at law; and in case it shall so happen that no person shall appear to make his claim to all or any of the goods that may be saved, that then the chief officer of the customs of the nearest port to the place where the said ship or vessel was so in distress shall apply to 3 of the nearest justices of the peace, who shall put him or some other responsible person in possession of the said goods, such justices taking an account in writing of the said goods, to be signed by the said officer of the customs; and if the said goods shall not be legally claimed within the space of 12 months next ensuing, by the rightful owner thereof, then public sale shall be made thereof; and, if perishable goods, forthwith to be sold, and, after all charges deducted, the residue of the monies arising from such sale, with a fair and just account of the whole, shall be transmitted to her Majesty's exchequer, there to remain for the benefit of the rightful owner, when appearing; who, upon affidavit, or other proof made of his or their right or property, thereto, to the satisfaction of one of the barons of the coif of the exchequer, shall, upon his order, receive the same out of the exchequer."

By a subsequent statute, 26 Geo. 2. c. 19, it is enacted, "that in case any person or persons, not employed by the master, mariners, or owners, or other person lawfully authorised, in the salvage of any vessel, or the cargo or provision thereof, shall, in the absence of the person so employed and authorised, save any such vessel, goods, or effects, and cause the same to be carried, for the benefit of the owners or proprietors, into port, or to any near adjoining Custom-house, or other place of safe custody, immediately giving notice thereof to some justice of the peace, magistrate, or Custom-house or excise officer, or shall discover to such magistrate or officer where any such goods or effects are wrongfully bought, sold, or concealed, then such person or persons shall be entitled to a *reasonable reward* for such services, to be paid by the masters or owners of such vessels or goods, and to be adjusted, in case of disagreement about the *quantum*, in like manner as the salvage is to be adjusted and paid by 12th Anne, or else as follows:—

"And be it further enacted, that, for the better ascertaining the salvage to be paid in pursuance of the present act and the act before-mentioned, and for the more effectually putting the said acts into execution, the justice of the peace, mayor, bailiff, collector of the customs, or chief constable, who shall be nearest to the place where any ship, goods, or effects shall be stranded or cast away, shall forthwith give public notice for a meeting to be held as soon as possible, of the sheriff or his deputy, the justices of the peace, mayors, or other chief magistrates of towns corporate, coroners, or commissioners of the land tax, or any 5 or more of them, who are hereby empowered and required to give aid in the execution of this and the said former act, and to employ proper persons for the saving ships in distress, and such ships, vessels, and effects, as shall be stranded or cast away; and also to examine persons upon oath, touching the same, or the salvage thereof, and to adjust the *quantum* of such salvage, and distribute the same among the persons concerned in such salvage, in case of disagreement among the parties or the said persons; and that every such magistrate, &c. attending and acting at such meeting, shall be paid 4*s.* a day for his expenses in such attendance, out of the goods and effects saved by their care or direction.

"Provided always, that if the charges and rewards for salvage directed to be paid by the former statute and by this act, shall not be fully paid, or sufficient security given for the same, within 40 days next after the said services performed, then it shall be lawful for the officer of the customs concerned in such salvage to borrow or raise so much money as shall be sufficient to satisfy and pay such charges and rewards, or any part thereof then remaining unpaid, or not secured as aforesaid, by or upon one or more bill or bills of sale, under his hand and seal of the ship or vessel, or cargo saved, or such part thereof as shall be sufficient, redeemable upon payment of the principal sum borrowed, and interest upon the same at the rate of 4*l. per cent. per annum.*"

An act of the 53 Geo. 3. c. 87., continued and extended by the 1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 76., contains some regulations supplying defects in former statutes. They enact, that goods of a perishable nature, or so much damaged that they cannot be kept, may, at the request of any person interested or concerned in the same, or in saving thereof, be sold with the consent of a justice, the money being deposited in the hands of the lord of the manor, and an account of the sale transmitted to the deputy vice-admiral. They also authorise the passage of horses, carts, carriages, &c. to the part of the sea coast where a vessel may be wrecked, over the adjoining lands, if there be no road leading as conveniently thereto, under penalty of 100*l.*, the damages to be settled by two justices in the event of the parties not agreeing.—(1 & 2 *Geo.* 4. §§ 27. 29, 30.)

It is ordered by the same statute, that no lord of the manor, or other person claiming to be entitled to wreck or goods, shall appropriate or dispose of the same until he shall have caused to be given in writing to the deputy vice-admiral of that part of the coast, or to his agents if they reside within 50 miles, if not, then to the corporation of the Trinity House, a report containing an accurate and particular description of the wreck or goods found, and of the place where and time when found, and of

any marks thereon, and of such other particulars as may better enable the owner to recover them, and also of the place where they are deposited, and may be found and examined by any person claiming any right to them, nor until the expiration of 1 whole year and a day after the expiration of such notice: the deputy vice-admiral, or his agent, is, within 48 hours of receiving such report, to transmit a copy thereof to the secretary of the corporation of the Trinity House, upon pain of forfeiting, for every neglect to transmit such account, 50*l.* to any person who shall sue for the same; and the secretary is to cause such account to be placed in some conspicuous situation for the inspection of all persons claiming to inspect and examine it.—(1 & 2 *Geo.* 4. c. 75. § 26.)

It is further ordered by the same statute, that pilots and others taking possession of anchors, cables, or other wrecked or left materials upon the coast, or within any harbour, river, or bay, shall send notice thereof, within *twenty-four* hours, to the nearest deputy vice-admiral, or his agent, delivering the articles at such place as may be appointed, under pain of being deemed receivers of stolen goods. The deputy vice-admiral, or his agent, may also seize *such articles as have not been reported to him*, and is required to keep and report them to the Trinity House as aforesaid; and if he seize them without previous information, he is to have 1-3d of the value; if he seize in pursuance of information, the third is to be divided between him and the informer. If the articles are not claimed within a year and a day, they are to be sold, and the money applied as directed by the act of Queen Anne (12 Ann. stat. 2. c. 18, previously quoted), the deputy vice-admiral, or his agent, and the person who may have given information, being in such cases entitled to the salvage allowed upon unclaimed property. And it is further enacted, that if any dispute shall arise between the salvors of any goods found, lodged, and reported as aforesaid, and the owners thereof, as to the salvage to be paid in respect of the same, it is to be determined by the decision of 3 justices; or if they differ, by their nominee, who is to be a person conversant with maritime affairs. Masters and others bound to foreign parts, finding or taking on board anchors, goods, &c., knowing them to be found, are to enter the same in the log book, with the place and time of finding, and to transmit a copy of such entry, by the first possible opportunity, to the Trinity House, and to deliver up the articles on their return home, which, if not claimed, are to be sold within a year and day, according to the aforementioned statute of Anne. Masters selling such articles incur a penalty of not less than 30*l.* and not more than 100*l.*

Pilots, boatmen, or other persons, conveying anchors and cables to foreign countries, and disposing of them there, are to be adjudged guilty of felony, and may be transported for 7 years.

The same statute authorises 3 justices, or their nominee, to decide upon all claims made by boatmen, pilots, and other persons, for services of any description (except pilotage) rendered by them to any ship or vessel, whether in distress or not.

Parties dissatisfied with the award of the justices or their nominee may appeal to the Court of Admiralty; but the justices are in such cases to deliver the goods to the proprietors, or their agent, on their giving good security for double their value. This act does not extend to Scotland.

None of the previously mentioned acts have any force within the *Cinque Ports*; but the Lord Warden is directed by stat. 1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 76. to appoint 3 or more substantial persons in each of these towns, who are authorised to decide upon all claims for services of any sort or description rendered to any vessel, or for saving or preserving, within the jurisdiction, any goods or merchandise wrecked, stranded, or cast away, or for bringing anchors or cables ashore, &c. No commissioner can act for any other place than that in which, or within a mile of which, he is resident. Either party may, within 8 days of the award, declare his intention of bringing the matter before some competent Court of Admiralty; selecting, as he may judge best, the Admiralty of England or that of the Cinque Ports. The provisions in this statute have been justly eulogised by Lord Tenterden, for the cheap and easy means they afford for settling such questions.

It is impossible, as Mr. Justice Park has observed (*Law of Insurance*, c. 8.), to suppose 2 instances of loss by shipwreck, or other peril of the sea, so similar to each other, that the trouble, danger, and expense of the salvers should be exactly equal; and it would, consequently, be contrary to the first principles of justice to award the same sum for all possible cases of salvage. There was, therefore, no other resource but to appoint competent persons to decide as to the allowance due in any case of salvage that might arise, after taking the various circumstances with respect to it into account.

2. *Salvage upon Recapture.*—It was the practice of our courts, previously to any regulations on the subject, to order restitution of ships or goods, if retaken before condemnation, to be made to the original owners, on payment of a *reasonable salvage* to the recaptors; but by stat. 43 Geo. 3. c. 160. it has been adjudged, that "if any ship or vessel taken as prize, or any goods therein, shall appear, in the Court of Admiralty, to have belonged to any of his Majesty's subjects, which were before taken by any of his Majesty's enemies, and at any time afterwards retaken by any of his Majesty's ships, or any privateer, or other ship or vessel under his Majesty's protection, such ships, vessels, and goods shall, in all cases (save as hereafter excepted), be adjudged to be restored, and shall be accordingly restored, to such former owner or owners, he or they paying for salvage, if retaken by any of *his Majesty's ships*, *one eighth* part of the true value thereof, to the flag officers, captains, &c., to be divided as the same act directs; and if retaken by any *privateer*, or other ship or vessel, *one sixth* part of the true value of such ships and goods, to be paid to the owners, officers, and seamen of such privateer or other vessel, without any deduction; and if retaken by the joint operation of one or more of his Majesty's ships, and one or more private ships of war, the judge of the Court of Admiralty, or other court having cognisance thereof, shall order such salvage, and in such proportions, to be paid to the captors by the owners, as he shall, under the circumstances of the case, deem fit and reasonable; but if such recaptured ship or vessel shall appear to have been set forth by the enemy as a ship or vessel of war, the said ship or vessel shall not be restored to the former owners, but shall in all cases, whether retaken by any of his Majesty's ships or any privateer, be adjudged lawful prize for the benefit of the captors."

This act is decidedly more favourable to the merchants than the old law, which adjudged that all ships recaptured after sentence of condemnation should be the property of the captors.

In the case of neutral ships captured by an enemy, and retaken by British men-of-war or privateers, the Courts of Admiralty have a discretionary power of allowing such salvage, and in such proportions, as, under the circumstances of each particular case, may appear just; but there is no positive law or binding regulation to which parties may appeal, for ascertaining the rate of such salvage. "The maritime law of England," says Lord Stowell, "having adopted a most liberal rule of restitution on salvage, with respect to the recaptured property of its own subjects, gives the benefit of that rule to its allies, till it appears that they act towards British property on a less liberal principle; *in such a case, it adopts their rule*, and treats them according to their own measure of justice."—(1 *Rob. Adm. Rep.* 50.)

Salvage is one of those charges which are usually provided against by insurance. When, however, the salvage is very high, and the object of the voyage in so far defeated, the insured is, by the laws of this and all other maritime nations, allowed to abandon, and to call upon the insurer as for a total loss.—(See ABANDONMENT.)

For further information with respect to salvage, see *Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 10.; *Park on Insurance*, c. 8.; and *Marshall on Insurance*, book i. c. 12. § 8.

[For information on the present subject interesting to the American reader, reference may be had to *Kent's Commentaries on American Law.—Am. Ed.*]

SAMPLE, a small quantity of a commodity exhibited at public or private sales, as a specimen. Sugars, wool, spirits, wine, coffee, and, indeed, most species of merchandise, are sold by sample. If an article be not, at an average, equal to the sample by which it is sold, the buyer may cancel the contract, and return the article to the seller.

Subjoined is a list of most articles that may be warehoused, and of the quantities that may be taken out as samples.—(*Customs Min.* Oct. 11, 1825.)

Alkali or barilla,	5 lbs. per pile 5 tons.
Aloes	2 oz. per package.
Argol	1-2 lb. do.
Arrow root	1 2 lb. do.
Balsam copaivi	2 oz. do.
Bark, Jesuit's,	1-4 lb. do.
in general,	
except Jesuit's	1-2 lb. do.
Brimstone, rough,	2 lbs. per pile.
in rolls	1 lb. per package.
Cassia	1-2 lb. do.
Cochineal	2 oz. do.
Cream of	1-4 lb. do.
Cubebs	2 oz. do.
Cudbear	2 oz. do.
Cummin seed	1-2 pint each cask.
Cutlery	2 oz. per bag.
Cuttlefish	2 oz. per package.
Cyanoba Indicum	1 oz. do.
Cyrus	4 oz. do.
Cream of tartar	1 lb. do.
Currants	1-2 lb. do.
Drugs of sorts not enumerated, or be-	
low	1 oz. do.
Dragon's blood	1 oz. do.
Feathers, bed	1-4 lb. per lot 6 bags.
Gall	1 lb. do.
Gamboge	1-2 lb. do.
Ginger	8 oz. do.
Gum lac, or Cochineal,	
Gum Arabic	1 lb. per package.
Senegal	1-2 lb. do.
tragacanth	2 oz. do.
other gums	4 oz. do.
Ivory	1-2 oz. do.
Jalap	1 oz. do.
Indigo	1-4 lb. do.
Any further	

quantity (not exceeding 1 2 4 lb.) to be charged with duty on delivery of the package.	
Isinglass	1-4 lb. per package.
Juice of lemons	1 2 pint do.
Lac dye	1 oz. do.
Lead, black	1 lb. do.
Lemon peel	1-2 lb. each entry.
Liquorice juice	1-4 lb. per package.
root	1-4 lb. do.
Madder, manufactured	1-4 lb. do.
root	1-4 lb. do.
Oil of almonds	1 oz. do.
aniseed	1 oz. do.
bay	1 oz. do.
juniper	1 oz. do.
olive	1-2 pint per cask.
palm	1-2 pint do.
rosemary	1 oz. per package.
spike	1 oz. do.
thyme	1 oz. do.
Orange peel	1 4 lb. do.
Orchella	2 oz. do.
Orrice root	1-4 lb. do.
Pepper	1 oz. per bag.
Pimento	2 oz. do.
Radix contrayervæ	1 oz. per package.
galanga	2 lb per pile.
Ipecacuanhæ	1 oz. per package.
senekæ	1 oz. do.
Raisins	1-2 lb. each mark.
Rhubarb	1 oz. per package.
Rice	1 2 lb. do.
Saffron	1-2 oz. do.
Sago	2 lbs. per pile.
Salep	1 oz. per package.

Sarsaparilla	1 oz. per package.
Saltpetre	1-2 lb. do.
Seed, aniseed	1 oz. do.
clover	2 oz. do.
caraway	2 oz. do.
lac	1 oz. do.
mustard	1 oz. do.
Senna	1 oz. do.
Shumac	1 lb. per lot 10 bags.
Silk, raw	2 oz. per package.
thrown	1 oz. do.
waste	2 oz. do.
Smalts	1 oz. do.
Spirits	1-2 pint per cask
Sugar, foreign	2 oz. per bag.
	4 oz. per box not exceeding 5 cwt.
	8 oz. per box or chest exceeding 5 cwt.
British plantation	1 1-2 lb. per hogshead.
	1 1-2 lb. per tierce.
	1-2 lb. per chest.
	12 oz. per barrel.
	1-2 lb. molasses per hhd. or cask.
Tallow	4 lbs. per lot 10 peks.
Tapioca	1 oz. per package.
Turmeric	2 lbs. per pile.
Valonia	3 lbs. per lot.
Wax, bees'	1-4 lb. per package.
Wine	1-2 pint.
Wool, cotton	4 oz. per package.
sheep or lambs'	1 lb. do.
Spanish	1 lb. do.
Yarn, mohair	1-2 lb. do.
cotton	1-2 lb. do.
Mother of pearl shells	7 lbs. per lot of 10 packages.
Vermicelli	1 oz. per package.

SANDAL WOOD, the wood of a tree (*Santalum album* Lin.) having somewhat of the appearance of a large myrtle. It is of a deep yellow colour, and yields an agreeable perfume. The tree, when cut down, is usually about 9 inches in diameter at the root, but sometimes considerably more. After being felled, it is barked, cut into billets, and buried in a dry place for about a couple of months, during which time the white ants eat off the outer wood, without touching the heart, which is the sandal. It is then taken up and sorted, according to the size of the billets. The deeper the colour, and the nearer the root, the higher is the perfume. Reject such pieces as are of a pale colour, small, decayed, or have white wood about them; and take especial care that it be not mixed with wood resembling sandal, but without its perfume.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

Sandal wood is extensively employed by the Hindoos as a perfume, in their funeral ceremonies. But the Chinese are its principal consumers. They manufacture it into fans, and small articles of furniture, and use it, when ground into powder, as a cosmetic. During the year ended the 31st of March, 1832, there were imported by British vessels into Canton, 6,338 piculs (395 tons) of sandal wood, valued at 74,471 dollars (see vol. I. p. 301.); and the imports in some years are more than twice this amount. The average importation into Calcutta is about 200 tons a year. It grows principally in Malabar, in the mountainous country at a little distance from the low sea coast; in Timor; and in the Fejee Islands in the South Sea. Calcutta is principally supplied from Malabar, while China derives the larger portion of her supplies from Timor and the other islands. It is seldom brought to Europe, except by individuals for their own use, or as presents for their friends.—(*Bell's External Com. of Bengal*, pp. 49. and 85.; *Crawfurd's Indian Archipelago*, vol. I. p. 519., vol. III. p. 421. &c.)

SANDARACH, a resinous substance, commonly met with in loose granules a little larger than a pea, of a whitish yellow colour, brittle, inflammable, of a resinous smell, and acrid aromatic taste. It exudes, it is said, in warm climates, from cracks and incisions in the common juniper bush. It is used as a varnish, dissolved in spirits of wine. (*Ainslie's Mat. Indica.*)

SANDWICH ISLANDS.—This secluded but interesting group of islands is situated in the midst of the Pacific Ocean, nearly under the tropic of Cancer, and in about the 160th degree of west longitude. There are, in all, 13 or 14 islands; but with the exception of Owyhee, where Cook was killed, the rest are but of inconsiderable size. The islanders are honourably distinguished among the Polynesian nations by the advances they have made in civilisation; and particularly by their progress in manufactures and commerce. But they are principally entitled to notice, in a work of this sort, from their being frequently visited by English and American ships engaged in the southern whale-fishery, or in the commerce of the Pacific.

The principal port is Honoroni, on the south side of the island of Woahoo, in lat. 21° 18′ 3″ N., long. 158° 1′ W. It has several good houses; with a considerable population, among which are from 150 to 200 English and Americans. The anchorage is good; and it is a very favourable place for refitting. In 1831 two ships, one of 180, and another of 190 tons, were hove-down, caulked, and coppered in five days. Water is good and plentiful; and fresh provisions may generally be had on very reasonable terms.

Recently, however, Mowee, on the island of that name, has been preferred by many as a place for re- fitting. In 1831, there belonged to the Sandwich Islands, 24 ships, of the burden of 2,530 tons: of these 10 ships, burden 765 tons, were the property of natives, and the remainder of foreigners established i the islands. The following table was drawn up by a gentleman long resident at Honororu:—

Account of the Number of Ships that touched at Woahoo, one of the Sandwich Islands, during th Eight Years ending with 1831, distinguishing between English and American, and between Wha and Merchant Ships.

Years.	English.						American.						Under other Foreign Flags.		Total.	
	Whalers.		Merchant.		Total.		Whalers.		Merchant.		Total.					
	Ships.	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Shs.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*
1824	15	5,798	2	500	17	6,298	50	15,688	16	3,163	66	18,851	5	1,330	88	26,479
1825	18	7,765	2	400	20	8,165	37	11,539	19	4,077	56	15,616	3	850	79	24,631
1826	11	4,854	2	410	13	5,264	67	21,892	21	3,996	88	25,888	6	1,112	107	32,264
1827	16	6,505	2	334	18	6,839	66	21,261	16	3,993	82	21,954	7	1,721	107	32,514
1828	26	9,772	5	391	31	10,863	90	31,188	28	5,841	118	37,029	8	2,313	155	50,105
1829	21	8,172	6	1,199	27	9,371	87	31,087	21	5,210	108	36,297	4	1,003	139	46,671
1830	16	6,982	10	1,693	26	8,675	77	26,960	23	4,072	100	30,932	3	515	129	40,122
1831	23	8,567	7	1,292	30	9,859	68	21,560	35	4,588	83	26,148	5	1,172	118	37,179

The decrease in the amount of American ships at Woahoo is accounted for by the fact of many them now touching in preference at Mowee.—(We have these details entirely from private sources.)

SAPAN WOOD is obtained from a species of the same tree that yields the Bra wood (*Cæsalpinia Sapan* Lin.). It is a middle-sized forest tree, indigenous to Sia Pegu, the Philippine Islands, &c. It has been employed for dyeing in the greater pa of Asia for many centuries. It found its way into Europe some time before the discover of America; but very little is now imported. Its colouring matter differs but little fro that of Brazil wood, but the best sapan wood does not yield more than half the quanti that may be obtained from an equal weight of Brazil wood, and the colour is not quite bright.—(*Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. p. 329.) Its price in the London market varies fro 8*l.* to 14*l.* a ton.

SAPPHIRE (Ger. *Sapphir*; Du. *Saffiersteen*; Fr. *Saphir*; It. *Zaffiro*; Sp. *Safir Safir*; Rus. *Jachant*; Lat. *Sapphirus*), a precious stone in very high estimation. Colou blue and red; also gray, white, green, and yellow. It occurs in blunt-edged pieces, roundish pebbles, and crystallised. Varies from transparent to translucent. Refracts doubl After diamond, it is the hardest substance in nature. The blue variety, or sapphire, harder than the ruby, or red variety. Brittle. Specific gravity 4 to 4·2.

It is found in Bohemia, Saxony, France, &c.; but the red sapphire, or Oriental ruby, is not found any considerable quantity anywhere except in Ava. Next to diamond, sapphire is the most valuab of the gems. The white and pale blue varieties, by exposure to heat, become snow white, and, whe cut, exhibit so high a degree of lustre, that they are used in place of diamond. The most highly prize varieties are the crimson and carmine red; these are the Oriental *ruby* of the jeweller; the next *sapphire*; and last, the yellow or Oriental *topaz*. The *asterias*, or star-stone, is a very beautiful va riety, in which the colour is generally of a reddish violet, and the form a rhomboid, with truncate apices, which exhibit an opalescent lustre.*—(See RUBY.)

Mr. Crawfurd gives the following details with respect to the sapphire and ruby mines of Ava:- "The precious stones ascertained to exist in the Burmese territory are chiefly those of the sapphi family, and the spinelle ruby. They are found at 2 places, not very distant from each other, calle Mogaut and Kyatpëan, about 5 days' journey from the capital, in an E. S. E. direction. From wh I could learn, the gems are not obtained by any regular mining operations, but by digging and washi the gravel in the beds of rivulets or small brooks. All the varieties of the sapphire, as well as th spinelle, are found together, and together with them large quantities of corundum. The varieti ascertained to exist, are the Oriental sapphire; the Oriental ruby, or red stone; the opalescent rai or cat's eye ruby; the star ruby; the green; the yellow and the white sapphires; and the Orient amethyst. The common sapphire is by far the most frequent, but, in comparison with the ruby, very little prized by the Burmese, in which they agree with other nations. I brought home with several of great size, the largest weighing no less than 3,630 grains, or above 907 carats. The spinel ruby (zebu-gaong) is not unfrequent in Ava, but is not much valued by the natives. I brought me to England a perfect specimen, both as to colour and freedom from flaws, weighing 22 carats. T sapphire and ruby mines are considered the property of the king: at least he lays claim to all stone that exceed in value a viss of silver, or 100 ticals. The miners, it appears, endeavour to evade th law by breaking the large stones into fragments. In the royal treasury, there are, notwithstandin many fine stones of both descriptions. The year before our visit, the king received from the mines ruby weighing 124 grains; and the year preceding that 8 good ones, but of smaller size. No stranger is permitted to visit the mines; even the Chinese and Mohammedans residing at Ava are carefully excluded."—(*Journal of an Embassy to the Court of Ava.*—p. 442.)

SARCOCOLLA, a subviscid, sweetish, and somewhat nauseous gum-resin. It brought from Arabia and Persia in small grains of a pale yellow colour; the whites as being the freshest, is preferred. It is but seldom imported.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*

SARDINES, or SARDINIAS (Ger. *Sardellen*; Fr. *Sardines*; It. *Sardine*; Sp. *Sardinas*), a species of fish of the herring tribe, but smaller. They are taken in consi derable quantities on our coasts, and are exceedingly plentiful on the coasts of Algarve Portugal, Andalusia and Granada in Spain, and along the shores of Italy. The sma sardines, caught on the coast of Provence, in France, are esteemed the b From 1,00 to 1,200 fishing smacks are engaged in catching these fish on the coast June to the middle of October. The French frequently cure them in red

* Professor Jameson says, in his *Mineralogy*, that some peculiarly beautiful sapphires are found i the Capelan mountains, in Pegu. But we do not believe that there are any such mountains in an part of the world; and, in point of fact, there are no mountains in Pegu, nor have any precious ston been ever found in it.

when thus prepared, designate them *anchoisées*, or *anchovied sardines*. These are packed in vessels previously employed for holding wine, and exported to the Levant. When perfectly fresh, sardines are accounted excellent fish; but if kept for any time, they entirely lose their flavour, and become quite insipid.

SARDONYX, a precious stone, a variety of chalcedony.

The ancients selected this substance to engrave upon, no doubt from its possessing two peculiar and necessary qualities, viz. hardness and tenacity, by which it is capable of receiving the finest touch or stroke of the tool without chipping, and showing the art of the engraver to the highest perfection.—(*Mawe on Diamonds*, 2d ed. p. 121.)

SARSAPARILLA (Ger. *Sarsaparille*; Fr. *Salsepareille*; It. *Salsapariglia*; Sp. *Zarzaparilla*), the root of the *Smilax Sarsaparilla*, a plant growing in South America and the West Indies. It is imported in bales. It is known in the London market by the names of Lisbon, Honduras, and Vera Cruz, but it is also brought from Jamaica. The Lisbon root, which is the produce of Brazil, has a reddish or dark brown cuticle, is internally farinaceous, and more free from fibre than the other kinds: the Honduras has a dirty brown, and sometimes whitish, cuticle; it is more fibrous, and has more ligneous matter than the Lisbon and Vera Cruz. It is in long, slender twigs, covered with a wrinkled brown cuticle, and a small woody heart. The Jamaica differs from the others, in having a deeper cuticle, a close texture; and the red colour partially diffused through the ligneous part. The root is inodorous, and has a mucilaginous, very slightly bitter taste: the bark is the only useful part of the plant; the ligneous part being tasteless, inert, woody fibre.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*) The quantity imported in 1831 amounted to 176,854 lbs., of which 107,410 lbs. were retained for home consumption. The duty, which formerly varied, according as it was brought from a foreign country or a British possession, from 1*s.* 3*d.* to 1*s.* per lb., was reduced, in 1832, to 6*d.* per lb.

SASSAFRAS (Ger. and Fr. *Sassafras*; It. *Sassafrasso*; Sp. *Sasafras*), a species of laurel (*Laurus Sassafras*, Lin.), a native of the southern parts of North America, Cochin-China, and several of the Indian islands. Sassafras wood, root, and bark, have a fragrant odour, and a sweetish aromatic taste. The wood is of a brownish white colour; and the bark ferruginous within, spongy, and divisible into layers. Their sensible qualities and virtues depend on an essential oil, which may be obtained separate by distilling the chips or the bark with water. It is very fragrant, hot, and penetrating to the taste, of a pale yellow colour, and heavier than water. It is used only in the *materia medica*. Very little is imported.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

SAUNDERS (RED) (Arab. *Sundal-ahmer*; Hind. *Ruckut-chundum*), the wood of a lofty tree (*Pterocarpus santalinus*) indigenous to various parts of India, Ceylon, Timor, &c. The wood is brought to Europe in billets, which are very heavy and sink in water. It is extremely hard, of a fine grain, and a bright garnet red colour, which brightens on exposure to the air. It is employed to dye lasting reddish brown colours on wool. It yields its colouring matter to ether and alcohol, but not to water. The quantity imported is but inconsiderable. The price in bond varies at this moment (February, 1834) from 13*l.* to 14*l.* a ton.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory*; *Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. p. 236.)

SCAMMONY (Ger. *Skammonien*; Fr. *Scammonée*; It. *Scammonea*; Sp. *Escamonea*), a gum-resin, the produce of a species of convolvulus, or creeper plant, which grows abundantly in Syria. When an incision is made into the roots, they yield a milky juice, which, being kept, grows hard, and is the scammony of the shops. It is imported from Aleppo in what are called drums, weighing from 75 to 125 lbs. each; and from Smyrna in cakes like wax, packed in chests. The former is light and friable, and is considered the best; that from Smyrna is more compact and ponderous, less friable, and fuller of impurities. It has a peculiar heavy odour, not unlike that of old cheese; and a bitterish, slightly acrid taste. The colour is blackish or bluish grey, changing to dirty white, or lathering when the surface is rubbed with a wet finger. Its specific gravity is 1·235. It is very liable to be adulterated; and when of a dark colour, heavy, and splintery, it ought to be rejected. It is used only in medicine.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*) The duty on scammony, which was formerly as high as 6*s.* 4*d.* per lb. was reduced in 1832 to 2*s.* 6*d.*

SCULPTURES, figures cut in stone, metal, or other solid substance, representing or describing some real or imaginary object. The art of the sculptor, or statuary, was carried to the highest pitch of excellence in ancient Greece. Fortunately, several of the works of the Grecian sculptors have been preserved; and serve at once to stimulate and direct the genius of modern artists.

Models, are casts or representations of sculptures.

The act 54 Geo. 3. c. 56, vests the property of sculptures, models, copies, and casts, in the proprietor for 14 years; provided he cause his name, with the date, to be put on them before they are published; and for the same term in addition, if he should be living at the end of the first period. In actions for piracy, double costs to be given. The act 6 Geo. 4. c. 107. prohibits the importation, on pain of forfeiture, of any sculptures, models, casts, &c. first made in the United Kingdom.

SEAL (Lat. *Sigillum*), a stone, piece of metal, or other solid substance, generally round or elliptical, on which is engraved the arms, crest, name, device, &c. of some state, prince,

public body, or private individual. It is employed as a stamp to make an impression on sealing wax, thereby authenticating public acts, deeds, &c., or to close letters or packets. Seals were very early invented, and much learning has been employed in tracing their history, and explaining the figures upon them.—(See particularly the work of *Hopkinck, De Sigillorum Prisco et Novo Jure*, 4to, 1642.) They are now very generally used.

The best are usually formed of precious stones, on which the crest or the initials of the person's name are engraved, set in gold. But immense numbers are formed of stained glass, and set in gilt copper. They are manufactured at London, Birmingham, &c., and are extensively exported.

SEAL FISHERY. The seal, an amphibious animal, of which there are many varieties, is found in vast numbers in the seas round Spitzbergen, and on the coasts of Labrador and Newfoundland. As it frequents the British shores, it is well known, and has been repeatedly described. Seals are principally hunted for their oil and skins. When taken in the spring of the year,—at which time they are fattest,—a full grown seal will yield from 8 to 12 gallons of oil, and a small one from 4 to 5 gallons. The oil, when extracted before putrefaction has commenced, is beautifully transparent, free from smell, and not unpleasant in its taste. The skin, when tanned, is extensively employed in the making of shoes; and when dressed with the hair on, serves for the covering of trunks, &c.

"To the Esquimaux the seal is of as much importance as bread to a European. Its flesh forms their most usual food; the fat is partly dressed for eating, and partly consumed in their lamps; the liver, when fried, is esteemed, even among sailors, as an agreeable dish. The skin, which the Esquimaux dress by processes peculiar to themselves, is made water proof. With the hair off, it is used as coverings, instead of planks, for their boats, and as outer garments for themselves; shielded with which, they can invert themselves and canoes in the water, without getting their bodies wet. It serves also for coverings for their tents, and for various other purposes. The jackets and trowsers made of seal-skin by the Esquimaux are in great request among the whale fishers for preserving them from oil and wet."—(*Scoresby's Arctic Regions*, vol. i. p. 510.)

Seals in fine weather prefer the ice to the water, and vast herds of them are frequently found lying on the field ice; the places where they are met with being thence called "seal meadows." The seal hunters endeavour to surprise them while sleeping, and to intercept their retreat to the water. They attack them with muskets and bludgeons, but principally the latter, they being easily despatched by a blow on the nose.

The seal fishery has long been prosecuted to a considerable extent in the northern seas by ships from the Elbe and the Weser; but very few ships have been sent out for *sealing* only from England, though occasionally some of the whale ships have taken large quantities of seals. Latterly, however, the seal fishery has been prosecuted on a large scale, and with extraordinary success, by vessels of from 60 to 120 tons each, having crews of from 16 to 30 men, fitted out from the ports of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, &c. The business is attended with a good deal of risk, and instances frequently occur of the vessels being crushed to pieces by the collision of the fields of ice. We borrow the following details from Mr. Bliss's late tract on the *Trade, Statistics, &c. of Canada and our North American Possessions.*

"There is another department of the colonial fishery which has originated within no distant period, and is now becoming of great extent and importance. The large fields of ice which, in the months of March and April, drift southward from the Polar seas, are accompanied by many herds of seals: these are found sleeping in what are called the seal meadows of the ice, and are there attacked and slaughtered in vast numbers. For this purpose the fishers of Newfoundland, from which island these voyages are principally made, without waiting till the return of spring shall have opened their harbours, saw channels through the ice for their vessels, and set sail in quest of those drifting fields, through the openings of which they work a passage, attended with great difficulties and dangers, till they encounter their prey on the seal meadows. This bold and hazardous enterprise seems well compensated by its success. The number of seals thus taken is almost incredible, and is greatly on the increase. There were captured by the Newfoundland fishermen, in 1829, 280,613 seals; in 1830, 553,435; and in 1831, 742,735; making a total catch during these 3 years, of no fewer than 1,582,783 seals! The number of vessels employed in the fishery from Newfoundland, in 1831, was 115; and in 1832, 159; being an increase of about 3,400 tons."—(p. 70.)

Subjoined is a statement of the prices of the different sorts of fish oil in London, in January, 1834.

		L. s.		L. s.
Fish oils, cod, Newfoundland, per tun (Imp.)	.	25 0	to	0 0
seal, brown and yellow	—	22 0	—	23 0
pale . .	—	25 10	—	25 0
whale, Greenland . .	—	21 10	—	22 0

		L. s.		L. s.
Fish oils, southern fishery, pale, per tun (Imp.)		23 10	to	0 0
yellow 22*l.* to 0*l.*	—	brown 21 0		
sperm . . .	—	66 0	—	0 0
head matter . .	—	70 0	—	0 0

Undressed seal skins are worth from 1*s.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* each.

See also *M'Gregor's British America*, 2d edit. vol. i. p. 197. &c. There is a good account of the seal in *Laing's Voyage to Spitzbergen.*

SEALING WAX (Ger. *Siegellack*; Fr. *Cire d'Espagne, Cire à cacheter*; It. *Cera Lacca, Cera di Spagna*; Sp. *Lacre*; Rus. *Surgutsch*), the wax used for sealing letters, legal instruments, &c. It is a composition of gum lac, melted and incorporated with resin, and afterwards coloured with some pigment, as vermilion, verditer, ivory black, &c.

SEAMEN, the individuals engaged in navigating ships, barges, &c. upon the high seas. Those employed for this purpose upon rivers, lakes, or canals, are denominated watermen.

A *British Seaman* must be a natural born subject of his Majesty; or be naturalised by act of parliament; or made a denizen by letters of denization; or have become a British subject by the conquest or cession of some newly acquired territory; or (being a foreigner) have served on board his Majesty's ships of war, in time of war, for the space of 3 years. (3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 54. § 16.) But his Majesty may, by proclamation during war, declare that foreigners who have served *two* years in the royal navy, during such war, shall be deemed British seamen.—(§ 17.)

Various regulations have been enacted with respect to the hiring of seamen, their conduct

while on board, and the payment of their wages. These regulations differ in different countries; but, in all, they have been intended to obviate any disputes that might otherwise arise between the master and seamen as to the terms of the contract between them, to secure due obedience to the master's orders, and to interest the seamen in the completion of the voyage, by making their earnings depend on its successful termination.

1. *Hiring of Seamen.*—To prevent the mischiefs that frequently arose from the want of proper proof of the precise terms upon which seamen engaged to perform their service in merchant ships, it is enacted by statute (2 Geo. 2. c. 36.), "that it shall not be lawful for any master or commander of any ship or vessel bound to parts beyond the seas, to carry any seaman or mariner, except his apprentice or apprentices, to sea from any port or place where he or they were entered or shipped, to proceed on any voyage to parts beyond the seas, without first coming to an agreement or contract with such seamen or mariners for their wages; which agreement or agreements shall be made in writing, declaring what wages each seaman or mariner is to have respectively, during the whole voyage, or for so long time as he or they shall ship themselves for; and also to express in the said agreement or contract the voyage for which such seaman or mariner was shipped to perform the same;" under a penalty of *5l.* for each mariner carried to sea without such agreement, to be forfeited by the master to the use of Greenwich Hospital. This agreement is to be signed by each mariner within 3 days after he shall have entered himself on board the ship; and is, when signed, conclusive and binding upon all parties. By a subsequent statute, these provisions have been extended to vessels of the burden of 100 tons and upwards, employed in the *coasting trade.*—(31 *Geo.* 3. c. 39.)

The following is the form of the articles of agreement required by statute (37 Geo. 3. c. 73.) to be entered into between the masters and mariners of ships engaged in the West India trade. It is substantially the same with that which previously was, and still continues to be, in common use for all ships employed in foreign trade.

Ship

IT is hereby agreed between the master, seamen, and mariners of the ship now bound for the port of and the master or commander of the said ship, That, in consideration of the monthly or other wages against each respective seaman or mariner's name hereunto set, they severally shall and will perform the above-mentioned voyage: and the said master doth hereby agree with and hire the seamen and mariners for the said voyage at such monthly wages, to be paid pursuant to the laws of Great Britain; and they, the said seamen and mariners, do hereby promise and oblige themselves to do their duty, and obey the lawful commands of their officers on board the said ship or boats thereunto belonging, as become good and faithful seamen and mariners, and at all places where the said ship shall put in or anchor during the said ship's voyage, to do their best endeavours for the preservation of the said ship and cargo, and not to neglect or refuse doing their duty by day or night; nor shall go out of the said ship on board any other vessel, or be on shore under any pretence whatsoever, till the voyage is ended, and the ship discharged of her cargo, without leave first obtained of the master, captain, or commanding officer on board: and, in default thereof, they freely agree to be liable to the penalties mentioned in the act of parliament made in the 2d year of the reign of King George the Second, intituled "An Act for the better Regulation and Government of Seamen in the Merchants' Service;" and the act made in the 37th year of the reign of King George the Third, intituled, "An Act for preventing the Desertion of Seamen from British Merchant Ships trading to his Majesty's Colonies and Plantations in the West Indies:" and it is further agreed by the parties to these presents, that 24 hours' absence without leave shall be deemed a total desertion, and render such seamen and mariners liable to the forfeitures and penalties contained in the acts above recited; that each and every lawful command which the said master shall think necessary to issue for the effectual government of the said vessel, suppressing immorality and vice of all kinds, be strictly complied with, under the penalty of the person or persons disobeying forfeiting his or their whole wages or hire, together with every thing belonging to him or them on board the said vessel: and it is further agreed, that no officer or seaman, or person belonging to the said ship, shall demand or be entitled to his wages, or any part thereof, until the arrival of the said ship at the above-mentioned port of discharge, and her cargo delivered, nor less than 20 days, in case the seaman is not employed in the delivery: and it is hereby further agreed between the masters and officers of the said ship, that whatever apparel, furniture, and stores, each of them may receive into their charge, belonging to the said ship, shall be accounted for on her return; and in case any thing shall be lost or damaged through their carelessness or insufficiency, it shall be made good by such officer or seaman, by whose means it may happen, to the master and owner of the said ship: and whereas it is customary for the officers and seamen, on the ship's return home in the river, and during the time their cargoes are delivering, to go on shore each night to sleep, greatly to the prejudice of such ship and freighters; be it further agreed by the said parties, that neither officer nor seaman shall, on any pretence whatsoever, be entitled to such indulgence, but shall do their duty by day in discharge of the cargo, and keep such watch by night as the master or commander of the said ship shall think necessary, in order for the preservation of the above; and whereas it often happens that part of the cargo is embezzled after being delivered into lighters; and, as such losses are made good by the owners of the ships, be it therefore agreed, by these presents, that whatever officer or seaman the master shall think proper to appoint, shall take charge of the cargo in the lighters, and go with the same to the lawful quay, and there deliver his charge to the ship's husband, or his representative, or see the same safely weighed at the king's beam; and, in consequence of their true fidelity, such seamen shall be entitled to 2*s.* 6*d.* each quarter, exclusive of their monthly pay; and should it so happen that lighters are detained any considerable time at the quay before they can be unloaded, such officer and seaman so appointed shall in that case be entitled to 2*s.* 6*d.* for every 24 hours, exclusive of their monthly pay; that each seaman and mariner, who shall well and truly perform the above-mentioned voyage, (provided always, that there be no plunderage, embezzlement, or other unlawful acts, committed on the vessel's cargo or stores,) shall be entitled to their wages or hire that may become due to him pursuant to this agreement: that, for the due performance of each and every the above-mentioned articles and agreements, and acknowledgment of their being voluntary and without compulsion, or any other clandestine means being used, the said parties have hereunto subscribed their names, the day and month set opposite to their respective names.

Place and Time of Entry.	Man's Names.	Quality.	Witnesses to each Man's signing.	Pay in the River.		Wages per Month, or for the Voyage.	Whole Wages.
				Whole.	Half.		

The statutes do not render a verbal agreement for wages absolutely void; but impose a penalty on the master if a written agreement be not made. When a written agreement is made, it becomes the only evidence of the contract between the parties; and a seaman cannot recover any thing agreed to be given in reward for his services, which is not specified in the articles.

A seaman who has engaged to serve on board a ship, is bound to exert himself to the utmost in the service of the ship; and, therefore, a promise made by the master of a *ship in distress*, to pay an extra sum to a seaman, as an inducement to extraordinary exertion on his part, is held to be essentially void.

2. *Conduct of Seamen.*—It is essential to the business of navigation that the most prompt and ready obedience should be paid to the lawful commands of the master. To this effect it is covenanted in the articles of agreement previously quoted, that "each and every lawful command which the said master shall think necessary to issue for the effectual government of the said vessel, suppressing immorality and vice of all kinds, be strictly complied with, under the penalty of the person or persons disobeying forfeiting his or their whole wages or hire, together with every thing belonging to him or them on board the said vessel."

In case of disobedience or disorderly conduct on the part of the seamen, the master may correct them in a reasonable manner. Such an authority is absolutely necessary to the safety of the ship and of those on board; but it behoves the master to act in such cases with great deliberation, and not to pervert the powers with which he is intrusted for the good of the whole to cruel or vindictive purposes. Masters abusing their authority must answer at law for the consequences. In the case of actual or open mutiny by the crew, or any part of them, the resistance of the master becomes an act of self-defence, and is to be considered in all its consequences in that point of view. The Ordinances of Oleron and Wisby declare that a mariner who strikes the master shall either pay a fine or lose his right hand: a singular as well as cruel alternative, unknown in modern jurisprudence.

But although the master may by force restrain the commission of great crimes, he has no judicial authority over the criminal, but is bound to secure his person and bring him before a proper tribunal. And all justices of the peace are empowered to receive informations touching any murder, piracy, felony, or robbery upon the sea, and to commit the offenders for trial.—(43 *Geo.* 3. c. 160.)

The *desertion* or absence without leave of seamen from a ship, while on a voyage to foreign parts, being attended with many bad consequences, has been provided against in all maritime laws. It was enacted in this country, by the 11 & 12 Will. 3. c. 7.,

"That all such seamen, officers, or sailors, who shall desert the ships or vessels wherein they are hired to serve for that voyage, shall for such offence forfeit all such wages as shall be then due to him or them." By subsequent statutes (2 Geo. 2. c. 36., and 31 Geo. 3. c. 39.), it is enacted, that if, after having entered into the agreement previously referred to, a mariner deserts or refuses to proceed on the voyage, he forfeits to the owners all the wages then due to him, and a justice of the peace may, on complaint of the master, owner, or person having charge of the ship, issue a warrant to apprehend him; and in case of his refusal to proceed on the voyage, or of his not assigning a sufficient reason for such refusal, may commit him to hard labour in the house of correction for not more than *thirty* nor less than *fourteen* days. A mariner *absenting* himself from the ship without leave of the master or other chief officer having charge of the ship, forfeits *two* days' pay for every such day's absence, to the use of Greenwich Hospital. And in the case of foreign voyages, if, upon the ship's arrival at her port of delivery here, he leaves her without a *written discharge* from the master or other person having charge of the ship, or if in the coasting trade he quits the ship before the *voyage is completed and* the CARGO DELIVERED, or before the expiration of the term for which he engaged, or before he has obtained a discharge in writing, he forfeits 1 month's pay to the said hospital. But these provisions do not debar seamen from entering on board any of his Majesty's ships.

In order still further to discountenance desertion, a penalty of 100*l.* is imposed by the 57 Geo. 3. c. 73. on every master or commander of any British merchant ship who engages any seaman or other person to serve on board such ship, in the event of such master or commander being aware, at the time, that such seaman or person had deserted from any other ship or vessel.

For an account of the penalties imposed on the master for leaving seamen in foreign countries, or refusing to bring them back, see MASTER.

Neglect of duty, disobedience of orders, habitual drunkenness, or any cause which will justify a master in discharging a seaman during the voyage, will also deprive the seaman of his wages.

If the cargo be embezzled or injured by the fraud or negligence of the seamen, so that the

merchant has a right to claim satisfaction from the master and owners, they may, by the custom of merchants, deduct the value thereof from the wages of the seamen by whose misconduct the injury has taken place. And the last proviso introduced into the usual agreement signed by the seamen, is calculated to enforce this rule in the case of embezzlement either of the cargo or of the ship's stores. This proviso, however, is to be construed individually, as affecting only the particular persons guilty of the embezzlement, and not the whole crew. Nor is any innocent person liable to contribute a portion of his wages to make good the loss occasioned by the misconduct of others.

The offences of running away with the ship, or voluntarily yielding her up to an enemy, or making a revolt, are punishable by death. The statute 11 & 12 Will. 3. c. 7. enacts,

"That if any commander or master of any ship, or any seaman or mariner, shall in any place, where the admiral hath jurisdiction, betray his trust and turn pirate, enemy, or rebel, and piratically and feloniously run away with his or their ship or ships, or any barge, boat, ordnance, ammunition, goods, or merchandises, or yield them up voluntarily to any pirate, or shall bring any seducing messages from any pirate, enemy, or rebel, or consult, combine, or confederate with, or attempt or endeavour to corrupt any commander, master, officer, or mariner, to yield up or run away with any ship, goods, or merchandises, or turn pirate, or go over to pirates; or if any person shall lay violent hands on his commander, whereby to hinder him from fighting in defence of his ship and goods committed to his trust, or that shall confine his master, or make or endeavour to make a revolt in the ship; shall be adjudged, deemed, and taken to be a *pirate*, *felon*, and *robber*, and being convicted thereof according to the directions of this act, shall have and suffer pain of *death*, loss of lands, goods, and chattels, as *pirates*, *felons*, and robbers upon the seas ought to have and suffer.

The wilful destruction or loss of the ship is, in all countries, punishable by death. But doubts having been entertained whether the destruction of a ship that had been insured came within the scope of the previously existing statutes, they were repealed by the 43 Geo. 3. c. 113., and the following provision substituted in their stead:—

"That if any person or persons shall, from and after the *sixteenth* day of *July*, 1803, wilfully cast away, burn, or otherwise destroy, any ship or vessel, or in any wise counsel, direct, or procure the same to be done, and the same be accordingly done, with intent or design thereby wilfully and maliciously to prejudice any owner or owners of such ship or vessel, or any owner or owners of any goods laden on board the same, or any person or persons, body politic or corporate, that hath or have underwritten or shall underwrite any policy or policies of insurance upon such ship or vessel, or on the freight thereof, or upon any goods laden on board the same, the person or persons offending therein, being thereof lawfully convicted, shall be deemed and adjudged a principal felon or felons, and shall suffer death as in cases of felony, without benefit of clergy."

3. *Payment of Seamen's wages, &c.*—In order to stimulate the zeal and attention of seamen, it has been the policy of all maritime states to make the payment of their wages depend on the successful termination of the voyage. "*Freight is the mother of wages; the safety of the ship the mother of freight.*" When, therefore, by any disaster happening in the course of the voyage, such as the loss or capture of the ship, the owners lose their freight, the seamen also lose their wages.

If a ship destined on a voyage out and home has delivered her outward bound cargo, but perishes in the homeward voyage, the freight for the outward voyage is due; so in the same case the seamen are entitled to receive their wages for the time employed in the outward voyage and the unloading of the cargo, unless by the terms of their contract the outward and homeward voyages are consolidated into one. If a ship sail to several places, wages are payable to the time of the delivery of the last cargo. Upon the same principle, where money had been advanced to the owners in part of the freight outwards, and the ship perished before her arrival at the port of delivery, it was held that the seamen were entitled to wages in proportion to the money advanced.

If, after seamen have been hired, the owners of a ship do not think proper to send her on the intended voyage, the seamen are to be paid for the time during which they may have been employed on board the ship; and in the event of their sustaining any special damage by breaking off the contract, it is but reasonable that they should be indemnified.

In the case of shipwreck, it is the duty of the seamen to exert themselves to the utmost to save as much as possible of the vessel and cargo. If the cargo be saved, and a proportion of the freight paid by the merchant in respect thereof, it seems, upon principle, that the seamen are also entitled to a proportion of their wages. And for their labour in saving the cargo, or the remains of the ship, they, as well as other persons, may be entitled to a recompence by way of *salvage*. The laws of Oleron rule, that if, in case of shipwreck, "the seamen preserve a part of the ship and lading, the master shall allow them a reasonable consideration to carry them home to their own country; and in case they save enough to enable the master to do this, he may lawfully pledge to some honest persons such part thereof as may be sufficient for the occasion."

By the laws of Wisby, "the mariners are bound to save and preserve the merchandise to the utmost of their power, and whilst they do so (*ce-faisant*, according to the *French* translation), ought to be paid their wages, otherwise not." By the Hanseatic Ordinance, if a ship happens to be cast away, the mariners are obliged to save as much as in them lies, and the master ought to requite them for their pains to their content, and convey them at his own charge to their dwelling places; but if the mariners refuse to assist their master, in such case they shall have neither reward nor wages paid them." It is not quite clear, from the lan-

guage of these ancient ordinances whether the payment directed to be made to seamen on those melancholy occasions, is to be a reward only for their labour in the salvage, or a recompence for their former services in the ship, for which, according to general principles, they are entitled to no payment, if no freight is earned. But Cleirac, in his *Commentary on the Laws of Oleron*, says, that by an ordinance of Philip II. of Spain, made in the year 1563, it is ordained, that the seamen shall save as much as they can from shipwreck; and, in that case, the master is bound to pay them their wages, and to give them a further reward for their labour out of the goods. And the Hanseatic Ordinance of the year 1614 expressly directs, that if so much of the ship be saved as equals the value of the wages of the seamen, they shall be paid their whole wages. In like manner, the Ordinance of Rotterdam and the *French* Ordinance also expressly direct the payment of wages out of the relics and materials of the ship.—(*Abbott on the Law of Shipping*, part iv. c. 2.)

"I have not been able," says Lord Tenterden, "to find any decision of an English court on the point, and the legislature has made no provision relating to it. As an inducement to the mariners to exert themselves in the hour of danger, it may not be unfit to hold out to them the prospect of obtaining their wages, if they save so much of the ship as shall be sufficient to pay them; but their claim upon the ship seems not to extend to a case, wherein, according to the principles of the law upon which their claim is founded, no wages are payable to them."—(Part iv. c. 2.)

The laws of Oleron, Wisby, and the Hanse towns, direct, that if a seaman die during the voyage, wages shall be paid to his heirs; but it is not clear whether the sum thus directed to be paid is to be understood as meaning a payment proportioned to the time of his service, or the whole sum that he would have earned had he lived till the conclusion of the voyage. This question has not been judicially decided in England; but by the act 37 Geo. 3. c. 73. it is ordered, that the wages due to any seaman, who has died on board any ship trading to the West Indies, shall be paid, within 3 months of the arrival of such ship in Great Britain, to the receiver of the sixpenny duty for Greenwich Hospital, for the use of the seaman's executor or administrator. All masters neglecting or refusing to pay the same, incur a penalty of 50*l.*, and pay double wages for each offence.

A seaman impressed from a merchant ship into the royal service, is entitled to receive the proportion of his wages due to him at the time of impressment, provided the merchant ship *arrive in safety* at the port of her discharge.

Policy requires that the wages of seamen should not be paid to them in foreign countries, as well to prevent desertion, as to preserve, for the benefit of their families, what might otherwise be spent in riot and debauchery. Conformably to this principle it has been enacted,

"That no master or owner of any merchant ship or vessel shall pay or advance, or cause to be paid or advanced, to any seaman or mariner, during the time he shall be in parts beyond the seas, any money or effects upon account of wages, exceeding *one moiety* of the wages which shall be due at the time of such payment, until such ship or vessel shall return to *Great Britain* or *Ireland*, or the plantations, or to some other of his Majesty's dominions, whereto they belong, and from whence they were first fitted out; and if such master or owner of such merchant ship or vessel shall pay or advance, or cause to be paid or advanced, any wages to any seaman or mariner above the said moiety, such master or owner shall forfeit and pay *double* the money he shall so pay or advance, to be recovered in the High Court of Admiralty by any person who shall first discover and inform of the same."—(8 *Geo.* I. c. 24.)

The time when wages should be paid has also been made the subject of parliamentary enactments. Thus, as to ships engaged in *foreign voynges*, it is ordered, that upon the arrival of any ship in *Great Britain* from parts beyond the seas, the master or commander shall be obliged to pay the seamen thereto belonging their wages, if demanded, in *thirty days* after the ship's entry at the Custom-house, except in cases where a covenant shall be entered into to the contrary; or at the time the seamen shall be discharged, which shall first happen, if demanded; deducting the penalties and forfeitures imposed by the act, "under the penalty of paying to each seaman or mariner that shall be unpaid, contrary to the intent and meaning of this act, *twenty shillings* over and above the wages that shall be due to each person, to be recovered by the same means and methods as the wages may be recovered; and such payment of wages aforesaid shall be good and valid in law, notwithstanding any action, bill of sale, attachment, or incumbrance whatsoever."—(2 *Geo.* 2. c. 36.)

And as to ships employed in the *coasting trade* in the manner before mentioned, it is enacted, that the master, commander, or person having charge of the ship, shall be obliged to pay the seamen their wages, if demanded, within *five days* after the ship shall be entered at the Custom-house, or the cargo be delivered, or at the time the seamen shall be discharged, which shall first happen, unless an agreement shall have been made to the contrary; in which case the wages shall be paid according to such agreement, deducting in every case the penalties imposed by this act, under the like forfeiture of *twenty shillings*, to be recovered in the same manner as with regard to ships coming from abroad; and such payment shall be good in law, "notwithstanding any action, bill of sale, attachment, or incumbrance whatsoever."—(31 *Geo.* 3. c. 39.)

Seamen have a threefold remedy for the recovery of wages; viz. against the ship, the owner, and the master; and they may proceed either in the admiralty courts or those of common law in the former case all may join, and payment may be obtained out of the value

of the ship. The contract remains in the custody of the master or owner, but they are bound to produce it when required, and it is conclusive evidence of the contract between the parties.

By the act 59 Geo. 3. c. 58. justices of the peace are authorised summarily to decide upon the complaint of any seaman as to the nonpayment of wages not exceeding 20*l.*; and if they find the claim well founded, may, in the event of its not being paid within 2 days, issue their warrant for the levy of the same by distress: parties dissatisfied may appeal to the admiralty.

4. *Payment to Greenwich Hospital.*—During the reign of George II. an establishment attached to Greenwich Hospital was erected (20 Geo. 2. c. 38.) "*for the relief and support of maimed and disabled seamen, and the widows and children of such as shall be killed, slain, or drowned, in the merchant service.* To provide a fund for this charitable institution, every person serving in any merchant ship, or other private ship or vessel, belonging to any of his Majesty's subjects in *England*, (except apprentices under the age of 18, persons employed in boats upon the coasts in taking fish which are brought fresh on shore, or in boats within rivers, or upon boats upon the coast, and pilots (except persons employed in the service of the *East India Company*, and who are not entitled to the benefit of this institution, being provided for by a fund established by the Company),) pays *sixpence per month*, which is deducted out of his wages by the master, and by him paid over to the persons appointed under the authority of the act at the port to which the ship belongs, before she shall be allowed to clear inwards. For the management and distribution of this fund, a corporation was created, composed chiefly of eminent merchants, with power to purchase land and erect an hospital, and to provide for seamen rendered incapable of service by sickness, wounds, or other accidental misfortunes, and decrepit and worn out by age, either by receiving them into the hospital, or by pensions; and also to relieve the widows and children of seamen killed or drowned in the merchant service, provided the children are not of the age of 14 years; or, if of that age and upwards, are incapable of getting a livelihood by reason of lameness, blindness, or other infirmity, and are proper objects of charity; and to make reasonable allowances to those who shall lose an eye or limb, or be otherwise hurt or maimed, in fighting, defending or working their ships, or doing any other duty in their service, in proportion to their hurt; so far forth as the income and revenues of the charity will extend for these purposes. But no person is to be provided for as a worn-out seaman, who has not been employed in the merchant service *five* years, and paid the contribution. And in providing for this class, a preference is given to such as have served longest and contributed most.

I. An Account of the Money deducted out of the Wages of Seamen employed in the Merchant Service of the Country, for the Years 1828 and 1829; showing the Gross Amount collected, the Nett Money paid to Greenwich Hospital, and the Amount and Rate per Cent. paid for collecting the same in each Year, and for what Purposes employed.

	1828.			1829.		
	L.	*s.*	*d.*	*L.*	*s.*	*d.*
Gross amount of the collection	23,683	1	1	26,137	2	8½
Money paid to Greenwich Hospital	18,845	19	8	21,412	17	5½
Total expense of collection	4,837	1	5	4,724	4	10½
Detail of the Total Expense of Collection.						
To the deputy receivers of Great Britain and Ireland, America, Guernsey, Jersey, and Newfoundland, 1½ per cent. for collecting, except the port of Liverpool, which is 7½ per cent.	2,081	3	6	2,548	4	1
To the receivers general for Scotland and Ireland, a salary of 50*l.* per annum each	100	0	0	100	0	0
Pension clerk at the Custom-house, 10 per cent. on the amount collected in America	78	4	5	77	2	10
Salary of the chief receiver at Newfoundland, 7½ per cent. on the collection	-		-	81	1	1½
Salaries to the receiver general and comptroller at the port of London, their clerks, clerk at the outports, messenger, and housekeeper	1,636	0	0	1,655	0	0
Registers	437	11	8			
Superannuation allowances	36	5	0	36	5	0
Postage, stationery, taxes, and housekeeper's disbursements	468	16	10	431	4	10
L.	4,837	1	5	4,724	4	10½

The monies paid to Greenwich Hospital are applied to the general purposes of the institution.

P. C. LE GEYT, Clerk of the Cheque.

The total expense of collecting amounted in the year 1828 to [illegible] per cent., and in 1826 to 18 per cent. on the gross receipts; but arrangements are now ordered to be carried into effect, by which the whole expense will be reduced to about 10 per cent.

Royal Hospital, Greenwich, 10th of May, 1830. W. H. HOOPER, Secretary.

II. Account of Merchant Seamen now in the Royal Hospital for Seamen at Greenwich, with the Comparative Amount of Service in the Navy and in the Merchants' Employ.

Number of Men who have never served in the Navy.	Number of Men who have served in the Navy and in the Merchants' Service.	Total Number of Years served by them in the King's Service.	Total Number of Years served by them in the Merchant's Service.	Average Number of Years served by each Man in the Navy.	Average Number of Years served by each Man in the Merchants' Service.
Nil.	1,121	18,195	14,485	16¼	13

The establishment of Greenwich Hospital is	2,710
Of these are—	
Seamen who have served in merchant ships	1,121
Seamen who have served in king's ships only	1,119
Royal marines	444
Lunatics	23
Absent	9
Vacancies	16
	2,710

III. Account of Children of Merchant Seamen in the School of Greenwich Hospital.

Number of Children of Merchant Seamen whose Fathers have never served in the Navy.	Number of Children of Merchant Seamen whose Fathers have also served in the Navy.	Remarks.
89	23	The original Greenwich Hospital school, to which the children of merchant seamen are eligible, consisted of 200 children, until, by a regulation of 1823, it was increased to 300.

Royal Hospital, Greenwich, 9th of April, 1831. R. G. KEATS, Governor.

In order to ascertain the times of service and payment of the contribution, the master must keep a *muster-roll* of the persons employed in the ship, and before its departure deliver a duplicate to the collector of these duties at the port; and, during the voyage, enter the time and place of discharge, quitting, and desertion, and of receiving other persons on board, and of any hurt, damage, death, or drowning; of which he must also deliver a duplicate at his return, under the penalty of 20*l.*, to the truth whereof he may be examined upon oath by the collector. And in case any person employed on board any ship or vessel shall, in doing his duty on shore or on board, break an arm or leg, or be otherwise hurt or maimed, he is to be properly relieved until sufficiently recovered to be sent to the place to which the ship belongs.

But, notwithstanding the *principle* of this charity is excellent, it has been alleged, and, we apprehend, on pretty good grounds, that the conditions under which merchant seamen are admitted to participate in its benefits are too onerous, that they have not reaped from it an advantage equivalent to the sacrifice it imposes on them, and that the expenses of collection have been quite enormous.

The last part of this statement is, indeed, completely borne out by the first of the foregoing documents, which shows that the expense of collection is, in future, to be reduced to a *half* of what it has hitherto been; and we have been well assured that the reduction may be safely carried a good deal further.

The second of the foregoing accounts shows that there is not at present a single seamen in Greenwich Hospital, except such as have served in the navy; a circumstance which, considering the number of men in the merchant service, the large sum (26,000*l.*) annually paid by them to the hospital, and the period that has elapsed since the termination of the war, strikes us as not a little extraordinary. The subject is one that seems to require a thorough investigation. Merchant seamen ought to participate, equally with those in his Majesty's service, in the benefits of an institution to which they contribute so largely.

For further details with respect to this important subject, see *Lord Tenterden's* work on the *Law of Shipping*.

(Seamen (Consolidation of Laws relating to).

During the session of 1835 an Act was passed (5 & 6 W. 4. c. 19.) of great importance to seamen, and to persons connected with navigation. It is intituled "An Act for amending and consolidating the Laws relating to Merchant Seamen, and for forming and maintaining a Register of all the Men engaged in that Service." It lays down the various forms and regulations to be observed in hiring, paying, and discharging seamen; establishes an office for their registry; and prescribes the mode in which lists of crews are to be transmitted to the registrar. It also regulates the number of apprentices to be taken on board ship; the conditions under which seamen may, in certain cases, be left in foreign parts; with a variety of other interesting particulars. As any infraction of the provisions of the Act incurs, in most cases, the forfeiture of heavy penalties, it should be carefully attended to, both by masters and men. After declaring that the prosperity, strength, and safety of the kingdom principally depend on a large, constant, and ready supply of seamen, as well for carrying on the commerce as for the defence thereof, and that it is necessary, by all practicable means, to increase the number of such seamen, and to give them all due encouragement and protection; and that, in furtherance of this end, it is expedient to amend and consolidate the laws relating to their registration and government, the statute goes on to enact:—

Repeal of different Acts.—From and after the 31st of July, 1835, from which day this act shall take effect, the act 2 & 3 Ann. c. 6. for the increase of seamen, &c.; the act 2 G. 2. c. 36. for the better regulation, &c. of seamen in the merchant service; the act 2 G. 3. c. 31. for perpetuating the last-mentioned act, &c.; the act 31 G. 3. c. 39. for the better regulation, &c. of seamen in the coasting trade of the kingdom; the act 45 G. 3. c. 81. for amending the last mentioned act; the act 37 G. 3. c. 73. for preventing the desertion of seamen from British merchant ships in the West Indies; the act 58 G. 3. c. 38. to extend and render more effectual the regulations for the relief of seafaring men and boys, &c. subjects of the U. K. in foreign parts; the act 4 G. 4. c. 25. for regulating the number of apprentices to be taken on board British merchant vessels, &c.; and the act 3 & 4 W. 4. c. 88. for continuing the 59 G. 3. c. 58., for facilitating the recovery of the wages of seamen in the merchants' service, are hereby repealed: provided that all offences committed and penalties and forfeitures incurred previous to the commencement of this act, against the provisions of the said acts, shall be punishable and recoverable under the said acts as if they had not been repealed.—§ 1.

No Seaman to be taken to Sea without a written Agreement.—It shall not be lawful for any master of

any ship or vessel belonging to any subject of the U. K. trading to parts beyond seas, or of any British registered ship of the burden of 80 tons or upwards employed in the fisheries of the U. K., or in trading coastwise or otherwise, to carry to sea, from this kingdom or any other place, any seaman or other person as one of his crew or complement (apprentices excepted), without first entering into an agreement in writing with every such seaman, specifying what monthly or other wages such seaman is to be paid, the capacity in which he is to act, and the nature of the voyage in which the ship is intended to be employed, so that the seaman may have some means of judging of the probable period for which he is likely to be engaged; and the said agreement shall contain the day of the month and year in which the same shall be made, and shall be signed by the master in the first instance, and by the seamen respectively at the port or place where such seamen shall be respectively shipped; and the master shall cause the same to be, by or in presence of the party who is to attest their respective signatures thereto, truly and distinctly read over to every such seaman before he shall be required to sign the same, in order that he may be enabled to understand the purport and meaning of the engagement he enters into and the terms to which he is bound.—§ 2.

Regulations respecting Forms of Agreements.—In the cases of ships bound to parts beyond seas, except as herein-after provided, every agreement shall be in the form and shall contain true entries under their respective heads of the several particulars set forth in the schedule marked (A.) at the end of this act, so far as the same can be ascertained; and the owners and the master of every such ship, or one of them, shall, on reporting his ship's arrival at her port of destination in the U. K., deposit with the collector or comptroller of customs at such port a true copy of such agreement, attested by the signature of the master, that every person interested in such agreement may at all times know the terms and conditions thereof; and in the cases of ships employed in fishing on the coasts of the U. K., and of ships regularly trading from one part of the U. K. to another, and of ships regularly trading or making regular voyages to any of the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, Sark, and Man, or to any port on the continent of Europe between the river Elbe inclusive and Brest, the agreement to be entered into as aforesaid shall be in the form and shall contain due entries under their respective heads of the particulars set forth in the schedule (B.) at the end of this act, so far as the same can be ascertained; and the owner or one of the owners of every such ship employed in fishing or in trading in any of the cases last mentioned shall, within ten days next after the expiration of every 6 months ending the 30th of June and the 31st of December each year, deposit with the collector or comptroller of the customs of the port to which the ship belongs a true copy of every agreement entered into with any person composing part of the crew within the preceding 6 months, attested by the signature of such owner; and all copies of agreements required to be deposited as aforesaid shall, when the same have been deposited, and be required to be produced in evidence on the part of any seaman, be received and taken as legal proof of the contents of the agreement.—§ 3.

Penalty for Default.—If any master of any ship as aforesaid carry out to sea any seaman (apprentices excepted) without having first entered into the agreement hereby required, he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l.* in respect of each and every seaman carried out contrary to this act; and if any master neglect to cause the agreement to be distinctly read over to each seaman, as enjoined above, he shall for every such neglect forfeit and pay the sum of 5*l.*; and if any master neglect to deposit a copy of the agreement with the collector or comptroller of the customs as is hereby required, or shall wilfully deposit a false copy of such agreement, he shall for every such neglect or offence forfeit and pay the sum of 50*l.*—§ 4.

Seamen not to be deprived of legal Remedies, &c.—No seaman, by entering into or signing such agreement as aforesaid, shall forfeit his lien upon the ship, nor be deprived of any remedy for the recovery of his wages which seamen are now lawfully entitled to against either the ship, the master, or the owners thereof; nor shall any agreement made contrary to or inconsistent with the provisions of this act, or any clause whereby a seaman shall consent to forego the right which the maritime law gives him to wages in the case of freight earned by ships subsequently lost, or containing any words to that effect, be valid or binding on any seaman signing the same; and in cases in which it may be necessary that the agreement should be produced to sustain a claim on the part of a seaman, no obligation shall lie upon the seaman to produce the same, nor shall any seaman fail in any suit or proceeding for the recovery of his wages for want of the production of such agreement, or of any deposited copy thereof as aforesaid, or for the want of any notice to produce the same; any law or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.—§ 5.

Seamen refusing to join or to proceed in the Ship, &c. may be committed to Gaol.—In case a seaman shall, after having signed an agreement as before-mentioned, neglect or refuse to join the ship on board of which he had engaged to serve, or refuse to proceed to sea in her, or absent himself therefrom without leave, it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace, at home or abroad, near the place, upon complaint of the fact made upon oath by the master, mate, or owner thereof, and such justice is required, by his warrant, to cause such seaman to be apprehended and brought before him; and in case such seaman shall not give a reason to the satisfaction of such justice for his neglect, refusal, or absence, upon due proof thereof it shall be lawful for such justice to commit such seaman to the house of correction, to be kept to hard labour for a period not exceeding 30 days: provided that in case such seaman, on being brought before said justice, shall consent to join the ship and proceed on the voyage for which he has agreed, it shall be lawful for said justice, at the request of the master, instead of committing such seaman, to cause him to be conveyed on board the said ship, or be delivered to the master, for the purpose of proceeding on the voyage, and also to award to the master such costs as shall seem reasonable, not exceeding in any case the sum of 40*s.*, which shall be chargeable against and may be abated from the wages to grow due to such seaman.—§ 6.

Forfeiture for temporary Absence from Duty.—If any seaman, after having signed the aforesaid agreement, or after the ship on board of which he has agreed to serve has left her first port of clearance, and before the period for which he has agreed to serve be completed, shall wilfully and without leave absent himself from the ship, or from his duty, he shall (in all cases not of absolute desertion, or not treated as such by the master) forfeit out of his wages to the master or owner of such ship the amount of 6 days' pay for every 24 hours of such absence, and in a like proportion for any less period of time, or, at the option of the said master, the amount of such expenses as have been necessarily incurred in hiring a substitute to perform his work; and in case any seaman while he belongs to the ship shall without sufficient cause neglect to perform such reasonable duty as is required of him by the master or other person in command, he shall be subject to a like forfeiture in respect of every such offence, and of every 24 hours' continuance thereof; and in case a seaman, after signing such agreement, or after the ship's arrival at her port of delivery, and before her cargo be discharged, shall quit the ship without a previous discharge or leave from the master, he shall forfeit 1 month's pay out of his wages. But no such forfeitures shall be incurred unless the fact of the seaman's temporary absence, neglect of duty, or quitting the ship be duly entered in the ship's log-book, which entry shall specify truly the hour of the day at which the same shall have occurred, and the period during which the seaman was absent or neglected his duty, the truth of which entry the owner or master must, in all cases of dispute, substantiate by the evidence of the mate or some other credible witness.—§ 7.

How Amount of Forfeiture is ascertained when Seamen contract for the Voyage.—In all cases when the seaman has contracted for wages by the voyage or by the run, and not by the month or other state

period of time, the amount of forfeitures incurred under this act shall be ascertained as follows: viz., if the whole time spent in the voyage agreed upon shall exceed 1 calendar month, the forfeiture of 1 month's pay, expressed in this act, shall be taken to be a forfeiture of a sum of money bearing the same proportion to the whole wages as a calendar month shall bear to the whole time spent in the voyage, and in like manner a forfeiture of 2 days' pay or less shall be accounted and taken to be a forfeiture of a sum bearing the same proportion to the whole wages as the same period of time shall bear to the whole time spent in the voyage; and if the whole time spent in the voyage shall not exceed 1 calendar month, the forfeiture of 1 month's pay shall be taken to be a forfeiture of the whole wages contracted for; and if such time shall not exceed 2 days, the forfeiture of 2 days' pay shall be accounted and taken to be a forfeiture of the whole wages contracted for; and the master is authorised to obtain the amount of all such forfeitures enacted out of the wages of any seaman incurring the same.—§ 8.

Forfeiture for Desertion.—Every seaman who absolutely deserts the ship to which he belongs shall forfeit to the owner or master all his clothes and effects left on board, and all wages and emoluments to which he might otherwise be entitled, provided the circumstances attending such desertion be entered in the log-book at the time, and certified by the signature of the master and mate or other credible witness; and an absence of a seaman from the ship for any time within the space of 24 hours immediately preceding the sailing of the ship without permission from the master, or for any period however short under circumstances plainly showing that it was his intention not to return, shall be deemed an absolute desertion; and in case any such desertion take place in parts beyond seas, and the master be under the necessity of engaging a substitute for the deserter at a higher rate of wages than that stipulated in the agreement to be paid to the seaman deserting, the owner or master shall be entitled to recover from the deserter by summary proceeding, in the same manner as wages are hereby made recoverable, any excess of wages which he shall pay to such substitute beyond the amount payable to the deserter had he duly performed his service pursuant to agreement.—§ 9.

Penalty for harbouring Deserters.—If any person shall, on shipboard or on shore, harbour or secrete a seaman who has signed an agreement to proceed on a voyage to parts beyond seas, and has deserted or absented himself without leave from his ship, knowing or having reason to believe him to be a deserter, or to be absent without leave, he shall for every seaman so harboured or secreted forfeit 10*l.*; and no debt exceeding 5*s.*, incurred by any seaman after he has signed any agreement as aforesaid, shall be recoverable until the voyage agreed for has been concluded; nor shall it be lawful for any keeper of a public-house, or of a lodging-house for seamen, to withhold or detain any chest, bed or bedding, clothes, tools, or other effects of any seaman, for any debt alleged to have been contracted by such seaman; and in case any chest, bed, &c., or other effects as aforesaid, be withheld contrary to this act, it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace in any part of H. M.'s dominions, upon complaint upon oath made by such seaman or on his behalf, to inquire into the matter, and if he see right to cause such property or effects so withheld or detained to be seized and delivered over to the seaman.—§ 10.

The Period within which Wages are to be paid.—The master or owner of every ship is hereby required to pay to every seaman entered as aforesaid his wages, if the same be demanded, within the periods following; viz., if the ship be employed in trading coastwise, the wages shall be paid within 2 days after the termination of the agreement, or at the time when such seaman is discharged, whichever shall first happen; if the ship be employed in trading otherwise than coastwise, then the wages shall be paid, at the latest, within 3 days after the cargo is delivered, or within 10 days after the seaman's discharge, whichever shall first happen; in either of which last-mentioned cases of payment being delayed, the seaman at the time of his discharge is entitled to be paid on account a sum equal to one fourth part of the estimated balance due to him; and in case any master or owner neglect or refuse to make such payment, he shall for every such neglect or refusal forfeit and pay to the seaman the amount of 2 days' pay for each day, not exceeding 10 days, during which payment shall without sufficient cause be delayed beyond the period at which such wages or part wages are hereby required to be paid; for recovery of which forfeiture the seaman has the same remedies as he is entitled to for recovery of his wages: provided that nothing in this clause contained shall extend to the cases of ships employed in the southern whale fishery, or on voyages for which seamen by the terms of their agreement are compensated by shares in the profits of the adventure.—§ 11.

Payment of Wages to be valid notwithstanding Bill of Sale, &c.—Every such payment of wages to a seaman shall be valid and effectual in law, notwithstanding any bill of sale or assignment made by any seaman of such wages, or of any attachment or incumbrance thereon; and no assignment or sale of wages made prior to the earning thereof, nor any power of attorney expressed to be irrevocable for the receipt of such wages, shall be valid or binding upon the party making the same.—§ 12.

Masters to give Seamen Certificates on Discharge.—Upon the discharge of a seaman from ship, he shall be entitled to receive from the master a certificate, signed by him, of his service and discharge, specifying the period of service and the time and place of his discharge; and any master refusing to give such certificate, without reasonable cause, shall for every such offence forfeit and pay such seaman the sum of 5*l.*—§ 13.

For obtaining immediate Payment of Wages of Seamen in certain Cases.—If after a seaman has been discharged from any ship or vessel 3 days he shall be desirous of proceeding to sea on another voyage, and in order thereto requires immediate payment of the wages due to him, any justice of the peace in any part of H. M.'s dominions may, on application from such seaman, and on satisfactory proof that he would be prevented from employment by delay, summon the master or owner of such ship or vessel before him, and require cause to be shown why immediate payment of such wages should not be made; and if it appear to the satisfaction of such justice that there is no reasonable cause for delay, he shall order payment to be made forthwith, and in default of compliance with such order such master or owner shall forfeit and pay the sum of 5*l.*—§ 14.

Summary Mode of recovering Wages not exceeding 20l.—And whereas seamen, in cases of dispute, may be exposed to great inconvenience, expense, and delay in obtaining payment of their wages; for remedy thereof it is enacted, in all cases of wages not exceeding 20*l.* which are due and payable to a seaman for service in any ship, it shall be lawful for any justice of peace in any part of H. M.'s dominions, residing near the place where the ship has ended her voyage, cleared or discharged her cargo, or near the place where the master or owner upon whom the claim is made shall be or reside, upon complaint on oath made to such justice by any seaman, or on his behalf, to summon such master or owner to appear before him to answer such complaint, and upon his appearance, or in default thereof, on proof of his having been summoned, such justice is empowered to examine upon the oath of the parties and their witnesses (if there be any) touching the complaint and the amount of wages due, and to make such order for payment as shall appear reasonable and just; and in case such order be not obeyed within 2 days after making thereof, it shall be lawful for such justice to issue his warrant to levy the amount of the wages awarded as due, by distress and sale of the goods and chattels of the party on whom such order for payment shall be made, rendering to such party the overplus (if any shall remain of the produce of the sale) after deducting thereout all charges and expenses incurred by the seaman in making and hearing the complaint, as well as those incurred by the distress and levy and in the enforcement of the justice's order; and in case sufficient distress cannot be found, it shall be lawful for the said justice to cause the amount of the said wages and expenses to be levied on the ship in respect of the service on board which the wages are claimed, or the tackle and apparel

thereof: and if such ship be not within the jurisdiction of such justice, then he is empowered to apprehend and commit the party upon whom the order for payment shall be made to the common gaol of the county, there to remain without bail until payment of the amount of wages awarded, and of all costs and expenses attending their recovery: and the award and decision of such justice shall be final and conclusive as well on every seaman as on the owner and master of the ship —§ 15.

In what Case Costs of Suit for Recovery of Wages not to be allowed.—If any suit for the recovery of a seaman's wages be instituted against the ship, or the master or owner thereof, in the court of admiralty or in any vice-admiralty court, or in any court of record in H. M.'s dominions, and it shall appear to the judge that the plaintiff might have had as effectual a remedy for the recovery of his wages by complaint to a justice of the peace as herein-before provided, then and in every such case such judge is hereby required to certify to that effect, and thereupon no costs of suit shall be awarded to the plaintiff.—§ 16.

If Ship is sold at a Foreign Port, Crew to be sent Home at the Expense of the Master or Owners.—When any ship whatever belonging to any subject of the U. K., except in cases of wreck or condemnation, is sold at any port out of H. M.'s dominions, the master in all such cases (unless the crew in the presence of the British consul or vice-consul, or if there be none such, then in the presence of one or more British resident merchants at such port, shall signify their consent in writing to be there discharged,) is hereby required, besides paying them the wages to which they shall be entitled under the agreement, either to provide them with adequate employment on board some other British vessel homeward bound, or to furnish the means of sending them back to the port in H. M.'s dominions at which they were originally shipped, or to some port in the U. K., as shall be agreed upon, by providing them with a passage home, or depositing with the consul or vice-consul such money as he shall deem reasonably sufficient to defray the expenses of their subsistence and passage; and if the master refuse or neglect to do so, such expenses shall be a charge upon the owner whose ship is so sold, except in cases of barratry, wreck, or condemnation, and may be recovered as so much money paid and expended on his account, together with full costs, at the suit of the consul or other person defraying such expenses, or of the attorney-general, in case the same has been allowed to the consul out of the public monies.—§ 17.

Supply of Medicine to be kept on Board, &c.—Every ship sailing from the U. K. to any place out of the same shall have and keep constantly on board a sufficient supply of medicines, suitable to accidents and diseases arising on voyages; and in case any default be made in providing such medicines, or in case any of the seamen receive any hurt or injury in the service of the ship, the expense of providing the necessary surgical and medical advice, and attendance and medicines, which the seaman shall stand in need of until he be cured or brought back to the U. K., shall be borne and defrayed by the owner and master of the ship, or one of them, without any deduction whatever on that account from the seaman's wages.—§ 18.

Sections 19 and 20. provide for the establishment of an office at the Custom-house, London, for the general register of merchant seamen, consisting of a registrar, &c., under the direction of the lords of the admiralty; and authorise letters and packets, on the business of the office, addressed to the registrar, to go free of postage.

Masters of Ships to deliver Lists of their Crew on their Return.—Whereas by the act 4 & 5 W. 4. c. 52. (see *post*, p. 58.), a certain book by way of muster-roll is required to be kept on board merchant ships; and whereas it is expedient for the better effecting the objects of this act that a return should be made to the registrar of merchant seamen of many of the said particulars, it is enacted, that the masters of every British ship bound to parts beyond seas, except in the cases herein-after provided, shall not only keep the book required by the said recited act, but shall, on reporting his ship on her arrival at her port of destination in the U. K., deliver to the collector or comptroller of customs at such port an account, signed by himself, of all the seamen and others (including apprentices) who have belonged to the ship at any time during the absence from the U. K., containing a true and correct return under their respective heads of the several particulars expressed in the form set forth in the schedule marked (C.) at the end of this act.—§ 21.

Masters of Ships in the Home Trade to return like Lists.—Within 21 days after the 30th of June and the 31st of December in each year, the owner or one of the owners of every ship employed in fishing on the coasts of the U. K., or in regularly trading from one part of the U. K. to another, and of every ship regularly trading to any of the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, Sark, and Man, or to any port on the continent of Europe between the river Elbe inclusive and Brest, shall deposit with the collector or comptroller of the customs of the port to which the ship belongs, or with the registrar in London, an account, signed by the owner, or master, of the voyages in which such ship has been engaged during the half year ending on the days above mentioned, and setting forth the Christian and surnames of the several persons (including the master and apprentices) who belonged to the ship at any time during such periods, which account shall be in the form and shall contain a true and correct return, under their respective heads, of the several particulars expressed in the schedule marked (D.) at the end of this act.—§ 23.

Return to be made in case of Ship lost or sold Abroad.—In case any ship be lost or sold while absent from the U. K., then an account containing a similar return as in the cases before mentioned, made out up to the period of such loss or sale, by the persons who were at that time owner and master thereof, or by one of them, shall be transmitted to the registrar in the port of London so soon as he shall be able to make such return after the loss, and within 12 calendar months at farthest after the sale of the ship.—§ 23.

Lists to be certified, &c.—The said accounts and returns required by this act to be delivered to the collector or comptroller of customs, shall be transmitted by them to the registrar; and every owner or master of a ship who shall refuse or wilfully neglect to deliver such list or account as is hereby required, shall for every such refusal or neglect forfeit and pay the sum of 25*l.*—§ 24.

Disposal of the Effects of Seamen dying Abroad.—Whenever a British seaman abroad dies elsewhere than on board a British ship, leaving any money or effects within the limits of any British consulate, H. M.'s consul there is hereby required to claim and take charge of such money and effects, and to dispose of the effects for the benefit of the next of kin of the deceased or other person who may be entitled to the same; and in case no claim be made to the same within 3 calendar months after the death of such seaman, the consul shall, after abating the amount of any expenses incurred in getting in the assets of the deceased, remit the balance of such monies as either have arisen or shall hereafter arise to the president and governors of the corporation "for the relief and support of sick, maimed, and disabled seamen, and of the widows and children of such as shall be killed, slain, or drowned in the merchant service," to be by them paid over and disposed of in the manner and under the regulations provided by the act 4 & 5 W. 4. c. 52; and in case any seaman dying as last mentioned leave on board the ship to which he belonged any monies, clothes, or other effects, and the same be not claimed within 1 month after the ship's return to the U. K. by the executor or administrator of the deceased, then the master of the ship is hereby required to deposit the same or the proceeds arising therefrom with the president and governors aforesaid, to be disposed of in the manner provided by the said act with respect to the wages of deceased seamen.—§ 25.

Parish Boys may be put out Apprentices in the Sea Service.—Overseers of the poor or other competent

persons are hereby empowered to bind by indenture and put out any boy having attained the age of 17 years, and of sufficient health and strength, who or whose parent or parents is or are maintained by any parish or township, or who shall beg for alms therein, with his consent, but not otherwise, as apprentice in the sea service to any of H. M.'s subjects being master or owner of any ship registered in any port of the U. K., for so long time and until such boys shall respectively attain the age of 21 years, which binding shall be as effectual as if such boy had been bound by virtue of any statute now in force respecting the binding of parish apprentices, or as if such boy were of full age and had bound himself an apprentice, and notwithstanding the residence of the master or owner to whom he may be bound be more than 40 miles distant from such parish or place: provided that every such binding shall be made in the presence of 2 justices acting for the county, riding, borough, or place within which such parish or township is situate, which justices shall execute the indenture in testimony of their being satisfied that such boy hath attained the age and is of sufficient health and strength as required by this act; and that the period when the service under such indenture shall expire may the more certainly appear, the age of every such boy shall be inserted in his indenture, the same being truly taken from the entry of his baptism in the register book of the parish in which he was born (where the same can be obtained), a copy of which shall be given and attested by the officiating minister of such parish without fee or reward; and where no such entry of baptism can be found, the justices shall inform themselves as fully as they can of the boy's age, and from such information shall insert the same in his indenture, and the age of every such boy so inserted therein shall (in relation to the continuance of his service) be taken to be his true age without any further proof thereof. —§ 26.

Parish Apprentices may be turned over to the Sea Service.—It shall be lawful for any person to whom any parish apprentice is bound to a service on shore according to the statutes already in force relating to such apprentices, or for the executors or administrators, or, there being none such, for the widow of any such deceased person, with the concurrence of two or more justices residing in or near to the place where such poor boy shall be bound apprentice, to assign and turn over such boy, with his consent, but not otherwise, apprentice to any master or owner of any ship not having her complement of apprentices as herein required, to be employed by such master or owner in the sea service during the unexpired period of his apprenticeship.—§ 27.

Indentures may be assigned on the Death of the Master.—In the event of the death of the master of any parish apprentice to the sea service, it shall be lawful for the widow, executor, or administrator of such deceased master to assign his indenture for the residue of the unexpired term to any master or owner of any ship not having the complement of apprentices herein required; all which assignments, if executed within the port of London, shall be attested by the registrar or one of his assistants or clerks, and if at any other port by the collector or comptroller of the customs thereof.—§ 28.

Parish Officers to prepare Indentures.—Such overseers, &c. shall cause the indentures of apprenticeship to be prepared and transmitted in duplicate, if the master or owner of the ship to whom such apprentice is bound be or reside within the limits of the port of London, to the registrar, and if at any other port to the collector or comptroller of customs at such port; and the said overseers or other persons shall cause each poor boy to be conducted and conveyed to such port or place by the constable and at the expense of the parish or township sending him thither, and shall also, upon the execution by the master of the counterpart of the indentures, cause to be paid down to the master the sum of 5*l*., to be expended in providing such boy with necessary sea clothing and bedding; which sum, with the other expenses, are to be allowed in their accounts in relation to the poor.—§ 29.

How Counterparts of Indentures to be Attested.—The counterparts of all indentures shall, if the master be or reside within the limits of the port of London, be executed in the presence of and attested by the registrar or one of his assistants or clerks, and if at any other port by the collector or comptroller of the customs at such port, and also in both cases by the constable or other officer who shall convey such apprentices thither, and such indentures shall bear date respectively on the days on which they are executed; and the constable on his return shall deliver such counterpart to the overseers or other competent persons to be registered and preserved.—§ 30.

Every Ship to have Apprentices according to her Tonnage.—The master of every ship belonging to any subject of the U. K., and of the burden of 80 tons and upwards, shall have on board, at the time of clearing out from any port of the U. K., 1 apprentice or more, in the following proportions to the ship's admeasurement, according to the certificate of registry; viz., every ship of 80 tons and under 200 tons shall have 1 apprentice at the least, every ship of 200 tons and under 400 tons shall have 2 apprentices at the least, every ship of 400 tons and under 500 tons shall have 3 apprentices at the least, every ship of 500 tons and under 700 tons shall have 4 apprentices at the least, and every ship of 700 tons and upwards shall have 5 apprentices at the least, all of whom at the period of their being bound shall have been under 17 years of age, and shall have been duly bound for the term of 4 years at the least; and if any master neglect to have on board his ship the number of apprentices hereby required, he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l*. in respect of each apprentice so deficient.—§ 31.

Apprentices exempt from Contributions.—No apprentice bound or assigned pursuant to this act, nor any master or owner in respect of any such apprentice, shall be liable for the payment of any contribution for the support of any hospital or institution.—§ 32.

Indentures and Assignments to be registered.—The registrar in London, and the collector and comptroller of customs at each other port, shall, in a book to be kept for that purpose, enter all indentures and assignments of parish apprentices, specifying the dates thereof, the names and ages of the apprentices, the parishes or places from whence sent, the names and residences of the masters to whom bound or assigned, and the names, ports, and burden of the respective ships to which such masters belong, and shall make and subscribe on each indenture or assignment an indorsement purporting that the same hath been duly registered pursuant to this act; and every collector and comptroller shall also at the end of each quarter of the year transmit a list of the indentures and assignments registered by him within the preceding quarter, containing all the particulars aforesaid, to the registrar in London.—§ 33.

Indentures of Apprentices to be registered.—In every case of a person voluntarily binding himself apprentice to the sea service, the indentures to be executed on such occasions shall be registered in a book to be kept for that purpose by the registrar in London, and by the collector and comptroller of customs at each other port at which the indenture shall be executed, in which books shall be expressed the dates of the several indentures, the names and ages of the apprentices, the names and residence of their masters, and (if known) the names, port, and burden of the several ships on board which they are to serve; and such registrar or collector and comptroller shall indorse and subscribe upon each indenture a certificate purporting that the same hath been duly registered pursuant to this act; and the said collector and comptroller shall also at the end of each quarter of the year transmit a list of the indentures so registered by them within the preceding quarter, containing all the particulars aforesaid, to the said registrar, for the purposes of this act; and it shall be lawful for the master, or his executor or administrator, with the consent of the apprentice if of the age of 17 years or upwards, and if under that age with the consent of his parent or guardian, to assign or transfer his indenture to any other master or owner of any registered ship; and all such voluntary apprentices may, during the term for which they are bound, be employed in any ship of which the master of any apprentice is

master or owner; provided that every such assignment be registered and indorsed by the said registrar or by the collector or comptroller of customs at the port where the master is resident, or to which his ship belongs, in which latter case the said collector or comptroller shall notify the same to the registrar, as is provided with regard to the indenture of such apprentice.—§ 34.

No Stamp duty on Agreements.—Agreements with the crew of a ship made in conformity with this act, and all indentures of parish and voluntary apprentices to the sea service, and all counterparts and assignments of such indentures executed after the passing of this act, shall be wholly exempt from stamp duty.—§ 35.

Penalty on Masters neglecting to register Indentures, &c.—If any master to whom any apprentice mentioned in this act shall be bound or assigned neglect to cause the indenture or the assignment thereof (as the case may be) to be registered as required by this act, or shall, after the ship has cleared outwards on the voyage upon which such ship may be bound, suffer his apprentice to quit his service (not entering into that of H. M.), except in case of death, desertion, sickness, or other unavoidable cause, to be certified in the log-book of the ship, every such master shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l*.—§ 36.

Justices to determine Complaints.—Two or more justices, residing at or near to any port at which any ship having on board any sea apprentice shall at any time arrive, shall have full power and authority to inquire into and examine, hear, and determine all claims of apprentices upon their masters under their indentures, and all complaints of hard or ill usage exercised by their masters towards their apprentices, or of misbehaviour on the part of any apprentice, and to make such orders therein as they are empowered to do in other cases between masters and apprentices.—§ 37.

Common Assaults may be summarily punished by 2 Justices.—In case of any assault or battery which shall, after the commencement of this act, be committed on board any British merchant ship in any place at sea, or out of H. M.'s dominions, it shall be lawful for any 2 justices in any part of H. M.'s dominions, upon complaint of the party aggrieved, to hear and determine any such complaint, and to proceed and make such adjudication thereon as any 2 justices are empowered to do by the act 9 Geo. 4. c. 31., subject however to such provisoes and limitations as are contained in the said act with respect to the cases of assault and battery therein mentioned; and the fine or forfeiture to be imposed in such case shall be payable to the merchant seamen's hospital or institution at or nearest to the port or place where such adjudication is made.—§ 38.

Masters entitled to receive the Wages of Apprentices entering into the Navy.—No parish or voluntary apprentice to the sea service shall be at liberty to enter into H. M.'s naval service during his apprenticeship without the consent of his master; but if nevertheless he voluntarily enter on board any of H. M.'s ships of war, and be allowed by his master to continue therein, such master, in case he give notice to the secretary of the admiralty of his consent to his apprentice remaining in H. M.'s service during the residue of his apprenticeship, shall upon the production of his indenture, be entitled, at the time of paying off the ship, to receive to his own use any balance of wages that may be then due and payable to such apprentice up to the period of expiration of his indenture.—§ 39.

Forcing on shore, &c. any Person belonging to the Crew a Misdemeanor.—If any master of a British ship force on shore and leave behind, or shall otherwise wilfully and wrongfully leave behind on shore or at sea, in any place in or out of H. M.'s dominions, any person belonging to his crew, before the arrival of such ship in the U. K., or before the completion of the voyage or voyages for which such person was engaged, whether such person have formed part of the original crew or not, every person so offending shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall suffer such punishment by fine and imprisonment, or both, as to the court before which he is convicted shall seem meet; and the said offence may be prosecuted by information at the suit of the attorney-general, or by indictment or other proceeding in any court of criminal jurisdiction in H. M.'s dominions, at home or abroad, where such master or other person shall happen to be, although the place where the offence may have been committed be out of the ordinary local jurisdiction of such court; and such court is hereby authorised to issue a commission for the examination of any witnesses absent or out of its jurisdiction; and at the trial the depositions so taken, if such witnesses be then absent, shall be received in evidence.—§ 40.

Seamen not to be discharged Abroad without Sanction.—No master shall discharge any individual person of his crew, whether British subject or foreigner at any of H. M.'s colonies or plantations, without the previous sanction in writing of the governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary, or other officer appointed in that behalf by the government there, or in the absence of all such authorities at or near the port or place at which the ship is then lying, then of the chief officer of customs resident at or near to such port or place; nor shall he discharge any person at any other place abroad without the like previous sanction in writing of H. M.'s minister, consul, or vice-consul there, or in the absence of any such functionary, then of two respectable merchants resident there; all which functionaries are hereby required, and all which merchants are hereby authorised, in a summary way to inquire into the grounds of such proposed discharge by examination on oath, and to grant or refuse such sanction according to their discretion, having regard to the objects of this act.—§ 41.

Not to be left Abroad on the Plea of Incapacity to proceed.—No master shall be at liberty to leave behind abroad, either on shore or at sea, any person of his crew, on the plea of such person not being in a condition to proceed on the voyage, or having deserted from the ship, or otherwise disappeared, unless upon a previous certificate in writing of one of such functionaries or merchants as aforesaid, if there be any such at or within a reasonable distance from the place where the ship shall then be, if there be time to procure the same, certifying that such person is not in such condition, or has deserted or disappeared, and cannot be brought back; and all such functionaries are hereby required, on the application of any such master, to inquire by examination on oath into the circumstances, and to give or refuse such certificate according to the result of such examination.—§ 42.

If any of the Crew are left behind, the Proof of Sanction shall be on the Master.—If any master shall leave behind any one of his crew contrary to this act, in any indictment or proceeding the proof of his having obtained the sanction or certificate aforesaid shall be upon him, it being the intention hereof that, except in the case of entering into H. M.'s naval service, no person of the crew shall be discharged, either with or without his consent, in any place abroad where such functionary can be found, unless he have given his sanction thereto.—§ 43.

Seamen when allowed to be left behind to be paid their Wages.—Every master who shall leave any person of his crew on shore at any place abroad, under certificate of his not being in a condition to proceed on the voyage, shall deliver to one of the said functionaries, or if there be none such to any two respectable merchants there, or if there be but one then to such one merchant, a just and true account of the wages due to such person, and pay the same to the seaman, either in money or by a bill drawn upon the owner of his ship; and if by bill, then such functionary or merchant is hereby required by certificate indorsed on such bill to testify that the same is drawn according to this act for money due on account of wages of a seaman, or to that effect; and any master who shall deliver a false account, or refuse or neglect to deliver a just and true account of the wages due to such person, and to pay the amount in money or by bill as aforesaid, shall for every such offence forfeit and pay, in addition to the wages due, the penal sum of 25*l*.—§ 44.

Act not to prevent Seamen from entering into the Navy.—Nothing in this act or in any agreement shall

prevent any seaman or person belonging to any merchant ship whatever from entering or being received into H. M.'s naval service, nor shall any such entry be deemed a desertion from the merchant ship, nor incur any penalty or forfeiture whatever, either of wages, clothes, or effects, or other matter or thing, notwithstanding any agreement made to the contrary; and all masters and owners of ships are strictly prohibited from introducing into any ship's articles or agreement with the crew any clause or matter by which any penalty or forfeiture of any kind is agreed to be incurred by a seaman upon his entry into H. M.'s service.—§ 45.

Seamen entering into the Navy from Merchant Ships entitled to the immediate Delivery of Clothes, &c.—When any seaman quits a merchant ship in order to enter into H. M.'s naval service, and is actually received into such service, not having previously committed any act amounting to and treated by the master as a total desertion, he shall be entitled immediately upon entry to the delivery up of all his clothes and effects on board such merchant ship, and (in case the ship shall have earned freight) to receive from the master the payment of the proportionate amount of his wages up to the period of such entry, in money, or by a bill on the owner; all which clothes, effects, money, and bill such master is required to deliver up to him accordingly, under a penalty of 25*l.* for any refusal or neglect, to be recovered with full costs of suit by such seaman: provided, that if no freight have been earned at the time of such entry, then the master shall be required to give the seaman so entering a bill upon the owner for his wages to the period of such entry, payable on the ship's safe arrival at her destined port; but in case the master shall have no means of ascertaining the balance justly due, he shall make out and deliver to such seaman a certificate of the period of his services and the rate of wages he is entitled to, producing at the same time to the commanding officer of H. M.'s ship the agreement entered into with the seaman for the voyage; and every master, upon the delivery up of such clothes and effects, and the settlement, as now directed, of such wages, shall be entitled to receive from the officer in command of H. M.'s ship into which such seaman has entered, a certificate signed by the officer, which he is hereby required to give upon the request of the master, testifying that such seaman has entered into H. M.'s ship to serve, as proof that the master had not parted with the seaman contrary to the provisions of this act.—§ 46.

Power to H. M. to sue for the Amount advanced for Seamen left abroad.—In all cases where any master has forced on shore or left behind any person against the provisions of this act, and any such person shall become distressed and be relieved under the provisions of the act 11 Geo. 4. c. 20., or under any act hereafter to be passed, then, in addition to the wages due from and the penalties imposed on such master, H. M. shall be entitled to sue him or the owner of the ship, at the option of the lords of the admiralty, for all charges and expenses incurred on the subsistence, necessary clothing, and conveyance home of such person, as so much money paid and expended to the use of the defendant, which, together with full costs of suit, may be recovered in the same manner as other debts due to H. M. are recoverable; and in any proceeding for that purpose proof of the account furnished to the said commissioners by any one of such functionaries, or by such two merchants or one merchant, according to the case, as provided by the said act of the 11 Geo. 4. c. 20., shall, together with proof of payment by the said lords or by the treasurer of the navy, of the charges incurred on account of such person, be sufficient evidence that he was relieved and conveyed home at H. M.'s expense; and the court in which any proceeding for the recovery of the said money is instituted is authorised to issue a commission for the examination of witnesses abroad, and the depositions so taken shall be received as evidence.—§ 47.

Ship's Agreement on Arrival at a Foreign Port to be deposited with the Consul.—Every master of a British ship, on his arrival at any foreign port where there is a British consul or vice-consul, shall deliver to such functionary the agreement with his ship's crew, to be preserved by him during the ship's stay there, and to be returned to the master before his leaving the port, without any fee or charge for the same; and if any master refuse or neglect to deliver such agreement to the consul or vice-consul, as is hereby required, he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 25*l.*—§ 48.

No Seaman to be shipped at a Foreign Port without the Privity of the Consul.—During the ship's stay at any foreign port no seaman shall be shipped by any master except with the privity of the consul or vice-consul, indorsed or certified on the agreement, under a penalty of 25*l.* for every seaman shipped in breach of this act.—§ 49.

Masters to produce Agreements to Officers of King's Ships.—The master of every British ship is hereby required to produce and show the muster-roll of the ship, and the agreement with his crew, to the captain, commander, or other commissioned officer of any of H. M.'s ships requiring a production and sight thereof; and it shall be lawful for any such officer in H. M.'s naval service, if he think it necessary, to muster the crew and passengers (if any) of any British ship, in order to be satisfied that the provisions of this act, and the laws relating to navigation with respect to the crews of merchant ships have been duly complied with; and if any master shall, upon being required by any such officer, neglect or refuse to produce the muster-roll or agreement, or obstruct any officer in mustering the said crew or passengers, or produce any false muster-roll, he shall for every such offence forfeit and pay the sum of 25*l.*—§ 50.

Registrar and Officers of Customs empowered to require Production of the Agreement, &c.—For the better carrying into effect the purposes of this act it shall be lawful for the registrar and his assistants, and also for the collectors or other chief officers of customs, at the several ports of the U. K. and of the British possessions abroad, to demand from the master of every ship required to enter into an agreement with his crew, the production of the muster-roll of the ship, and also of such agreement with liberty to take a copy of either or both, and to muster the crew and apprentices of such ship, for the purpose of ascertaining whether the provisions of this act, and of the laws relating to navigation have been complied with; and if any master, on such demand being made, refuse or neglect to produce such muster-roll or agreement, or refuse to allow a copy of either document to be taken, or refuse to permit, or prevent his crew and apprentices from being mustered, he shall for every such neglect, refusal, or offence, forfeit and pay the sum of 50*l.*—§ 51.

Definition of the Terms Master, Seaman, Ship and Owner.—Every person having the charge or command of any British ship shall, within the meaning and for the purposes of this act, be deemed and taken to be the master of such ship; and every person (apprentices excepted) employed or engaged to serve in any capacity on board the same, shall be deemed and taken to be a seaman within the meaning and for the purposes of this act; and the term "ship," as used in this act, shall be taken and understood to comprehend every description of vessel navigating on the sea; and the term "owner," as applied to a ship, shall be understood to comprehend all persons, if more than one, to whom the ship belongs; and all steam and other vessels employed in carrying passengers or goods shall be deemed trading ships within the meaning and for the purposes of this act.—§ 52.

Recovery of Penalties.—All penalties and forfeitures imposed by this act, for the recovery whereof no specific mode is herein provided, shall be recovered, with costs of suit, in manner following: (that is to say), all penalties and forfeitures not exceeding 20*l.* shall be recoverable at the suit of any person by information and summary proceeding before any one or more justice or justices in any part of H. M.'s dominions, residing near to the place where the offence shall be committed, or where the offender shall be, which justice or justices shall have full power to levy the amount of any such penalty or forfeiture and costs by distress and sale of the offender's goods, or by commitment of the offender for

non-payment of the amount; and all penalties and forfeitures exceeding 20*l.* shall and may be recovered, with costs of suit, in any of H. M.'s courts of record at Westminster, Edinburgh, or Dublin, or in the colonies, at the suit of H. M.'s attorney-general or other chief law officer of the crown in any part of H. M.'s dominions other than in Scotland, and if there at the suit of the lord advocate; and that all penalties and forfeitures mentioned in this act for which no specific application is before provided shall, when recovered, be paid and applied as follows; viz., one moiety of every such penalty shall be paid to the informer or person upon whose discovery or information the same has been recovered, and the residue shall be divided between Greenwich Hospital and the merchant seamen's hospital or institution at the port to which the ship shall belong, and if there be none such at said port, then the whole of the said residue shall be paid to Greenwich Hospital: provided, that it shall be lawful for the court before which or the justice or justices before whom any proceedings are instituted for the recovery of any pecuniary penalty imposed by this act to mitigate or reduce such penalty as to them shall appear just and reasonable, in such manner, however, that no penalty shall be reduced below half its original amount: and provided also, that all proceedings so to be instituted be commenced within 2 years after the commission of the offence, if the same have been committed at or beyond the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn, or within 1 year if committed on the European side of those limits, or within 6 calendar months after the return of the offender or complaining party to the U. K.—§ 53.

As to Ships belonging to any British Colony having a Legislature.—This act shall not extend or apply to any ship registered in or belonging to any British colony having a legislative assembly, or to the crew of any such ship, while such ship is within the precincts of such colony; any thing herein contained to the contrary in anywise notwithstanding.—§ 54.

Schedules referred to in the preceding Act.

SCHEDULE (A.)

An Agreement made pursuant to the Directions of an Act of Parliament passed in the Sixth Year of the Reign of His Majesty King William the Fourth, between , the Master of the Ship , of the Port of , and of the Burden of Tons, and the several Persons whose names are subscribed thereto.

It is agreed by and on the part of the said persons, and they severally hereby engage, to serve on board the said ship in the several capacities against their respective names expressed, on a voyage from the port of to [*here the intended voyage is to be described as nearly as can be done, and the places at which it is intended the ship shall touch, or if that cannot be done, the nature of the voyage in which she is to be employed*], and back to the port of ; and the said crew further engage to conduct themselves in an orderly, faithful, honest, careful, and sober manner, and to be at all times diligent in their respective duties and stations, and to be obedient to the lawful commands of the master in every thing relating to the said ship, and the materials, stores, and cargo thereof, whether on board such ship, in boats, or on shore [*here may be inserted any other clauses which the parties may think proper to be introduced into the agreement, provided that the same be not contrary to or inconsistent with the provisions and spirit of this act.*] In consideration of which services, to be duly, honestly, carefully, and faithfully performed, the said master doth hereby promise and agree to pay to the said crew, by way of compensation or wages, the amount against their names respectively expressed. In witness whereof the said parties have hereto subscribed their names on the days against their respective signatures mentioned.

Place and Time of Entry.			Men's Names.	Age.	Place of Birth.	Quality.	Amount of Wages per Calendar Month, Share, or Voyage.	Witness to Signature.	Name of Ship in which the Seamen last served.
Day.	Month.	Year.							

Note.—Any embezzlement or wilful or negligent loss or destruction of any part of the ship's cargo or stores may be made good to the owner out of the wages (so far as they will extend) of the seamen guilty of the same; and if any seaman shall enter himself as qualified for a duty to which he shall prove to be not competent, he will be subject to a reduction of the rate of wages hereby agreed for in proportion to his incompetency.

SCHEDULE (B.)

An Agreement made, pursuant to the Directions of an Act of Parliament passed in the Sixth Year of the Reign of His Majesty King William the Fourth, between , the Master of the Ship , of the Port of , and of the Burden of Tons, and the several Persons whose Names are subscribed hereto.

It is agreed by and on the part of the said persons, and they severally hereby engage, to serve on board the said ship in the said several capacities against their respective names expressed, which ship is to be employed in [*here the nature of the ship's employment is to be described, whether in the fisheries, on the coast, or in trading from one part of the United Kingdom to another, or to any of the islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, Sark, and Man, or to any port on the continent of Europe between the river Elbe inclusive and Brest*]; and the said crew further engages to conduct themselves in an orderly, faithful, honest, careful, and sober manner, and to be at all times diligent in their respective duties and stations, and to be obedient to the lawful commands of the master in every thing relating to the said ship, and the materials, stores, and cargo thereof, whether on board such ship, in boats, or on shore [*here may be inserted any other clauses which the parties may think proper to be introduced into the agreement, provided that the same be not contrary to or inconsistent with the provisions and spirit of this act*]. In consideration of which services, to be duly, honestly, carefully, and faithfully performed, the said master doth hereby promise to pay to the said crew, by way of compensation or wages, the amount against their names respectively expressed: provided always, and it is hereby declared, that no seaman shall be entitled to his discharge from the ship during any voyage in which she may be engaged, nor at any other than a port in the United Kingdom. In witness whereof the said parties have hereto subscribed their names on the days against their respective signatures mentioned.

Place and Time of Entry.			Men's Names.	Age.	Place of Birth.	Quality.	Amount of Wages per Calendar Month, Share, or Voyage.	Witness to Signature.	Name of Ship in which the Seamen last served.
Day.	Month.	Year.							

Note.—Any embezzlement or wilful or negligent loss or destruction of any part of the ship's cargo or stores may be made good to the owner out of the wages (so far as they will extend) of the seaman guilty of the same; and if any seaman shall enter himself as qualified for a duty to which he shall prove to be not competent, he will be subject to a reduction of the rate of wages hereby agreed for in proportion to his incompetency.

SCHEDULE (C.)

Ship , of the Port of , whereof was Master.
A List of the Crew (including the Master and Apprentices) at the Period of her sailing from the Por
of , in the United Kingdom, from which she took her first Departure on her Voyage
, and of the Men who joined the Ship subsequent to such Departure and until her
Return to the Port of , being her Port of Destination in the United Kingdom.

Name.	Age.	Place of Birth.	Quality.	Ship in which he last served.	Date of joining the Ship.	Place where.	Time of Death or leaving the Ship.	Place where.	How disposed of.

Note.—If any one of the crew has entered his Majesty's service, the name of the king's ship in which he entered must be stated in the account, under the head of "How disposed of."

Note.—This list to be filled up, and, being signed by the master, is to be delivered by him to the collector or comptroller of the custom on reporting his ship inwards, on her arrival at her port of destination in the United Kingdom.

SCHEDULE (D.)

An Account of the Voyages in which the Ship , of , has been engaged
the Half Year commencing on the Day of , One thousand eight hundred and
, and ending on the Day of , One thousand eight hundred and
, and of all the Persons (Masters and Apprentices included) who have belonged to such
Ship during that Period.

ACCOUNT OF THE VOYAGES.

[*Here the several Voyages, and the Periods of such Voyages, are to be described.*]

ACCOUNT OF THE CREW.

Name.	Age.	Place of Birth.	Quality.	Ship in which he last served.	Date of joining the Ship.	Place where.	Time of Death or leaving the Ship.	Place where.	How disposed of.

Note.—If any one of the crew shall have entered his Majesty's service, the name of the king's ship in which he entered must be stated in his account, under the head of "How disposed of."

Note.—This account, when filled up, is to be signed by the master and deposited with the collector or comptroller of the customs of the port to which the ship shall belong, or with the registrar of seamen in London.

Seamen (Establishment for).

The reader will find in the body of this work, p. 441, a notice of the corporation established by the act 20 Geo. 2. c. 38. for the relief and support of maimed and disabled merchant seamen, and of the widows, children, &c. of such seamen as were killed or drowned in the merchant service. But, as the funds at the disposal of the corporation have been very limited, it has not been much heard of. Under previous acts, 6*d.* per month was deducted from the wages of all seamen in the merchant service; the produce of which assessment was paid over to the trustees of Greenwich Hospital, in the benefit of which institution such seamen were to be allowed to participate. But this arrangement has latterly been much objected to, and apparently not without good reason; for it appears from the official returns (*ante*, pp. 441, 442.) that, though the contributions from merchant ships to Greenwich Hospital in 1828 and 1829 exceeded 20,000*l.* a year, there was not on the establishment a single individual who had been exclusively employed in the merchant service! The heavy expenses attending the collection of the duty were also much objected to.

Repeal of the 6d. a Month Greenwich Duty.—To obviate these complaints, the 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 34. directs that the contribution of 6*d.* per month by seamen in the merchant service to Greenwich Hospital shall cease from the 1st of January, 1835; and that 20,000*l.* a year shall be advanced from the consolidated fund to the Hospital, to make good the deficiency caused by the cessation of such contribution.

New Establishment for Support of Merchant Seamen, &c.—And to provide still more effectually for the relief and support of maimed and disabled merchant seamen, and of the widows, &c., of those killed or drowned in the merchant service, the act 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 52. has been passed. This act repeals the 20 Geo. 2. c. 38., except in so far as it relates to the establishment of the corporation of president and governors for the relief of maimed, &c. merchant seamen, and of the widows and children of seamen killed or drowned in the merchant service; and it also repeals as much of the act 37 Geo. 3. c. 73. as relates to the wages of seamen dying while employed in ships trading to the West Indies. Having thus cleared the way for a new system, it goes on to enact:—

President and Governors empowered to relieve disabled Seamen, &c.—The said president and governors and their successors are authorised to provide, in their hospital, for such seamen as are rendered incapable of service by sickness, wounds, or other accidental misfortunes, and those who shall become decrepit or worn out by age, or to allow them certain pensions, or otherwise, as the president and governors deem meet and most for the advantage of the said charity; and also to relieve the widows and children of such seamen as shall be killed, slain, or drowned in the said service; and also to relieve the widows and children of seamen dying after having contributed during a term of 21 years to the funds of this corporation, provided such children are not of the age of 14 years, or if of that

age or upwards, not capable of getting a livelihood by reason of lameness, blindness, or other infirmities, and are proper objects of charity; and also to relieve the widows and children (such children being proper objects of charity) of such seamen as at the time of their death shall have been receiving or been entitled to pensions, under and by virtue of this act, from the fund hereby to be created, as decrepit or worn-out seamen, provided that no widow shall be entitled to any benefit under this act who shall not have been the wife of such seaman or pensioner before he became entitled to relief under its provisions: provided nevertheless, that no seaman shall be entitled to any provision or benefit of this act, on account of any hurt or damage received on board any ship or vessel, unless he procure, or cause to be produced, a certificate of the said hurt or damage from the master, mate, boatswain, and surgeon, or so many of them as were in the vessel to which he belonged at the time of his receiving such hurt or damage, or of the master and 2 of the seamen, if there be no other officer, or in case the master shall die, or be killed or drowned, then of the person who shall take upon him the care of the ship or vessel, and 2 of the seamen on board the same under their hands and seals, thereby signifying how and in what manner such seaman received such hurt or damage, whether in fighting, defending, working, loading, or unloading the said ship or vessel, where and when he entered, and how long he had served on board the same; and the parties so signing and sealing such certificate are hereby required to make oath to the truth thereof before some justice of the peace, if given in Great Britain or Ireland, or the chief officer of the customs of the port or place where there is no justice of the peace, or before the British consul or resident in any foreign country where such certificate is executed (who are respectively authorised and required to administer the same without fee or reward); and in case of sickness, whereby such seaman shall be rendered incapable of service, a certificate, signed, sealed, and authenticated in like manner, signifying that he was healthy when he entered on board such ship or vessel, and that such sickness was contracted on board the same, or on shore in doing his duty in the service of the ship, and not otherwise, and expressing the time and place he entered on board such ship or vessel, and how long he had served therein; and that no widow, child, or children of any seaman killed, slain, or drowned in the said service, shall be relieved or entitled to any allowance by virtue of this act unless she or they, or some person on her or their behalf, shall produce a certificate, signed, sealed, and authenticated in like manner, signifying how and in what manner such seaman lost his life in the service of the said ship or vessel, the time and place he entered on board, and how long he had served therein; and that no widow, child, or children of any seaman in the said service shall be entitled to any relief by virtue of this act, unless she or they shall produce, or cause to be produced, a certificate under the hands and seals of the minister and churchwardens and overseers of the poor of the parish, township, or place, or any 2 of them, or under the hands and seals of the minister and overseers of the poor of the parish, township, or place, or any 2 of them, where there are no churchwardens, or if in Scotland, by the minister and elders, or if in Ireland, by a justice of the peace for the parish, township, or place where such widow, &c. shall at the time reside, and if such widow, &c. are some of the people called Quakers, then by any 2 reputable persons of that persuasion of the parish, township, or place where such widow, &c. have a legal settlement, or do inhabit and reside, to be attested by 2 or more credible witnesses that such widow was the lawful wife and real widow, and that such child or children was or were the lawful child or children of such deceased seaman as aforesaid, and that such child or children is or are under the age of 14 years, or if of that age or upwards, not capable of getting a livelihood by reason of lameness, blindness, or other infirmities, and is or are proper objects of charity; and that no seaman shall be provided for by a pension or otherwise, as decrepit or worn out, unless he have served in the merchant service for the space of five years, and have during that time paid the monthly duty out of his wages, imposed by the act 20 Geo. 2. c. 38., or by this act required to be henceforward paid and deducted, as the case may happen, for the uses and purposes herein provided.—§ 2.

Forgery of Certificate.—Forged certificates to be null and void; and those knowingly using them to be liable to the punishment of an incorrigible rogue.—§ 3.

Courts.—The president and 5 assistants to make a court, who are to meet weekly. The court may apply the monies of the corporation, and appoint the officers and their salaries, and do all other matters and things necessary.—§ 4.

All Masters and Owners of Merchant Ships or Vessels, &c. to pay 2s. per Month.—For effecting the ends and purposes aforesaid, every master of any merchant ship or vessel belonging to any British subject, and every owner, being a British subject, navigating or working his own ship or vessel, whether the said ship or vessel be employed on the high sea, or coasts of Great Britain or Ireland, or in any port, bay, or creek of the same, shall, from and after the 31st day of December, 1834, pay 2s. per month, and proportionably for a lesser time, during the time he or they shall be employed in such merchant ship or vessel, for the uses and purposes aforesaid: provided always, that such masters or owners, or their widows, and children under 14 years of age, or being objects of charity as aforesaid, shall be entitled to a proportionate increase of the pension or allowance by this act provided, according to the difference between the amount of the monthly duty paid by other seamen, mariners, and pilots, in the case such master or owner shall have paid the 2s. per month for a period of 5 years or 60 months before any application to the said president and governors for relief under this act; but in case any such master or owner be killed or drowned, or become decrepit, maimed, or disabled, before he or they shall have paid such increased rate of 2s. per month for the full period of 5 years or 60 months as aforesaid, then such masters or owners, or their widows and children, shall be entitled to such smaller pension or allowance as the said president and governors, or the trustees to be appointed, shall think fit.—§ 5.

All Seamen, or other Persons serving on board such Ships or Vessels, to pay 1s. per Month.—Every seaman or other person whatsoever who shall serve or be employed in any merchant ship, or other private ship or vessel, belonging to any British subject, whether employed on the high sea, or coasts of Great Britain or Ireland, or in any port, bay, or creek of the same, and every pilot employed on board any such ship or vessel, shall, from and after the 31st day of December, 1834, pay 1s. per month, and proportionably for a lesser time, during the time he or they shall be employed in or belong to the said ship or vessel, for the uses and purposes aforesaid: provided that this act shall not be construed to extend to any person employed in taking fish in any boat upon any of the coasts of Great Britain or Ireland, or the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, and Man, nor to any person employed in boats or vessels that trade only from place to place within any river of Great Britain or Ireland.—§ 6.

Masters of Ships to keep in their Hands 1s. per Month out of Seamen's Pay.—The master, owner, or commander of every such merchant or private ship or vessel is hereby required to deduct out of the wages, shares, or other profits payable to seamen or other persons employed on board such ship or vessel (other than those hereby excepted), the said monthly duty, and shall pay the same, together with the amount of the duty owing from himself, to such officer or officers as shall be lawfully appointed at any of the out-ports for collecting the said duty of 1s. per month, if such seamen or other persons be entitled to any such wages, shares, or profits.—§ 7.

Appointments of Receivers.—President and governors, with the concurrence of commissioners of customs, to appoint such persons to receive the monthly duties at the out-ports as they may think fit, making them a reasonable allowance for their trouble, which is not, however, in any case, to exceed 5 per cent. on the gross sum collected.—§ 8.

Muster Roll.—Every master is to keep a true and faithful muster roll of the crew of his ship, specifying in writing the name of every one of the crew, including apprentices, with the various particulars as to the place of each person's birth, the place and time of his entry to the ship, the place and time of his discharge from or leaving the same, and if he be discharged or left, with the other particulars specified in the subjoined formula, in the event of his being hurt, killed, &c.:—

A List and Account of the Crew (including the Master and Apprentices) of the Ship , of the Port of , whereof is the Master, at the Period of her Departure from the Port of in the United Kingdom, and on her Return to the Port of in the United Kingdom, and also of those who have joined the Ship at any time during the Voyage.

Men's Names.	Place of Birth.	Place and Time of Entry.				Place and Time of Discharge, or leaving the Ship.				When and where received hurt or disengaged.	When died or deserted, or died a-head Death.	Where due at time of Death.	Whether left Clothes or Effects on board, and to what amount.	Amount of Wages.
			Day.	Month.	Year.		Day.	Month.	Year.			£ s. d.		

Duplicates of this account are to be delivered to the collectors of the duties at the port where the vessel discharges; and any master or commander neglecting to keep such muster roll, and neglecting or refusing to deliver it to the collectors of the duties, shall forfeit for every such offence the sum of 5*l*. The collectors are to transmit to the president and governors the duplicates received from such vessels as do not belong to the port of discharge; and the latter are to transmit them to the same. Collectors neglecting to transmit such duplicates incur a penalty of 5*l*.—§ 9.

Masters to deduct Penalties from Wages.—The master of every ship coming within the provisions of this act shall deduct out of the wages of the seamen thereof the amount of all forfeitures incurred by any such seamen, and every master is hereby required truly to enter the same in a book to be kept by him for that purpose, which shall be signed by the master and the person next in command, both of them certifying that it contains all the forfeitures which have been incurred by the seamen of the ship during the voyage, to the truth whereof the master shall make oath when required before the officers of the president and governors in London, or before their collectors at the out-ports; and the said book, or a true copy thereof signed and certified as aforesaid, shall, within 1 calendar month after the ship's return from her voyage, be delivered to the said officer by the master, together with extracts from the log-book of the entries therein of the causes of the several forfeitures: and every master who shall refuse or neglect to deliver such account shall forfeit and pay the sum of 20*l*.—§ 10.

Examination of Masters, &c.—Collectors may summon masters of vessels, and examine them upon oath as to the truth of the muster-rolls; masters refusing to appear or to answer, to forfeit 12*l*.—§ 11.

Regulations as to Government Ships.—Secretaries, &c. of public government offices to give in a list of ships and vessels employed in their service, and of the seamen or other persons employed in such ships or vessels; and the treasurers, &c. of such offices are to pay no wages or freight to any master, &c. until he produce an acquittance signed by receiver of duties.—§ 12.

Payment of Duties.—The said monthly duties are to be paid at the port where the ship or vessel unloads her cargo, *before she be cleared inwards*; and all officers are interdicted from granting any cocket, transire, &c., or permitting any vessel to go out of any port, unless it appear by the acquittances of the collectors of the said duties that they are not more than 3 months in arrear of the same; every officer acting contrary to this regulation to forfeit 10*l*. But masters or owners may agree with the trustees and collectors for half yearly payments.—§ 13.

Prevention of delay.—To prevent unnecessary delay, it is enacted, that if masters fail to produce proper acquittance or certificate of agreement, tidewaiters to be continued on board at their expense.—§ 14.

Penalties by this act recoverable before a magistrate.—§ 15.

Appointment of Trustees, &c.—From and after the 1st day of October, 1834, it shall be lawful for the owners, masters, and commanders employed on board ships and vessels belonging to any of the out-ports to assemble and meet at any time and place within the same that shall be appointed by any 5 or more of them by giving 10 days' previous notice, to be fixed at the custom-house, wharf, quay, or other public place; and such persons, or the greater part of them, being so assembled, are authorised from time to time to nominate and appoint, by an instrument in writing under their hands and seals, 15 persons to be trustees for such out-port, for receiving, collecting, and applying the said duties, which trustees shall continue to act until the 26th day of December, 1835, and until new trustees are nominated and confirmed; and that within 10 days after the 26th day of December in each succeeding year, the owners, masters, &c. at such out-ports shall have power to meet and choose 15 persons to be trustees for the year ensuing, by an instrument in writing under their hands and seals, or the majority of them so assembled, having given previous notice in the manner before directed; which said respective trustees shall continue from time to time until new trustees are nominated, &c. as aforesaid; and the said instrument shall be sent, free of expense, to the president and assistants or committees of the said corporation, who are required to confirm the same under the common seal of the corporation, without fee or reward, within 15 days after the receipt thereof; which trustees when so confirmed (and whereof *five* shall be a quorum) shall have the same powers and authorities to make by-laws, and to revoke or alter the same, and to receive and apply any sums of money which shall be contributed, devised, or bequeathed by any well-disposed persons for the purposes aforesaid, and to appoint receivers and other officers, and to collect, receive, pay, and apply the said duties of 2*s.* per month and 1*s.* per month so to be allowed and paid by the seamen or other persons serving on board any ship or vessel belonging to such persons, at such out-ports, according to such rules, orders, and regulations as are or shall be established by virtue and in pursuance of this act, or have been established and continued under the provisions of the act 20 Geo. 2. c. 38., so *far* as the same are not inconsistent with or repealed or varied by the provisions of this act; and the said receivers and other officers shall have the same powers and authorities as the other receivers and officers appointed in pursuance of this act, and shall be liable to the same penalties and forfeitures: provided always, that if the instrument of trust be not sent to the president and assistant or committees within 60 days after every appointment of trustees, the trust thereby created shall be considered void, and the trustees appointed under it as discharged from the same; and that the president and governors shall have power to appoint a receiver or receivers for the port or place from which such instrument of trust has not been sent, for collecting the forementioned duties and allowances payable at such port or place aforesaid; and the said president and governors shall have power to demand from the outgoing trustees of such port or place an account in writing of the former management of such void trust, and also to demand payment from such trustees of any balance which may at the time of such default be in their hands, who are hereby required to pay the same to such receiver appointed as aforesaid, together with the books of account and other books belonging to such trustees relative to such trust.—§ 16

Appointments on Default.—These are not to be revocable within 5 years.—§ 17.

Former Trustees.—Trustees previously appointed at the several out-ports to be subject to the provisions of this act.—§ 18.

Trustees in Bristol.—The corporation of the Merchants Venturers of Bristol are appointed trustees for the duties, &c. received there; and empowered to hold lands, &c. for the purpose of this act.—§ 19.

Hull Trustees.—The guild of the Trinity-house of Kingston-upon-Hull appointed trustees for the duties, &c. received there.—§ 20.

Greenock and Glasgow, &c.—The ports of Glasgow, Greenock, and Port Glasgow, &c. to be deemed one united port, and masters of ships belonging thereto to elect trustees for collecting duties, &c.—§ 21.

Transmission of Accounts.—Trustees of out-ports to transmit accounts of the yearly receipts and expenditure to president and governors.—§ 22.

Transmission of Muster Rolls.—Collectors appointed by trustees or corporations aforesaid are exempted from sending duplicate of muster rolls to the president and assistants.—§ 23.

Sections 24. and 25. enact that no seaman shall be entitled to the benefit of this act unless he pays the duty; and that those seamen who have served longest shall be first provided for.

Maimed Seamen to be provided for at the port where the accident happens.—§ 26.

Disabled Seamen having served and paid 5 years, to be provided for where they have contributed most.—§ 27.

Seamen shipwrecked, or made Prisoners by the Enemy, may be relieved.—§ 28.

Where regular Certificates cannot be obtained, others may be admitted.—In all cases where the certificates directed to be produced by this act for the purpose of entitling parties to relief and support cannot be obtained, such other certificates as shall be satisfactory to the president and governors or trustees respectively shall be received and allowed, so as to entitle the party producing the same to the pensions or other relief provided by this act.—§ 29.

Wages of deceased Seamen to be paid to the Trustees.—All sums of money due for wages to any seaman, mariner, or other person engaged on board any British merchant ship in any port or ports in Great Britain and Ireland, who shall have died on board during the voyage, shall, within 3 months after the arrival of such ship in any port of Great Britain and Ireland, be paid to the trustees of the said port appointed in pursuance of this act, or to the receiver or collector or other authorised agent of the said president and governors, where there are no such trustees, to and for the use of the executors or administrators of the seaman or other person so dying; and in case no claim shall be made on the said trustees by such executors or administrators on account of such wages, within 1 year after the same have been paid over, then the said trustees shall remit the same to the collector or receiver or other their authorised agent of the president and governors at the port of London, in such manner and times as the said president, &c. shall direct, to and for the use of the executors or administrators of the seaman or other person so dying; and in case no claim shall be made on the said president, &c. by the executors, &c. of such seaman on account of such wages within 1 year after the same shall have been first paid over to their collector, then it shall be lawful for them to direct such wages to be paid over (but without interest for the same) to the widow, or if there be no widow claiming, then to the lawful issue respectively, or such persons as by virtue of the statutes of distribution of intestates' effects shall be entitled to the same; and if any master or commander of any merchant ship neglect or refuse to pay over to the said trustees, or the receiver or collector at the port aforesaid, all such sums of money within the time before limited, he shall forfeit for every such offence double the amount of the sums of money due to any seaman or other person for wages.—§ 30.

Wages, if not demanded in 3 Years by representatives, to go to the use of the president and governors, or the trustees of the respective ports.—§ 31.

Payment to Seamen's Hospital in London.—President and governors to pay 5 per cent. out of duties received by them from seamen in the port of London to the Seamen's Hospital Society in that port.—§ 32.

Deductions from Gross Amount.—It shall be lawful for the receiver or collector or other authorised agent of the president and governors at the port of London, and he is hereby authorised, to deduct, and receive from the gross amount of such sums of money as shall be derived from the unclaimed wages of deceased seamen, received by him in respect of such wages, 5 per cent. in satisfaction of all expenses and trouble he may be put to in the receipt, collection, or transmission thereof.

The contributions to the new fund will, most likely, amount to about 50,000*l.* a year; so that, if it be discreetly and economically managed, it will afford the means of suitably providing for a large number of disabled merchant seamen, as well as for the wives and children of those who have lost their lives in that service. The distressing consequences of those accidents and casualties to which seamen are so peculiarly liable, will thus be materially reduced; so that the service will, in fact, be rendered less hazardous, and more respectable.

Sup.)

[Seamen (American).

We subjoin the principal statutory regulations for the protection and government of seamen in the United States.

Act of Congress of the 20th of July, 1790.—§ 1. That from and after the first day of December next, every master or commander of any ship or vessel bound from a port in the United States to any foreign port, or of any ship or vessel of the burthen of fifty tons or upwards, bound from a port in one state to a port in any other than an adjoining state, shall, before he proceed on such voyage, make an agreement in writing or in print, with every seaman or mariner on board such ship or vessel (except such as shall be apprentice or servant to himself or owners) declaring the voyage or voyages, term or terms of time, for which such seaman or mariner shall be shipped. And if any master or commander of such ship or vessel, shall carry out any seaman or mariner (except apprentices or servants as aforesaid) without such contract or agreement being first made and signed by the seamen and mariners, such master or commander shall pay to every such seaman or mariner, the highest price or wages which shall have been given at the port or place where such seaman or mariner shall have been shipped, for a similar voyage, within three months next before the time of such shipping: *Provided* such seaman or mariner shall perform such voyage: or if not, then for such time as he shall continue to do duty on board such ship or vessel; and shall, moreover, forfeit twenty dollars for every such seaman or mariner, one half to the use of the person prosecuting for the same, the other half to the use of the United States: and such seaman or mariner, not having signed such contract, shall not be bound by the regulations, nor subject to the penalties and forfeitures, contained in this act.

§ 2. That at the foot of every such contract, there shall be a memorandum in writing, of the day and the hour on which such seaman or mariner, who shall so ship and subscribe, shall render themselves on board, to begin the voyage agreed upon. And if any such seaman or mariner shall neglect

to render himself on board the ship or vessel, for which he has shipped, at the time mentioned in such memorandum, and if the master, commander or other officer of the ship or vessel, shall, on the day on which such neglect happened, make an entry in the logbook of such ship or vessel, of the name of such seaman or mariner, and shall, in like manner, state the time that he so neglected to render himself, (after the time appointed), every such seaman or mariner shall forfeit, for every hour which he shall so neglect to render himself, one day's pay, according to the rate of wages agreed upon, to be deducted out of his wages. And if any such seaman or mariner shall wholly neglect to render himself on board of such ship or vessel, or having rendered himself on board, shall afterwards desert and escape, so that the ship or vessel proceed to sea without him, every such seaman or mariner shall forfeit and pay to the master, owner, or consignee, of the said ship or vessel, a sum equal to that which shall have been paid to him by advance at the time of signing the contract, over and besides the sum so advanced, both which sums shall be recoverable in any court, or before any justice or justices of any state, city, town, or county, within the United States, which, by the laws thereof, have cognizance of debts of equal value, against such seaman or mariner, or his surety or sureties, in case he shall have given surety to proceed the voyage.

§ 3. That if the mate or first officer under the master, and a majority of the crew of any ship or vessel, bound on a voyage to any foreign port, shall, after the voyage is begun (and before the ship or vessel shall have left the land) discover that the said ship or vessel is too leaky, or is otherwise unfit in her crew, body, tackle, apparel, furniture, provisions, or stores, to proceed on the intended voyage, and shall require such unfitness to be enquired into, the master or commander shall, upon the request of the said mate (or other officer) and such majority, forthwith proceed to or stop at the nearest or most convenient port or place where such enquiry can be made, and shall there apply to the judge of the district court, if he shall there reside, or if not, to some justice of the peace of the city, town, or place, taking with him two or more of the said crew, who shall have made such request; and thereupon such judge or justice is hereby authorized and required to issue his precept, directed to three persons in the neighborhood, the most skilful in maritime affairs, that can be procured, requiring them to repair on board such ship or vessel, and to examine the same, in respect to the defects and insufficiencies complained of, and to make report to him, the said judge or justice, in writing, under their hands, or the hands of two of them, whether in any, or in what, respect the said ship or vessel is unfit to proceed on the intended voyage, and what addition of men, provisions, or stores, or what repairs or alterations in the body, tackle, or apparel, will be necessary; and upon such report, the said judge or justice shall adjudge and determine, and shall endorse on the said report his judgment, whether the said ship or vessel is fit to proceed on the intended voyage; and if not, whether such repairs can be made, or deficiencies supplied, where the ship or vessel then lays, or whether it be necessary for the said ship or vessel to return to the port from whence she first sailed, to be there refitted; and the master and crew shall in all things conform to the said judgment; and the master or commander shall, in the first instance, pay all the costs of such view, report, and judgment, to be taxed and allowed on a fair copy thereof, certified by the said judge or justice. But if the complaint of the said crew shall appear, upon the said report and judgment, to have been without foundation, then the said master, or the owner or consignee of such ship or vessel, shall deduct the amount thereof, and of reasonable damages for the detention (to be ascertained by the said judge or justice) out of the wages growing due to the complaining seamen or mariners. And if, after such judgment, such ship or vessel is fit to proceed on her intended voyage, or after procuring such men, provisions, stores, repairs, or alterations, as may be directed, the said seamen or mariners, or either of them, shall refuse to proceed on the voyage, it shall and may be lawful for any justice of the peace to commit, by warrant under his hand and seal every such seaman or mariner (who shall so refuse) to the common gaol of the county, there to remain without bail or mainprise, until he shall have paid double the sum advanced to him at the time of subscribing the contract for the voyage, together with such reasonable costs as shall be allowed by the said justice, and inserted in the said warrant, and the surety or sureties of such seaman or mariner (in case he or they shall have given any) shall remain liable for such payment; nor shall any such seaman or mariner be discharged upon any writ of habeas corpus, or otherwise, until such sum be paid by him or them, or his or their surety or sureties, for want of any form of commitment, or other previous proceedings. *Provided*, That sufficient matter shall be made to appear, upon the return of such habeas corpus and an examination then to be had, to detain him for the causes hereinbefore assigned.

§ 4. That if any person shall harbor, or secrete, any seaman or mariner, belonging to any ship or vessel, knowing them to belong thereto, every such person, on conviction thereof, before any court in the city, town or county, where he, she, or they, may reside, shall forfeit and pay ten dollars for every day which he, she, or they, shall continue so to harbor or secrete such seaman or mariner, one half to the use of the person prosecuting for the same, the other half to the use of the United States; and no sum exceeding one dollar, shall be recoverable from any seaman or mariner by any one person, for any debt contracted during the time such seaman or mariner shall actually belong to any ship or vessel, until the voyage, for which such seaman or mariner engaged, shall be ended.

§ 5. That if any seaman or mariner who shall have subscribed such contract as is hereinbefore described, shall absent himself from on board the ship or vessel, in which he shall so have shipped, without leave of the master or officer commanding on board; and the mate, or other officer having charge of the logbook, shall make an entry therein of the name of such seaman or mariner, on the day on which he shall so absent himself, and if such seaman or mariner shall return to his duty within forty-eight hours, such seaman or mariner shall forfeit three days' pay for every day which he shall so absent himself, to be deducted out of his wages: but if any seaman or mariner shall absent himself for more than forty-eight hours at one time, he shall forfeit all the wages due to him, and all his goods and chattels which were on board the said ship or vessel, or in any store where they may have been lodged at the time of his desertion, to the use of the owners of the ship or vessel, and moreover shall be liable to pay to him or them, all damages which he or they may sustain by being obliged to hire other seamen or mariners in his or their place; and such damages shall be recovered with costs, in any court, or before any justice or justices, having jurisdiction of the recovery of debts to the value of ten dollars, or upwards.

§ 6. That every seaman or mariner shall be entitled to demand and receive, from the master or commander of the ship or vessel to which they belong, one-third part of the wages which shall be due to him, at every port where such ship or vessel shall unlade and deliver her cargo before the voyage be ended, unless the contrary be expressly stipulated in the contract: and as soon as the voyage is ended, and the cargo or ballast be fully discharged at the last port of delivery, every seaman or mariner shall be entitled to the wages which shall be then due according to his contract: and if such wages shall not be paid within ten days after such discharge, or if any dispute shall arise between the master and seamen or mariners, touching the said wages, it shall be lawful for the judge of the district where the said ship or vessel shall be, or in case his residence be more than three miles from the place, or of his absence from the place of his residence, then, for any judge or justice of the peace, to summon the master of such ship or vessel to appear before him, to show cause why process should not issue against such ship or vessel, her tackle, furniture, and apparel, according to the course of admiralty courts, to answer for the said wages: and if the master shall neglect to appear, or appearing, shall not show

that the wages are paid, or otherwise satisfied or forfeited, and if the matter in dispute shall not be forthwith settled, in such case the judge or justice shall certify to the clerk of the court of the district, that there is sufficient cause of complaint whereon to found admiralty process, and thereupon the clerk of such court shall issue process against the said ship or vessel, and the suit shall be proceeded on in the said court, and final judgment be given according to the course of admiralty courts in such cases used; and in such suit all the seamen or mariners (having cause of complaint of the like kind against the same ship or vessel) shall be joined as complainants; and it shall be incumbent on the master or commander to produce the contract and logbook, if required, to ascertain any matters in dispute; otherwise the complainants shall be permitted to state the contents thereof, and the proof of the contrary shall lie on the master or commander; but nothing herein contained shall prevent any seaman or mariner from having or maintaining any action at common law, for the recovery of his wages, or from immediate process out of any court having admiralty jurisdiction, wherever any ship or vessel may be found, in case she shall have left the port of delivery where her voyage ended before payment of the wages, or in case she shall be about to proceed to sea before the end of the ten days next after the delivery of her cargo or ballast.

§7. That if any seaman or mariner, who shall have signed a contract to perform a voyage, shall, at any port or place, desert, or shall absent himself from such ship or vessel, without leave of the master, or officer commanding in the absence of the master, it shall be lawful for any justice of the peace within the United States (upon the complaint of the master) to issue his warrant to apprehend such deserter, and bring him before such justice; and if it shall then appear, by due proof, that he has signed a contract within the intent and meaning of this act, and that the voyage agreed for is not finished, altered, or the contract otherwise dissolved, and that such seaman or mariner has deserted the ship or vessel, or absented himself without leave, the said justice shall commit him to the house of correction, or common gaol of the city, town, or place, there to remain until the said ship or vessel shall be ready to proceed on her voyage, or till the master shall require his discharge, and then to be delivered to the said master, he paying all the cost of such commitment, and deducting the same out of the wages due to such seaman or mariner.

§8. That every ship or vessel, belonging to a citizen or citizens of the United States, of the burthen of one hundred and fifty tons or upwards, navigated by ten or more persons in the whole, and bound on a voyage without the limits of the United States, shall be provided with a chest of medicines, put up by some apothecary of known reputation, and accompanied by directions for administering the same; and the said medicines shall be examined by the same or some other apothecary, once, at least, in every year, and supplied with fresh medicines in the place of such as shall have been used or spoiled; and in default of having such medicine chest so provided, and kept fit for use, the master or commander of such ship or vessel shall provide and pay for all such advice, medicine, or attendance of physicians, as any of the crew shall stand in need of in case of sickness, at every port or place where the ship or vessel may touch or trade at during the voyage, without any deduction from the wages of such sick seaman or mariner.

§9. That every ship or vessel, belonging as aforesaid, bound on a voyage across the Atlantic ocean, shall, at the time of leaving the last port from whence she sails, have on board, well secured under deck, at least sixty gallons of water, one hundred pounds of salted flesh meat, and one hundred pounds of wholesome shipbread, for every person on board such ship or vessel, over and besides such other provisions, stores, and live stock, as shall, by the master or passengers, be put on board, and in like proportion for shorter or longer voyages; and in case the crew of any ship or vessel, which shall not have been so provided, shall be put upon short allowance in water, flesh, or bread, during the voyage, the master or owner of such ship or vessel shall pay, to each of the crew, one day's wages beyond the wages agreed on, for every day they shall be so put to short allowance, to be recovered in the same manner as their stipulated wages.

The provisions of the 8th section of this act, relating to a chest of medicines, have since been extended to all merchant vessels, of 75 tons or upwards, bound to the West Indies.

Act of the 10th of July, 1798.—§ 1. That from and after the first day of September next, the master or owner of every ship or vessel of the United States, arriving from a foreign port into any port of the United States, shall, before such ship or vessel shall be admitted to an entry, render to the collector a true account of the number of seamen that shall have been employed on board such vessel since she was last entered at any port in the United States, and shall pay, to the said collector, at the rate of twenty cents per month for every seaman so employed; which sum he is hereby authorised to retain out of the wages of such seamen.

§2. That from and after the first day of September next, no collector shall grant to any ship or vessel whose enrolment or license for carrying on the coasting trade has expired, a new enrolment or license, before the master of such ship or vessel shall first render a true account to the collector, of the number of seamen, and the time they have severally been employed on board such ship or vessel, during the continuance of the license which has so expired, and pay to such collector twenty cents per month for every month such seamen have been severally employed as aforesaid; which sum the said master is hereby authorised to retain out of the wages of such seamen. And if any such master shall render a false account of the number of men, and the length of time they have severally been employed, as is herein required, he shall forfeit and pay one hundred dollars.

§3. That it shall be the duty of the several collectors to make a quarterly return of the sums collected by them, respectively, by virtue of this act, to the secretary of the treasury; and the president of the United States is hereby authorised, out of the same, to provide for the temporary relief and maintenance of sick or disabled seamen, in the hospitals or other proper institutions now established in the several ports of the United States, or in ports where no such institutions exist, then in such other manner as he shall direct: *Provided*, That the moneys collected in any one district, shall be expended within the same.

§4. That if any surplus shall remain of the moneys to be collected by virtue of this act, after defraying the expense of such temporary relief and support, that the same, together with such private donations as may be made for that purpose, (which the president is hereby authorized to receive,) shall be invested in the stock of the United States, under the direction of the President; and when, in his opinion, a sufficient fund shall be accumulated, he is hereby authorised to purchase or receive cessions or donations of ground or buildings, in the name of the United States, and to cause buildings, when necessary, to be erected as hospitals for the accommodation of sick and disabled seamen.

§5. That the president of the United States be, and he is hereby authorised to nominate and appoint, in such ports of the United States as he may think proper, one or more persons, to be called directors of the marine hospital of the United States, whose duty it shall be to direct the expenditure of the fund assigned for their respective ports, according to the 3d section of this act; to provide for the accommodation of sick and disabled seamen, under such general instructions as shall be given by the president of the United States for that purpose, and also, subject to the like general instructions to direct and goverr such hospitals, as the president may direct to be built in the respective ports: and that the said directors shall hold their offices during the pleasure of the president, who is authorized to fill up all vacancies that may be occasioned by the death or removal of any of the persons so to be appointed. And the said directors shall render an account of the moneys received and expended by them, once in

every quarter of a year, to the secretary of the treasury, or such other person as the president shall direct; but no other allowance or compensation shall be made to the said directors, except the payment of such expenses as they may incur in the actual discharge of the duties required by this act.

Act of the 2d of March, 1799.—§ 1. That the president of the United States shall be, and he hereby is, authorised to direct the expenditure of any moneys which have been, or shall be, collected by virtue of an act, entitled "An act for the relief of sick and disabled seamen," to be made within the state wherein the same shall have been collected, or within the state next adjoining thereto, excepting what may be collected in the states of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; any thing in the said act contained, to the contrary thereof notwithstanding.

§ 2. That the secretary of the navy shall be, and he hereby is, authorised and directed to deduct, after the first day of September next, from the pay thereafter to become due, of the officers, seamen, and marines, of the navy of the United States, at the rate of twenty cents per month, for every such officer, seaman, and marine, and to pay the same, quarter annually, to the secretary of the treasury, to be applied to the same purposes as the money collected by virtue of the above mentioned act is appropriated.

§ 3. That the officers, seamen, and marines, of the navy of the United States, shall be entitled to receive the same benefits and advantages, as, by the act abovementioned, are provided for the relief of the sick and disabled seamen of the merchant vessels of the United States.

Act of the 3d of May, 1802.—§ 1. That the moneys heretofore collected in pursuance of the several acts "for the relief of sick and disabled seamen," and at present unexpended, together with the moneys hereafter to be collected by authority of the beforementioned acts, shall constitute a general fund, which the president of the United States shall use and employ, as circumstances shall require, for the benefit and convenience of sick and disabled American seamen: *Provided*, That the sum of fifteen thousand dollars be, and the same is hereby, appropriated for the erection of an hospital in the district of Massachusetts.

§ 2. That it shall be lawful for the president of the United States to cause such measures to be taken as, in his opinion, may be expedient for providing convenient accommodations, medical assistance, necessary attendance, and supplies, for the relief of sick or disabled seamen of the United States, who may be at or near the port of New Orleans, in case the same can be done with the assent of the government having jurisdiction over the port; and for this purpose, to establish such regulations, and to authorize the employment of such persons, as he may judge proper; and that, for defraying the expense thereof, a sum, not exceeding three thousand dollars, be paid out of any moneys arising from the said fund, not otherwise appropriated.

§ 3. That, from and after the thirtieth day of June next, the master of every boat, raft, or flat, belonging to any citizen of the United States, which shall go down the Mississippi, with intention to proceed to New Orleans, shall, on his arrival at fort Adams, render to the collector or naval officer thereof, a true account of the number of persons employed on board such boat, raft, or flat, and the time that each person has been so employed, and shall pay, to the said collector or naval officer, at the rate of twenty cents per month, for every person so employed; which sum he is hereby authorized to retain out of the wages of such person: and the said collector or naval officer shall not give a clearance for such boat, raft, or flat, to proceed on her voyage to New Orleans, until an account be rendered to him of the number of persons employed on board such boat, raft, or flat, and the money paid to him by the master or owner thereof: and if any such master shall render a false account of the number of persons, and the length of time they have severally been employed, as is herein required, he shall forfeit and pay fifty dollars, which shall be applied to, and shall make a part of, the said general fund, for the purposes of this act: *Provided*, That all persons employed in navigating any such boat, raft, or flat, shall be considered as seamen of the United States, and entitled to the relief extended by law to sick and disabled seamen.

§ 5. That each and every director of the marine hospitals within the United States, shall, if it can with convenience be done, admit into the hospital of which he is director, sick foreign seamen, on the application of the master or commander of any foreign vessel to which such sick seaman may belong; and each seaman so admitted shall be subject to a charge of seventy-five cents per day for each day he may remain in the hospital, the payment of which the master or commander of such foreign vessel shall make to the collector of the district in which such hospital is situated: and the collector shall not grant a clearance to any foreign vessel, until the money due from such master or commander, in manner and form aforesaid, shall be paid; and the director of each hospital is hereby directed, under the penalty of fifty dollars, to make out the accounts against each foreign seaman that may be placed in the hospital, under his direction, and render the same to the collector.

Act of the 28th of February, 1803.—§ 3. That whenever a ship or vessel, belonging to a citizen of the United States, shall be sold in a foreign country, and her company discharged, or when a seaman or mariner, a citizen of the United States, shall, with his own consent, be discharged in a foreign country, it shall be the duty of the master or commander to produce to the consul, or vice consul, commercial agent, or vice commercial agent, the list of his ship's company, certified as aforesaid, and to pay to such consul, vice consul, commercial agent, or vice commercial agent, for every seaman or mariner so discharged, being designated on such list as a citizen of the United States, three months' pay, over and above the wages which may then be due to such mariner or seaman, two thirds thereof to be paid by such consul or commercial agent, to each seaman or mariner so discharged, upon his engagement on board of any vessel to return to the United States, and the other remaining third to be retained for the purpose of creating a fund for the payment of the passages of seamen or mariners, citizens of the United States, who may be desirous of returning to the United States, and for the maintenance of American seamen who may be destitute, and may be in such foreign port; and the several sums retained for such fund shall be accounted for with the treasury every six months, by the persons receiving the same.

§ 4. That it shall be the duty of the consuls, vice consuls, commercial agents, vice commercial agents of the United States, from time to time, to provide for the mariners and seamen of the United States, who may be found destitute within their districts, respectively, sufficient subsistence and passages to some port in the United States, in the most reasonable manner, at the expense of the United States, subject to such instructions as the secretary of state shall give; and that all masters and commanders of vessels belonging to citizens of the United States, and bound to some port of the same, are hereby required and enjoined to take such mariners or seamen on board of their ships or vessels, at the request of the said consuls, vice consuls, commercial agents, or vice commercial agents, respectively, and to transport them to the port in the United States to which such ships or vessels may be bound, on such terms, not exceeding ten dollars for each person, as may be agreed between the said master and consul, or commercial agent. And the said mariners or seamen shall, if able, be bound to do duty on board such ships or vessels, according to their several abilities: *Provided*, That no master or captain of any ship or vessel shall be obliged to take a greater number than two men to every one hundred tons burthen of the said ship or vessel, on any one voyage; and if any such captain or master shall refuse the same, on the request or order of the consul, vice consul, commercial agent, or vice commercial agent, such captain or master shall forfeit and pay the sum of one hundred dollars for each mariner or seaman so refused, to be recovered, for the benefit of the United States, in any court of competent jurisdiction. And the certificate of any such consul or commercial agent, given under his hand and

official seal, shall be prima facie evidence of such refusal, in any court of law having jurisdiction for the recovery of the penalty aforesaid.

The reader may also be referred to *Kent's Commentaries on American Law* for a comprehensive and excellent statement of the law relating to seamen.—*Am. Ed.*]

SEAWORTHY, a term applied to a ship, indicating that she is in every respect fit for her voyage.

It is provided in all charterparties, that the vessel chartered shall be "tight, staunch, and strong, well apparelled, furnished with an adequate number of men and mariners, tackle, provisions, &c." If the ship be insufficient in any of these particulars, the owners, though ignorant of the circumstance, will be liable for whatever damage may, in consequence, be done to the goods of the merchant; and if an insurance has been effected upon her, it will be void.

But whether the condition of seaworthiness be expressed in the charterparty or not, it is always implied. "In every contract," said Lord Ellenborough, "between a person holding himself forth as the owner of a lighter or vessel ready to carry goods for hire, and the person putting goods on board, or employing his vessel or lighter for that purpose, it is a term of the contract on the part of the lighterman or carrier *implied by law*, that his vessel is tight, and fit for the purpose for which he offers and holds it forth to the public: it is the immediate foundation and substratum of the contract that it is so: *the law presumes a promise to that effect on the part of the carrier, without any actual proof;* and every reason of sound policy and public convenience requires that it should be so."

Not only must the ship and furniture be sufficient for the voyage, but she must also be furnished with a sufficient number of persons of competent skill and ability to navigate her. And for sailing down rivers, out of harbours, or through roads, &c., where either by usage or the laws of the country a pilot is required, a pilot must be taken on board. But no owner or master of a ship shall be answerable for any loss or damage by reason of no pilot being on board, unless it shall be proved that the want of a pilot shall have arisen from any refusal to take a pilot on board; or from the negligence of the master in not heaving to, for the purpose of taking on board any pilot who shall be ready and offer to take charge of the ship.—(48 *Geo.* 3. c. 164.)

A ship is not seaworthy unless she be provided with all the documents or papers necessary for the manifestation of the ship and cargo. Neither is she seaworthy, if, during war, she be not supplied with the sails required to facilitate her escape from an enemy.

It is only necessary, to guarantee the owners from loss, that the ship should be seaworthy at the time of her departure. She may cease to be so in a few hours, and yet they may not be liable. The question to be decided in such cases always is, whether the ship's disability arose from any defect existing in her *before* her departure, or from a cause which occasioned it *afterwards*. But if a ship, within a day or two of her departure, become leaky or founder at sea, or be obliged to put back, without any visible or adequate cause to produce such an effect—such as the starting of a plank or other accident to which the best ships are liable, and which no human prudence can prevent—the fair presumption is that she was not seaworthy when she sailed; and it will be incumbent on the owners to show that she was seaworthy at that time. They are liable for damage occasioned by every injury arising from any *original defect* in the ship, or from bad stowage: but they are not liable for any injury arising from the act of God, the king's enemies, or the perils of the sea.

It is further to be observed, that how perfect soever a ship may be, yet if, from the nature of her construction, or any other causes, she be incapable of performing the proposed voyage, with the proposed cargo on board, she is not seaworthy. *She must be, in all respects, fit for the trade in which she is meant to be employed.* And it is a wholesome rule that the owners should be held to a pretty strict proof of this.

It has been already observed, that any defect in point of seaworthiness invalidates an insurance upon a ship. There is not only an express but an implied warranty in every policy, that the ship shall be "tight, staunch, and strong, &c.;" and the reason of this is plain. The insurer undertakes to indemnify the insured against the *extraordinary and unforeseen perils of the sea;* and it would be absurd to suppose that any man would insure against those perils, but in the confidence that the ship is in a condition to encounter the *ordinary perils* to which every ship must be exposed in the usual course of the proposed voyage.

By the old law of France it was directed, that every merchant ship, before her departure from the place of her outfit, should be surveyed by certain sea officers appointed for that purpose, and reported to be seaworthy, "*en bon état de navigation;*" and that previous to her return, before she took her homeward cargo on board, she should be again surveyed. Valin has shown—(Tit. *Fret*, art. 12.), that very little confidence could be placed in these surveys, which, he tells us, were only made upon the external parts, for the ship was not unsheathed; and, therefore, her internal and hidden defects could not be disclosed. This practice seems now to be abandoned by the French; at least, there is no allusion to it in the *Code de Commerce*. It is, one should think, much better to leave the question as to the seaworthiness of the ship to be ascertained, as in England, after a loss has happened, by an investigation of the true cause of such loss, than to permit so important a question to be decided upon the

report of officers without any motive to inquire carefully into her actual condition. A ship may, to all appearance, be perfectly capable of performing a voyage; and it is only after a loss has happened, that her latent defects can be discovered, and her true state at the time of her departure rendered manifest. Indeed, the survey made by the French was not deemed a conclusive proof that the ship was, at her departure, really seaworthy: it merely raised a *presumption* that such was the case; but it was still open to the freighter or the insurer to show the contrary.

For further information upon this point, the reader is referred to the able and excellent works of *Chief Justice Abbott* (*Lord Tenterden*) on the *Law of Shipping*, part iii. c. 3., and of *Mr. Serjeant Marshall* on *Insurance*, book i. c. 5. § 1.

SEEDS, in commerce, the grains of several species of gramina. Those of most importance are clover seed, flax or linseed, hemp seed, mustard seed, rape seed, tares, &c.; for which, see the respective articles.

SEGARS, OR CIGARS. See TOBACCO.

SENNA (Fr. *Sene*; Ger. *Sennablater*; It. *Senna*; Sp. *Sen*; Lat. *Cassia Senna*; Arab. *Suna*). The plant (*Cassia Senna*) which yields the leaves known in commerce and the *materia medica* by the name of senna, is an annual, a native of Upper Egypt, and Bernou in Central Africa. The senna after being collected in Upper Egypt, is packed up in bales, and sent to Boullac, where it is mixed with other leaves, some of which are nearly equally good, while others are very inferior. After being mixed, it is repacked in bales at Alexandria, and sent to Europe. A great deal of senna is imported from Calcutta and Bombay, under the name of East India senna; but it is originally brought to them from Arabia.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*) Senna is very extensively used in medicine. The total quantity imported in 1831 amounted to 250,296 lbs., of which 130,222 lbs. were retained for home consumption. Of the imports, 42,519 lbs. came directly from Egypt; 200,990 lbs. from the East Indies; and a small quantity at second hand from Italy and other places. The imports of senna from India in 1832 amounted to 4[illegible],017 lbs. The duty was reduced, in 1832, from 1*s.* 3*d.* to 6*d.* per lb.

SHAGREEN (Ger. *Schagrin*; It. *Chagrin*; Rus. *Schagrim, Schagren*), a kind of grained leather, used for various purposes in the arts. It is extensively manufactured at Astrakhan in Russia.—(See *Thoke's Russia*, vol. iii. p. 403.)

SHAMMY, OR CHAMOIS LEATHER (Ger. *Sämischleder*; Fr. *Chamois*; It. *Camoscio*; Rus. *Samshanüt, Koshi*), a kind of leather dressed in oil, or tanned, and much esteemed for its softness, pliancy, and capability of bearing soap without hurt. The real shammy is prepared of the skin of the chamois goat. But leather prepared from the skins of the common goat, kid, and sheep, is frequently substituted in its stead.

(SHARES IN JOINT STOCK COMPANIES (PRICES OF, &c.).—The following Table may, we hope, be useful to such of our readers as have not ready access to the lists regularly published in London. It embraces the various companies of which shares are usually on sale in the London market, exhibiting the number of shares in each, the sum paid up on account of such shares, the price which they brought on the 3d of April, 1840, the then dividend on account of each share, and the periods when the dividends are payable. It is taken from Wettenhall's List, the most authentic record of such matters. It can hardly, we think, fail to be interesting; for, though some of the particulars embodied in it will soon become obsolete, others will not easily change, and it will be always valuable as a standard of comparison.

Increase of Companies.—The extraordinary increase of joint-stock companies, for the construction of railways, the formation of banks, insurance offices, &c., is not one of the least interesting phenomena of the present times. This increase makes it peculiarly desirable that the law as to these associations, both as respects the engagements between them and the public, and the rights and obligations of the partners in reference to each other, should be clearly defined and laid down; and we have heard that it is intended to introduce a measure in furtherance of these objects. The subject, however, is one of considerable difficulty, and should be approached with great caution. But whatever may be done in this matter, we trust that no attempt will be made, directly or indirectly, to lessen the indefinite responsibility of every partner in such concerns for their debts and engagements. We look upon this unlimited individual responsibility as by far the best, or rather the only, security that is worth a straw for their honest and prudent management. The introduction of partnerships *en commandite*, or of partnerships with limited responsibility, would be both unnecessary and mischievous: unnecessary, because there is no disinclination on the part of individuals to embark, as the law now stands, in any undertaking, how hazardous soever, that affords a reasonable prospect of even a moderate return; and mischievous, because partnerships with limited responsibility may be, and in fact frequently are, converted into engines for deceiving and defrauding the public. Some companies have endeavoured to defeat this indefinite liability by inserting clauses to that effect among the conditions on which they profess to do business. But it is believed that these stipulations are illegal; of their inexpediency there can be no doubt: and as they may entrap the unwary, and give rise to litigation, their prohibition by an act of the legislature would seem to be a prudent measure.

Table of the principal Joint Stock Companies in England and Wales, the number of Shares in each, the Sum paid up on account of such Shares, with their Prices, Dividends, &c. on the 3d of April, 1840.

No. of Shares.	Description of Companies.	Amount of Shares paid up.	Price per Share.	Dividends per Annum.	Dividends Due.
	CANALS.	*Shares. Paid.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	
1,766	Ashton and Oldham, Average 97*l.* 18*s.*		112 0 0	7 0 0 per ct.	March and Sep.
1,482	Ashby de-la-Zouch,	Av. 113*l.*	72 0 0	1 0 0	April and Oct.
700	Barnsley	160	- - -	14 0 0	Jan. and July
1,000	Basingstoke	100	5 0 0		
1,000	Brecknock and Abergavenny	150	94 10 0	5 10 0	Jan. and July
1,200 1-8 sh.	Birmingham 1-16th share, 8*l.* 15*s.* & 7*l.* 5*d.*		218 0 0	10 0 0	June and Dec.
4,000	Birm. and Liv. Junction	100	97 0 0		
400	Chelmer and Blackwater	100	101 0 0	5 0 0	January
500	Coventry	100	- - -	11 0 0	May and Nov.
400	Cromford	100	- - -	27 0 0	Jan. and July
2,000 3-4	Dudley	100	99 0 0	4 10 0	March and Sep.
600	Derby	100	138 0 0	13 0 0	Jan. and July
10,000	Danube and Mayne	41*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*	- - -	1 0 0 —	
5,376 3-4	Ellesmere and Chester	Av. 133	82 0 0	1 0 0	September
251	Erewash	100	800 0 0	2 0 0	April and Oct.
1,227	Forth and Clyde	Av. 400*l.* 16*s.*	620 0 0	30 0 0	Jan. and July
11,000	Grand Junction	100	161 0 0	10 0 0	June and Dec.
3,240 1-2	Grand Union	100	24 0 0	1 0 0	October
1,500	Grand Surrey	100	- - -	- - -	March and Sep.
8,000	Grand Western	100 100	12 0 0		[and Dec.
600	Glamorganshire	Av. cost 172*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*	- - -	13 12 8	March, June, Sep
740	Grantham	150	- - -	2 0 0	May
6,200	Huddersfield,	Av. 57*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.*	35 10 0	2 0 0	September
15,333	Kennet and Avon	Av. 39*l.* 18*s.* 10*d.*	28 0 0	1 7 0	March and Sep.
11,693 1-2	Lancaster	Av. 47*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*	28 10 0	1 5 0	March
2,297 3-4	Leeds and Liverpool	100	780 0 0	60 0 0	May and Nov.
545 3-4	Leicester	140	205 0 0	16 10 0	Jan. and July
1,997	Leicester and Northampton	Av. 83*l.* 10*s.*	81 0 0	5 10 0	June and Dec.
70	Loughborough	Av. 142*l.* 17*s.*	2,250 0 0	180 0 0	Jan. and July
2,400	Monmouthshire	100	198 0 0	10 0 0	June and Dec.
700	Monigomeryshire	100	98 0 0	1 10 0	August
850	Melton Mowbray	100	200 0 0	10 0 0	July
500	Mersey and Irwell	100	580 0 0	25 0 0	October
3,000	Macclesfield	100	46 0 0	2 10 0	August
247	Neath	100	325 0 0	7 0 0	Jan. and July
1,780	Oxford	100	610 0 0	30 0 0	March and Sep.
2,400	Peak Forest	Av. about 72	91 0 0	5 0 0	June and Dec.
17,418	Regent's (or London)	Av. 33*l.* 16*s.* 8*d.*	12*l.* & 12*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*	0 7 0	July
5,000	Rochdale	Av. 85	93 0 0	6 0 0	May
500	Shropshire	125	138 0 0	8 0 0	June and Dec.
200	Somerset Coal	150	150 0 0	9 10 0	—
6,000	Somerset Lock Fund Stock	12*l.* 10*s.*	11 5 0	0 10 0 —	—
700	Stafford and Worcester	140	280 0 0	36 0 0	Jan. and July
600	Shrewsbury	125	190 0 10	16 0 0	May and Nov.
800	Stourbridge	145	106 0 0	7 0 0	Jan. and July
5,947	Stratford on Avon	Av. 70*l.* 2*s.* 8*d.*	44 0 0	2 0 0	August
300	Stroud-water	150	300 0 0	26 0 0	May and Nov.
800	Swansea	100	265 0 0	16 0 0	November
3,700	Severn and Wye, and Railway	Av. 36	42 0 0	2 6 0	March and Sep.
1,300	Thames and Severn, black,	100	84 0 0	2 0 0	June
1,150	Ditto, red	100	99 0 0	2 0 0	—
2,200 1-4 sh.	Trent and Mersey	¼ sh. 50	607 10 0	2 10 0	June and Dec.
8,149	Thames and Medway	Av. 19*l.* 5*s.* 8*d.*	2 0 0	- - -	
1,000 sh. 1,000 1-3 sh.	Warwick and Birmingham	Av. 100	268 0 0	18 0 0	May and Nov.
980	Warwick and Napton	100	105 0 0	15 0 0	—
6,000	Worcester and Birmingham	Av. 78*l.* 8*s.*	68 0 0	4 0 0	Feb. and Aug.
5,000	Wilts and Berks	Av. 67*l.* 10*s.* 8*d.*	28*l.* 10*s.* & 30*l.* 5*s.*	1 10 0	May
800	Wyrley and Essington	125	- - -	6 0 0	January
126	Wisbeach	105	90 0 0		
906	Wey and Arun	110	22 10 0	1 0 0	May
	DOCKS.				
600 & 1,005 1-3 sh.	Commercial	100	66 0 0	3 0 0 per ct.	Jan. and July
1,000	East and West India	Stock	105 0 0	5 0 0 —	—
1,000	East Country	100	10 0 0		
332 *l.* 10*l.* 5*s.* 10	London	Stock	66 10 0	3 0 0 —	June and Dec.
	Ditto Bonds	- - -	- - -	5 0 0 —	—
2,200	Bristol	Av. 147*l.* 9*s.*	74 0 0	3 3 5	April and Oct.
65,2244.	Ditto Bonds	Various amounts	108 0 0	5 0 0 —	May and Nov.
1,332,752	St. Katherine	Stock	101 0 0	5 0 0 —	Jan. and July
500,000	Ditto Bonds	- - -	- - -	4 10 0 —	5 Ap. and 5 Oct.
200,000	Ditto Bonds 1840	- - -	- - -	4 0 0 —	—
	Southampton	50 8			
	WATER-WORKS.				
4,800	Birmingham	25 25	20 0 0	0 10 0	
4,433	East London	100	164 10 0	7 0 0	Jan. and July
5,500	Grand Junction	Av. 41*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*	66 5 0	2 10 0	—
9,000	Kent	100	44 0 0	2 0 0	—
873	Liverpool Bootle	220	347 0 0	10 0 0	January
1,500	New River London Bridge Water Annuities		59 0 0	2 10 0	April and Oct.
6,186	Manchester and Salford	Av. 20	57 10 0	2 10 0	March
1,000	Vauxhall, late South London	100	103 0 0	5 0 0 —	April and Oct.
5,254	West Middlesex	Av. 63*l.* 12*s.* 9*d.*	96*l.* 10*s.* ex. div.	6 0 0 —	June and Dec.
1,360	York Building Co. Lesser Prop.	100	36 0 0	14 0 0	April and Oct.
	BRIDGES.				
1,800	Hammersmith	50	23 0 0	1 0 0	Jan. and July
7,281	Southwark with new subscr.	Av. 63*l.* 2*s.* 8*d.*	2 10 0	- - -	
1,700	Ditto, New, of 7 1-2 per cent.,	50	13 5 0	1 15 0 per ct.	December
5,000	Waterloo	100	3 0 0	- - -	
5,000	Ditto Old Ann. of 8*l.*	50	20*l.* 10*s.* ex. div.	1 2 0	Feb. and Aug.
5,000	Ditto New ditto of 7*l.*	40	18 0 0	0 19 3	—
60,000*l.*	Ditto Bonds	- - -	- - -	5 0 0 —	—
5,848	Vauxhall	Av. 70*l.* 10*s.* 3*d.*	25 0 0	0 19 0	June and Dec.
	ASSURANCE COMPANIES.				
2,000	Albion	50 50	73 0 0	3 10 0	December
50,000	Alliance, Brit. and For.	100 11	14 12 6	6 0 0 —	April and Oct.
50,000	Ditto Marine	100 5	5 10 0	6 0 0 —	January
24,000	Atlas	50 5	15 5 0	0 12 6 per sh.	July
1,500 1-4 sh.	Birmingham Fire	240 53	107 10 0	5 5 0	May

Table of the principal Joint Stock Companies in England and Wales—continued.

No. of Shares.	Description of Companies.	Amount of Shares paid up.	Price per Share.	Dividends per Annum.	Dividends Due.
		Shares. Paid.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	
20,000	British Fire	250 50*l.*	40 0 0	4 0 0 per ct.	March and Sep.
12,500	British Commercial	50 5	6*l.* 15*s.* & 6*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.*	6 0 0 —	June and Dec.
8,000	Clerical, Med. and Gen. Life	100 2½	4 5 0	8 0 0 —	August
4,000	County	100 10	. . .	3 0 0	December
	Crown	50 11½	. . .	8*l.* per ct. bs.	November
20,000	Eagle	50 5	5 7 6	0 5 0	October
500	Economic Life	1,000 250	400 0 0	5*l.* p. ct. & 50*s.* bs.	Jan. and July
10,000	Eng. and Scott. Law, Fire and Life	50 2	. . .	. . .	
2,271	European Life	20 .	22 0 0	1 2 0	
50,000	Ditto New	20 2	1 18 0	0 2 0	—
25,000	Freemasons	20 2	. . .	5 0 0 per ct.	—
100,000	Globe	Stock	128 0 0	6 0 0 —	June and Dec.
20,000	Guardian	100 67½	38 0 0	5 0 0 —	July
20,000	Hope Life	25 2½	. . .	4 0 0	September
30,000	Ditto Fire	25 2½	. . .	0 2 6	March
2,400	Imperial Fire	500 50	. . .	. . .	June and Dec.
750	Imperial Life	100 10	10 5 0	. . .	July
13,452	Indemnity Marine	100*l.* 6*l.* 13*s.* 6*d.*	33 10 0	. . .	August
2,020	Kent Fire	50 30	92 0 0	3 10 0	Feb. and Aug.
	Ditto Life	50 .	79 0 0	3 0 0	
10,000	Law Life	100 10	20 0 0	0 16 0	April
20,000	Legal and General Life	50 2	3 0 0	. . .	
8,000	London Fire	25 12½	19 10 0	0 10 0	March and Sep.
31,000	London Ship	25 12½	19 10 0	0 10 0	—
10,000	Marine	100 10	. . .	0 10 0	July
50,000	Minerva Life	20 2	. . .	4 0 0 —	—
31,000	National Life	100 5	12 0 0	8 0 0 —	—
30,000	Palladium Life	50 2	3 7 0	5 0 0 —	Jan. and July
	Phœnix	175 .	175 0 0	5*l.* per ct. bs.	
50,000	Protector Life	20 1	0 18 0	4 0 0 per ct.	—
2,500	Provident Life	100 10	19 0 0	1 0 0	June
100,000	Rock Life	20 2	6 15 0	0 5 0	October
669,219*l.* 17*s.* 10*d.*	Royal Exchange	Stock	202*l.* & 203*l.*	8*l.* per ct. bs.	June and Dec.
10,000	Royal Naval, Milit., and E. I. Com.	25 2	3 0 0	4 0 0 per ct.	
	Sun Fire	. .	210 0 0	6*l.* 10*s.* per ct. bs.	—
6,000	University Life	100 5	. . .	5 0 0 per ct.	July
5,000	Universal Life	100 5	7 15 0	5 0 0 —	May
1,800	Union Fire	200 20	184*l.* & 185*l.*	8 10 0	Jan. and July
	JOINT STOCK BANKS.				
25,000	Agricultural and Com. of Ireland	25 10	. . .	. . .	
10,000	Australasia	40 40	67 10 0	8 0 0 per ct.	Jan. and July
5,000	Ditto New	40 20	28*l.* 10*s.* & 29*l.* 5*s.*	. . .	
10,000	Birmingham Bank	50 10	. . .	10 0 0 —	March
20,000	British North American	50 20	26*l.* 5*s.* & 26*l.* 15*s.*	6 0 0 —	June and Dec.
100,000	Commercial Bank of England	5 5	. . .	7 0 0 —	
20,000	Colonial	100 25	32*l.* 15*s.* & 33*l.*	7 0 0 —	Jan. and July
10,000	Hibernian	100 25	. . .	. . .	
50,000	Imperial Bank of England	20 8	. . .	8 0 0 —	March and Sep.
4,000	Ionian State	25 5	5 10 0	. . .	
30,000	London and Westminster	100 20	22*l.* 15*s.* & 23*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* 17*s.* 6*d.* & 15*s.*	5 0 0 —	March
60,000	London Joint Stock Company	50 10	12 10 0	5 0 0 —	Jan. and July
40,000	London and County	50 10	9 0 0	. . .	
25,000	Liverpool	100 12½	21 5 0	10 0 0 —	—
50,000	Manchester and Liverpool Dist.	100 15	9 12 6	7 10 0 —	March
20,000	Manchester	100 25	. . .	7 0 0 —	October
40,000	Metropolitan	25 7½	. . .	. . .	
25,000	Monmouthshire and Glamorganshire	20 10	. . .	10 0 0 —	Feb. and Aug.
20,000	Provincial Bank of Ireland	100 25	44 5 0	8 0 0 —	Jan. and July
4,000	Ditto New	10 10	17 0 0	8 0 0 —	
20,000	National Bank of Ireland	50 17½	16 5 0	. . .	
10,000	National Provincial England	100 35	34*l.* 15*s.* & 34*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.*	5 0 0 —	—
10,000	Ditto New	20 10	21*l.* 15*s.* & 10*l.* 5*s.*	. . .	
80,000	Northern and Central Bank of England	10 10	. . .	5 0 0 —	31 December
20,000	North and South Wales	20 5	. . .	5 0 0 —	
21,500	Northamptonshire Union	25 5	14 0 0	14 0 0 —	July
16,000	Gloucestershire	50 10	20 0 0	. . .	Feb. and Aug
6,000	Hampshire	50 5	. . .	10 0 0 —	August
10,000	North Wilts	25 5	. . .	7 0 0 —	
10,000	Southern District	20 5	. . .	5 0 0 —	May
20,000	West of Eng. and South Wales Dis.	20 12½	12 5 0	5 0 0 —	Jan. and July
20,000	Wilts and Dorset	15 7½	8 5 0	6 0 0 —	—
10,000	Union Bank of Australia	25 17½	. . .	. . .	
60,000	Union Bank of London	50 5	5 2 6	. . .	
	GAS LIGHT AND COKE COMPANIES.				
2,500	Bath	20*l.* 16*l.*	. . .	0 16 0 —	March and Sep.
300	Bradford	25 .	. . .	10 0 0 —	
5,000	British	40 18	19 0 0	1 5 0	May and Nov.
5,000	Ditto Provincial	20 19	. . .	1 7 0	—
998	Birmingham	77*l.* 10*s.*	80 0 0	5 10 0	Jan. and July
2,400	Birmingham and Staffordshire	50 50	70 0 0	4 0 0	March and Sep.
300	Brentford	50 .	38 0 0	. . .	April
4,250	Bristol	20 .	38 0 0	2 0 0	Feb. and Aug.
2,750	Brighton	20 .	30 15 0	. . .	March and Sep.
2,471	Ditto General	20 20	9 10 0	. . .	
240	Canterbury	50 .	. . .	6 0 0 —	Jan. and July
	Chelmsford	50 .	. . .	4 0 0 —	December
200	Cheltenham	50 .	. . .	8 0 0 —	April and Oct.
1,000	City of London	100 100	. . .	12 0 0	March and Sep.
1,000	Ditto New	100 75	. . .	10 0 0	June and Dec.
4,000	Continental Consolidated	75 67½	110 0 0	6 10 0 per sh.	Jan. and July
7,000	Ditto New	50 11	23*l.* & 24*l.*	. . .	
800	Coventry	25 .	2 10 0	. . .	
900	Dudley	20 .	17 0 0	5 0 0 per ct.	
20,000	Deptford, Rotherhithe, Bermondsey,	1 1	. . .	. . .	
4,000	Equitable	50 50	80 0 0	. . .	June and Dec.
	European	15 .	11 7 6	. . .	
10,000	Imperial	50 50	58 10 0	5 0 0 —	
25,000	Ditto Bonds	100 .	. . .	4 0 0 —	
801	Isle of Thanet	25 20	18 0 0	5 0 0 —	August
2,750	Independent	20 20	30 0 0	8 0 0 —	April and Oct.
3,000	London	50 50	. . .	4 0 0 —	March and Sep.
400	Liverpool	242*l.* 18*s.*	370 0 0	17 0 0 —	March

Table of the principal Joint Stock Companies in England and Wales—*continued*.

No. of Shares.	Description of Companies.	Amount of Shares paid up.	Price per Share.	Dividends per Annum.	Dividends Due.
		Shares. Paid.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	
200	Maidstone	50l.	100 0 0	10 0 0 per ct.	Feb. and Aug.
6,000	Phœnix	50 30	30 10 0	4 0 0 —	June and Dec.
1,000	Ratcliff	100 80	80 0 0	5 0 0 —	March and Sep.
4,000	South Metropolitan Company	50 22	- -	4 0 0 —	July
8,200	United General	50 45	- -	3 0 0 —	Jan. and July
340	Warwick	50	- -	5 0 0 —	—
400	Wakefield	25	- -	1 5 0	—
750	Warrington	20	- -	1 0 0	October
12,000	Westminster Chartered	50	55l. 10s. & 56l. 5s. & 56l. 15s. & 57l.	3 0 0	June and Dec.
4,000	Ditto New	50 10	11 0 0	1 12 0	—
	IRON RAILWAYS.				
4,200	Birmingham and Derby	100 90	55 5 0		
2,500	Birmingham and Gloucester	100 70			
15,000	Bristol and Exeter	100 40			
7,000	Cheltenham and Great Western	100 45			
	Chester and Birkenhead	50 35			
3,000	Clarence	100 100			
6,000	Dublin and Drogheda	100 5			
800	Durham Junction	100 100			
3,000	Deptford Junction	20 1			
80,000	Eastern Counties	25 21	2l. 5s. & 2l.		
12,500	Glasgow, Paisley, and Ayrshire	50 30			
5,000	Edinburgh, Leith, and Newhaven	20 11			
10,000	Edinburgh and Glasgow	50 25			
16,000	Glasgow, Paisley, and Greenock	25 17			
10,918	Grand Junction	100 100	-	14 0 0 per sh.	Jan. and July
11,000	Ditto Half Shares	50 50			
10,000	Great North of England	100 55			
25,000	Great Western	100 66	68l. & 69l. & 70l.		
80,000	Ditto New	50 30	30l. 10s. & 30l. 15s. & 31l. & 31l. 10s.		
6,000	Gosport Junction	50 20	- -	5 0 0 per ct.	
2,000	Hartlepool	100 100	-	6 0 0 —	10 September
6,000	Hull and Selby	50 35			
5,100	Leeds and Selby	100 100	- -	3 0 0 —	August
5,100	Liverpool and Manchester	100 100	- -	9 10 0 per sh.	Jan. and July
7,968	Ditto Half Shares	50 40	- -	9 10 0 —	
11,475	Ditto Quarter Shares	25 25	- -	9 10 0 —	—
26,000	London and Brighton	50 35	34 5 0		
14,400	London and Blackwall	25 17½	16l. 5s. & 15l. 7s. 6d. & 15l. & 15l. 5s. & 15l. 2s. 6d. & 15l. 5s. & 16l. 5s. & 6l. 10 & 6l. 15s. & 8l. 12s. 6d.		
80,000	London and Greenwich	20 20	8 0 0 per ct.		April and Oct.
	Ditto New	20 20	15l. 10s. & 15l. 15s.		
51,000	London and Birmingham	100 80	154l. 10s. & 155l. & 157l.	8 0 0 per sh.	Feb. and Aug.
	Ditto Quarter Shares	25 6	24 0 0		
31,250	Ditto New Shares	32 24	44 0 0		
	Ditto Bonds, 1843		- -	4 0 0 per ct.	
80,000	London and Southwestern	Av. 33l. 17s. 6d.	43 0 0	3 0 0 —	16 March
	Ditto Bonds				
80,000	London and Croydon	Av. 14l. 18s. 6d.			
	Ditto Scrip	7l. 10s.	- -	6 0 0 —	Jan. and July
8,000	Llanelly Railway and Dock Co.	100 70			
15,000	Manchester and Leeds	100 60	72l. 10s. & 72l. 15s.		
12,000	Ditto New Shares	50 15			
10,000	Manchester and Birmingham	70 25			
	Ditto Extension	70 7			
10,000	Midland Counties	100 90	76 10 0		
15,000	North Midland	100 100	96 17 6		
	Ditto New	10l.	18 10 0		
5,128	Northern and Eastern	100 25	12 10 0		
2,000	Preston and Wigan	20			
6,000	Preston and Wyre	50 50			
1,000	Stockton and Darlington	100 100	- -	- -	April and Oct
1,500	Stanhope and Tyne	100 100			
25,000	South Eastern and Dover	50 18	11. & 11. 10s.		
6,000	York and North Midland	50 40			
	MINES.				
1,200	Ariana Iron and Coal Company	50 24			
6,000	Albion Copper	5 3½			
4,000	Alten	15 12½	- -	1 5 0	March
10,000	Anglo Mexican, in 5l. pm.	100 100			
	Ditto Subscription	25			
8,000	Blaenavon Iron and Coal	50 40	- -	2 0 0 per sh.	March and Sep.
9,000	Bolanos	150 150	- -	- -	—
	Ditto Scrip	10			
10,000	Brazilian Imp., in 5l. pm.	25 20	- -	- -	May and Nov.
6,000	Ditto Mocambas and Cocaes United	25 25			
11,000	Ditto St. John del Rey	20 14			
10,000	Bolivar Copper Company	20 20			
10,000	Ditto Scrip	10 10	- -	0 10 0	
20,000	British Iron Company	100 50	- -	- -	April and Oct.
10,000	Cata Branca	10 9½			
	Caxinga	20 7½			
	Ditto Registered	7½			
6,000	Cornwall Great United	12 7			
15,000	Cobre Copper	40	-	2 0 0	
10,000	Copiapo	20 13			
6,000	Columbian, in 5l. pm.	25 25			
1,000	Ditto New	11 11			
2,000	English	25 14			
20,000	General Mining Association	20 19			
10,000	Hibernian	20 10½			
6,951	Mexican Company	100 85½			
20,000	Mining Company of Ireland	25 7	- -	10 0 0 per ct.	June and Dec.
11,500	Real del Monte, Registered	Av. 62l. 10s. 6d.			
	Ditto, Unregistered				
	Ditto Loan Notes	100			
6,000	Redmoor Consolidated	5 4½			
10,000	Rhymney Iron	80 80	40 0 0	- -	Jan. and July
2,000	Isle of Serk, Guernsey	7½			
20,000	United Mexican, in 5l. pm	40 40	3 3 6		

Table of the principal Joint Stock Companies in England and Wales—*continued.*

Nr. of Shares.	Description of Companies.	Amount of Shares paid up.	Price per Share.	Dividends per Annum.	Dividends Due.
		Shares. Paid.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	
	United Mexican Scrip		3 15 0		
	Ditto New Scrip	51			
	LITERARY INSTITUTIONS.				
1,000	London, with Bronze Ticket	78½	18 10 0		
1,500	London University	100 100	8 0 0		
700	Russell	36½	7 0 0		
	King's College	100	19 10 0		
	MISCELLANEOUS.				
10,000	Anglo-Mexican Mint	10 10		1 4 0	
10,000	Australian Agricultural	100 28½		1 10 0	June and Dec.
10,000	Assam Tea Company	50 5	4l. 17s. 6d. & 4l. 10s.		January
10,000	Anti-Dryrot Co. Registered	17½ 17½			
10,000	British Patent Coal	1			
20,000	British Agricultural Loan Com.	105 5			
5,000	British Rock and Patent Salt	50 35		1 0 0	
6,000	British American Land Company	50 33	10 0 0	4 0 0 per ct.	April and Oct.
10,000	Canada Company	100 33½		6 0 0 —	March and Sep.
10,000	Upper Canada Bonds			5 0 0 —	Jan. and July
	City Bonds		101 0 0	4 0 0 —	—
5,000	Eastern Coast of Central America Company, Debentures	20 15½		4 0 0	—
5,000	Gen. Rever. and Investment Co.	100 75		4 0 0	
2,700	Equitable Reversionary Society	100 45		4 0 0	
2,100	Hungerford Market	100 100			
8,000	London Cemetery	20 12			
20,000	General Steam Navigation	15 14		1l. 8s. & 2s. 6d. bs.	March and Sep.
	Hudson's Bay Stock	100 100		10 0 0 per ct.	Jan. and July
8,000	London Reversionary Int. Society	50 10			
20,000	Mexican and South American	10 7		0 10 0 —	—
	New Brunswick (Land)	67	12 0 0		
5,337	Reversionary Interest Society	100 100	133l. & 134l.	5 0 0 —	—
15,000	Royal Mail Steam Packet	100 5	4 15 0		
2,000	St. George's Steam Packet Co.	100 100		8 0 0 —	—
8,000	Ditto Quarter Shares	25 25			
3,000	Ship Owners' Towing Company	10 7½		10 0 0	
14,000	South Australian	25 16	12 0 0	4 0 0	—
4,000	Thames Tunnel	50 50	10l. & 9l. 15s. & 10l.		
10,000	Van Dieman's Land	100 17½	11 10 0	0 6 0	

N. B.—When the amount of a share only is mentioned, it is to be presumed that it is entirely paid up.—Sup.)

[See *sup.*, article STOCKS. *Am. Ed.*]

SHARKS' FINS form a regular article of trade to China; and are collected for this purpose in every country from the eastern shore of Africa to New Guinea. In the Canton Price Currents they are as regularly quoted as tea or opium; and the price of late years has been, according to quality, from 15 to 18 dollars per picul, equal to from 50*s.* to 60*s.* per cwt.

SHAWLS (Ger. *Schalen*; Fr. *Chals, Chales*; It. *Shavali*; Sp. *Schavalos*), articles of fine wool, silk, or wool and silk, manufactured after the fashion of a large handkerchief, used in female dress. The finest shawls are imported from India, where they are highly esteemed and cost from 50 to 300 guineas. But the British shawls manufactured at Norwich, Paisley, and particularly Edinburgh, have recently been very much improved; and though still inferior, in point of quality, to the finest specimens brought from the East, they look well, and are much cheaper. The native shawl manufacture is of very considerable value and importance.

Cashmere Shawls.—The shawl manufacture is believed to have originated in the valley of Cashmere, the ancient Caspira, situated in the north-west of India, between the 34th and 35th degrees of N. latitude, and the 73d and 76th degrees of E. longitude. Though not so flourishing as it once was, the manufacture is still prosecuted in this province to a very considerable extent. The shawls are the very best that are made, possessing unequalled fineness, delicacy, and warmth. They are formed of the inner hair of a variety of the common goat (*capra hircus*), reared on the cold, dry table land of Thibet, elevated from 14,000 to 16,000 feet above the level of the sea. The goat thrives sufficiently well in many other countries; but in the sultry plains of Hindostan it has hardly more hair than a greyhound; and though in higher latitudes the hair is more abundant, it is for the most part shaggy and coarse. It is only in the intensely cold and dry climate of Thibet that it yields the peculiarly soft woolly hair that constitutes the material of the Indian shawl. We do not, therefore, suppose that the efforts to naturalise the shawl-goat in France will turn out well. On the contrary, we believe the chances of success would be about equal were an attempt made to breed beavers in a hot country, without water, or camels in a moist country, free from heat and drought.

The inner or fine wool is covered over and protected by a quantity of long shaggy hair, which is, of course, carefully separated from it before it is manufactured.

The genuine shawl-wool has been imported into this country; and the finest Edinburgh and Paisley shawls have been produced from it. But it must be admitted that shawls have nowhere been made that can come, as respects quality, into successful competition with those of Cashmere. The manufacture has been established at Delhi and Lahore for some years; but notwithstanding it is carried on by native Cashmerians, and though the material employed be quite the same, the fabrics are said to want the fineness of those made in Cashmere, and to have a degenerated, coarse appearance. It is difficult to account for this superiority. It has been ascribed to some peculiar quality of the water in the valley of Cashmere; but it is most probably owing to a variety of circumstances, which, though each may appear of little importance, collectively give a character to the manufacture.

The following details as to the manufacture of Cashmere shawls are extracted from a recent number of an English paper published at Delhi:

"The great mart for the wool of which shawls are made, is at Kilghet, which is said to be a dependency of Ladak, and situated 20 days' journey from the northern boundaries of Cashmere. There are 2 kinds of it: that which can be readily dyed is white; the other sort is of an ashy colour, which being with difficulty changed, or, at least, improved by art, is generally woven of its natural hue. About [illegible] lbs. of either are obtained from a single goat once a year. After the down has been carefully separated from the hairs, it is repeatedly washed with rice-starch. This process is reckoned important; and it is to the quality of the water of their valley that the Cashmerians attribute the peculiar and nimble-

the fineness of the fabrics produced there. At Kilghet the best raw wool is sold for about 1 rupee a pound. By the preparation and washing referred to, it loses ¼, and the remainder being spun, 3 rupees' weight of the thread is considered worth 1 rupee.

"Shawls are made of various forms, size, and borders, which are wrought separately, with the view of adapting them to the different markets. Those sent to Turkey used to be of the softest and most delicate texture. Carpets and counterpanes are fabricated of the hair or coarser part of the wool. From a variety of causes, among others the destruction of the Janissaries, who dressed much in shawls, the loss of royalty in Cabul, and the ruined finances of Lucknow, it is certain that the demand for this elegant commodity has greatly declined of late years. Under the Mogul emperors, Cashmere found work for 30,000 shawl looms. In the time of the Afghan kings, the number decreased to 18,000. There are now not more than 6,000 employed. I should attribute little of this diminution to the sale of English imitations among the Asiatic nations. When these counterfeits first appeared, the pretty patterns and brilliancy of the colours took the fancy of some, but their great inferiority in the softness and warmth which marks the genuine shawl, soon caused the new article to be neglected. A camel-load of them was lately put up at outcry in Delhi, when scarcely a native would bid for one!

"The average value of shawls exported from Cashmere amounts annually to 1,800,000 rupees. Runjeet Singh takes ¼ in kind as part of the gross revenue of the province, which is about 25 lacks a year. His Highness is said to sell ¾ of what he thus receives, and to keep the remainder for his own court. Of the rest disposed of by him and left for sale in the valley, 7 lacks' worth go to Bombay and Western India; 3 to Hindostan, chiefly Oude; ½ a lack each to Calcutta, Cabul, Herat, and Balk, whence some pass on to neighbouring countries.

"A curious calculation of the successive exactions from Cashmere to Bombay inclusive, which magnify the price of shawls, is herewith subjoined.

"Actual cost for materials and labour in making a pair of reel shawls:—

	Fd. rs.
Four Farrukabad seers of wool	12 8
Cleaning, washing, and spinning	50 0
Dying	11 0
Wages to weavers	264 6
Total	337 14

Duties on the same.—On sale and importation to Cashmere

On the thread	3 14
While the fabric is in the loom	8 4
Fees to chowdies, brokers, assessors, &c.	135 0
Total amount of duties in Cashmere	35 0
	171 18

Duties from Cashmere to Amritsir	12 6
From Amritsir to Bombay	3 6 1-2
At Bombay	70 0
Total from Amritsir to Bombay	85 12 1-2

	Fd. rs.
Total from Kilghet to Bombay, 171 18 and 85 12 1-2 =	252 30 1-2
Prime cost	337 14
Proportion of carriage	0 12
Insurance	21 0
Total cost	610 56 1-2

"A pair of such shawls might sell for 500 rupees at Amritsir, and in Bombay for 900. The amount of the imports, and the sums levied by each government, will appear more in relief if stated as they affect a camel load in its progress. It consists of 14 1 2 cutcha maunds, and contains, on an average, 2,000 shawls of different kinds, valued, on reaching Bombay, at 28,500 Farrukabad rupees.

"The government of Lahore exacts Fd. rs. 1,564 6: Patialah, 61 0: Bikeneer, 45 0; Joudpore, 121 4; Bhownuggur, 20 0;—total levied by native princes, 1,849 0; Bombay, (10 per cent. ad valorem) 2,850 0."—(Quoted in Mr. Montgomery Martin's *Asiatic Colonies*, vol. i. p. 291.)

SHEEP (Ger. *Schafe*; Fr. *Brebis, Bêtes à laine, Moutons*; It. *Pecore*; Sp. *Pecora, Ovejas*; Rus. *Owzä*; Lat. *Oves*). Of the domestic animals belonging to Great Britain, sheep, with the exception of horses, and, perhaps, cattle, are by far the most important. They can be reared in situations and upon soils where other animals would not live. They afford a large supply of food, and one of the principal materials of clothing. Wool has long been a staple commodity of this country, and its manufacture employs an immense number of people. "The dressed skin," says Mr. Pennant, "forms different parts of our apparel; and is used for covers of books. The entrails, properly prepared and twisted, serve for strings for various musical instruments. The bones, calcined (like other bones in general), form materials for tests for the refiner. The milk is thicker than that of cows, and consequently yields a greater quantity of butter and cheese; and in some places is so rich, that it will not produce the cheese without a mixture of water to make it part from the whey. The dung is a remarkably rich manure; insomuch that the folding of sheep is become too useful a branch of husbandry for the farmer to neglect. To conclude; whether we consider the advantages that result from this animal to individuals in particular, or to these kingdoms in general, we may, with Columella, consider this, in one sense, as the first of the domestic quadrupeds."* —(*Pennant's British Zoology*). The importation of sheep from a foreign country is prohibited under pain of forfeiture.—(6 *Geo.* 4. c. 107. § 52.)—(See CATTLE, and WOOL.)

The following Table exhibits a compendious view of the more prominent characteristics of the principal breeds of sheep in Great Britain:—

Names of Breeds.	Head.	Colour of Face and Legs.	Wool.	Weight of Fleece.	Wethers, per Qr.	Age killed
				Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Years.*
1. Tunwyler	No horns	White face and legs	Long wool	9	28	2
2. Lincoln	No horns	White face and legs	Long wool	10	25	2
3. Dishley, or New Leicester	No horns	White face and legs	Long wool (fine)	8	32	2
4. Cotswold	No horns	White face and legs	Long wool (fine)	9	24	2
5. Romney Marsh	No horns	White face and legs	Long wool (fine)	8	22	2
6. Dartmoor, or Bampton	No horns	White face and legs	Long wool (fine)	9	25	2
7. Ryeland	Horned	White face and legs	Long wool (coarse)	6	16	2 1-2
8. Black faced, or Heath	Horned	Black face and legs	Long wool (coarse)	6	15	3 1-2
9. Herefordshire, Ryeland	No horns	White face and legs	Short wool (fine)	2 1-2	14	3 1-2
10. Moel, Shropshire	Horned	Black and speckled	Short wool (fine)	1 3-4	12	3 1-2
11. Dorset	Horned	White and speckled	Short wool (fine)	3 1-2	18	2
12. Wilts	Horned	White and speckled	Short wool (mid.)	5	20	3
13. Berks	No horns	Black and white	Long wool	7	16	2 1-2
14. South Down	No horns	Speckled and white	Short wool	2 1-2	18	3
15. Norfolk	Horned	Black and white	Short wool	2	18	3 1-2
16. Herdwick	Horned	Speckled and white	Short wool	2	10	4 1-2
17. Cheviot	No horns	White face and legs	Short wool	3	16	4 1-2
18. Dun faced	No horns	Dun face and legs	Short wool	1 1-2	7	4 1-2
19. Shetland	No horns	Various coloured do.	Fine cottony	1 3-4	8	4 1-2
20. Spanish	Rams horned	White	Short wool (numer.)	3 1-2	14	2 1-2
21. Ditto, cross			Short wool (fi	2 3-4	16	2

For details as to the number of sheep, the quantity and quality of wool, &c., see WOOL.

* Post majores quadrupedes ovilli pecoris secunda ratio est; quæ prima sit si ad magnitudinem utilitatis referas. Nam id præcipue contra frigora vicinumi protegit, corporibusque nostris libenissima pariter velamina; vestium etiam plurimum usumque præstat ex numerosa ovium lana durant.—(*De Re Rustica*, lib. vii. cap. 2.)

SHERRY. See WINE.

SHIPS. Nautical men apply the term ship to distinguish a vessel having 3 masts, each consisting of a lower mast, a topmast, and top-gallant-mast, with their appropriate rigging. In familiar language, it is usually employed to distinguish any large vessel, however rigged: but it is also frequently used as a general designation for all vessels navigated with sails; and it is in this sense that we now employ it.

Merchant Ships.—It is hardly possible to divide merchant ships into classes, at least with any degree of precision. Their size, shape, the mode of their rigging, &c. depend not merely on the particular trade for which they are destined, but on the varying tastes and fancies of their owners. The ships employed in the China trade, by the East India Company, are the largest merchantmen belonging to this country; the private traders to the East and West Indies rank next; then follow the whale ships, those engaged in the trade to the Baltic and Canada, the Mediterranean, and a host of others of every variety of burden and shape.

The reader will find, in the articles NAVIGATION LAWS, and REGISTRY, an account of the peculiar privileges enjoyed by British ships, of the conditions and formalities necessary to be observed in order to acquire and preserve these privileges, of the mode of transferring property in ships, &c. And in the articles CHARTERPARTY, FREIGHT, MASTERS, OWNERS, SEAMEN, &c., the law with respect to ships and ship-owners, in their capacity of carriers or public servants, and the reciprocal duties and obligations of the masters and crews, is pretty fully expounded. In this place, therefore, we shall content ourselves with laying before the reader some official statements exhibiting the progress and present magnitude of the mercantile navy of Great Britain.

Increase of Shipping in England.—It would be to no purpose, even if our limits permitted, to enter into any details with respect to the shipping of England previously to the Revolution. Those who wish to examine the subject, will find most of the scattered notices of contemporary writers collected by Anderson in his "Chronological History of Commerce." The mercantile navy of England first became considerable in the reign of Elizabeth; and gradually increased under her successors, James I. and Charles I. At the Restoration, the British shipping cleared outwards amounted to 95,266 tons; but such was the increase of navigation during the reigns of Charles II. and James II., that at the Revolution, the British ships cleared outwards amounted to 190,533 tons. The war terminated by the treaty of Ryswick, in 1697, checked this progress. But commerce and navigation have steadily advanced, with the exception of 2 short periods during the war of 1739, and the American war, from the beginning of last century down to the present day.

The first really authentic account of the magnitude of the commercial navy of England was obtained in 1701—2, from returns to circular letters of the commissioners of customs, issued in January of that year. From these it appears that there belonged, at the period in question, to *all* the ports of England and Wales, 3,281 vessels, measuring (or rather estimated to measure) 261,222 tons, and carrying 27,196 men and 5,660 guns. Of these there belonged to

	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.		Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
London - -	560	84,882	10,065	Hull - - -	115	7,564	187
Bristol - -	165	17,338	2,359	Whitby - -	110	8,293	571
Yarmouth - -	143	9,914	668	Liverpool - -	102	8,619	1,101
Exeter - -	121	7,107	978	Scarborough -	100	6,860	668

None of the other ports had 100 vessels; and there is some mistake in the returns as to the tonnage assigned to Newcastle and Ipswich. Of the Hull vessels, 80 were at the time laid up, which accounts for the small number of men in that port.—(*Macpherson's Annals of Commerce*, anno 1701.)

I. Table of Ships cleared Outwards from 1663 to 1811.

Years.	English.	Foreign.	Total.	Years.	British.	Foreign.	Total.	Years.	British.	Foreign.	Total.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.		Tons.	Tons.	Tons.		Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1663 }	95,326	47,634	142,900	1760	540,241	107,237	647,478	1796	1,115,084	121,197	1,236,281
1669 }				1761	582,020	124,735	706,755	1797	1,279,033	138,220	1,417,253
1686	190,533	95,267	285,800	1762	547,444	124,926	668,370	1798	1,411,539	128,997	1,540,536
1697	144,364	100,524	244,788	1763	651,724	91,593	723,317	1799	1,515,021	103,723	1,618,743
1700 }	273,698	43,635	317,333	1764	662,434	79,800	742,234	1790	1,424,912	149,919	1,574,831
1701 }				1765	738,402	72,215	796,617	1791	1,511,266	184,758	1,696,025
1702 }				1766	758,981	66,153	824,234	1792	1,561,138	175,405	1,736,543
1709	243,993	45,625	289,518	1767	725,831	68,006	793,841	1793	1,240,202	187,032	1,427,234
1712	326,330	39,115	365,736	1768	761,796	77,994	839,770	1794	1,382,168	218,077	1,600,245
1718 }	421,491	26,573	448,004	1769	805,205	68,420	873,725	1795	1,145,450	262,427	1,408,017
1714 }				1770	868,485	63,176	931,671	1796	1,2 -,624	479,156	1,702,780
1715 }				1771	877,004	66,899	943,902	1797	1,103,781	396,271	1,500,052
1736				1772	923,486	72,961	996,387	1798	1,319,151	365,719	1,684,870
1737 }	432,231	23,851	456,493	1773	874,491	67,894	933,415	1799	1,302,561	414,774	1,717,335
1738 }				1774	901,018	69,402	968,415	1800	1,445,271	685,051	2,130,322
1736 }				1775	892,579	68,054	960,613	1801	1,345,681	804,890	2,150,571
1737 }	476,941	26,627	503,568	1776	872,108	74,023	946,431	1802	1,626,966	491,723	2,098,689
1738 }				1777	827,067	101,886	929,705	1803	1,453,066	574,543	2,027,609
1739 }				1778	732,858	90,778	823,336	1804	1,463,286	587,849	2,051,135
1740 }	364,191	27,260	471,451	1779	644,281	148,049	791,021	1805	1,495,209	606,831	2,101,040
1741 }				1780	751,296	156,111	906,397	1806	1,498,502	569,170	2,064,672
1742 }				1781	608,319	170,775	778,994	1807	1,454,103	631,910	2,086,013
1750 }	609,796	51,396	661,184	1782	615,150	225,458	840,608	1808	1,372,410	242,145	1,614,551
1751 }				1783	865,907	170,938	1,037,905	1809	1,731,152	699,150	2,430,302
1755 }	British.			1784	832,219	118,268	1,050,487	1810	1,864,374	1,136,627	3,000,901
1756 }	495,254	76,456	572,710	1785	1,074,562	107,484	1,182,046	1811	1,507,333	636,232	2,203,565
1757 }											

The preceding Table of the British and foreign shipping cleared outwards from 1663 to 1811, both inclusive, is taken from the last edition of *Mr. Chalmers's Comparative Estimate*. It gives a very complete view of the progress of the navigation of the country; and from the attention paid by the author to such subjects, and the facilities which his situation in the Board of Trade gave him for acquiring authentic information, its accuracy may be depended on.

II. Account of the Total Number of Vessels engaged in the Foreign and Colonial Trade of the United Kingdom, with the Amount of their Tonnage, and the Number of Men and Boys employed in navigating the same, that entered Inwards from all Parts of the World, in the several Years from 1814 to 1835, both inclusive; distinguishing British from Foreign.

Year.	British and Irish Vessels.			Foreign Vessels.		
	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
1814	8,975	1,209,948	93,786	5,398	889,297	37,376
1815	8,899	1,272,109	96,399	5,411	704,562	44,000
1816	9,744	1,415,743	90,119	3,116	379,465	25,545
1817	11,265	1,625,121	97,273	2,286	445,011	27,017
1818	12,006	1,856,894	111,880	4,230	762,427	43,286
1819	11,974	1,869,108	107,556	4,315	642,684	32,693
1820	11,265	1,889,089	100,325	3,478	447,611	27,683
1821	10,905	1,599,423	97,485	3,284	296,107	26,043
1822	11,087	1,663,627	98,990	3,389	469,151	28 421
1823	11,271	1,740,839	112,344	4,009	582,998	38,226
1824	11,731	1,797 089	108,856	5,686	759 072	42,186
1825	13,503	2,143,317	123,028	6,981	959,312	52,722
1826	12,473	1,950,630	113,093	6,729	894,116	50,838
1827	13,133	2,086,893	118,698	6,046	751,984	43,636
1828	13,436	2,094,357	119,141	4,955	634,972	36,723
1829	13,659	2,154,536	122,158	5,218	710,349	38,943
1830	13,589	2,180,042	122,103	5,389	759,128	41,870
1831	14,488	2,367,992	131,627	6,065	874,605	47,453
1832	13,572	2,185,990	122,594	4,546	639,979	35,399
1833	13,119	2,188,814	121,496	6,503	768,086	41,996
1834	13,909	2,299,263	128,777	5,604	823,945	45,197
1835	14,295	2,442,784	133,688	6,005	906,990	47,152

III. Account of the Shipping employed in the Foreign and Colonial Trade of the United Kingdom, in the Year 1835, exhibiting the Number and Tonnage of Vessels entered Inwards and cleared Outwards (including their repeated Voyages), with the Number of their Crews; separating British from Foreign Ships, and distinguishing the Trade with each Country.—(*Board of Trade Papers*, vol. v. p. 45.)

Countries.	Inwards.						Outwards.					
	British.			Foreign.			British.			Foreign.		
	Ships.	*Tons.*	*Men.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Men.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Men.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Men.*
Russia	1,579	202,926	11,343	257	61,008	2,916	592	198,584	9,018	196	59,696	2,369
Sweden	77	12,036	571	196	36,051	1,724	68	10,653	523	169	23,454	1,224
Norway	38	3,592	184	627	95,018	5,108	27	3,179	201	678	110,585	5,584
Denmark	49	6,07	296	577	49,009	2,796	327	57,552	2,515	899	84,441	4,502
Prussia	152	25,514	1,178	606	124,144	5,375	119	18,690	929	555	111,175	4,837
Germany	636	118,323	5,407	497	39,583	2,251	740	133,380	6,151	647	54,088	2,943
Holland	1,021	150,387	7,205	556	56,623	3,059	936	142,819	6,706	646	55,870	3,477
Belgium	556	87,033	4,089	374	41,062	2,148	522	49,637	4,314	302	31,774	1,695
France	1,732	146,607	13,686	1,545	100,800	10,658	1,832	162,257	14,314	1,325	86,273	9,272
Portugal, viz. Proper	459	53,561	3,307	64	7,057	570	414	49,436	3,138	79	12,645	743
Azores	262	19,512	1,207	-	-	-	209	15,635	1,090	9	1,964	89
Madeira	18	4,250	239	2	229	15	38	7,161	454	1	234	13
Spain, and the Balearic Islands	408	53,551	3,363	36	4,405	301	338	43,328	2,925	40	7,704	432
Canaries	23	2,983	136	-	-	-	22	2,911	122	1	240	10
Gibraltar	46	5,601	360	-	-	-	122	15,310	946	8	1,661	89
Italy and the Italian Islands	455	67,990	3,649	24	5,361	307	398	57,749	3,226	24	5,397	296
Malta	7	1,003	54	-	-	-	67	10,4 6	545	3	732	35
Ionian Islands	30	3,806	444	-	-	-	39	6,002	305	3	648	30
Turkey and Continental Greece	140	20,60	1,184	-	-	-	149	23,490	1,208	1	387	20
Morea and Greek Islands	17	2,261	130	-	-	-	9	950	58	-	-	-
Egypt	21	4,315	208	-	-	-	58	11,605	56	2	660	2
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	24	2,638	142	-	-	-	29	2,745	144	5	2,130	7
Coast of Africa, from Morocco to the Cape of Good Hope	131	32,286	1,717	-	-	-	120	20,858	1,260	1	234	11
Cape of Good Hope	44	7,920	444	-	-	-	46	8,234	461	-	-	-
Eastern Coast, from the Cape of Good Hope to Babel Mandel	1	195	20	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cape de Verd Islands	9	818	45	1	178	8	2	364	24	-	-	-
St. Helena and Ascension	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	1,326	96	-	-	-
Mauritius	80	21,158	1,084	-	-	-	40	10,719	590	-	-	-
Africa	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	222	20	-	-	-
East India Company's Territories—Singapore and Ceylon	216	89,449	5,480	-	-	-	210	96,157	6,022	-	-	-
Sumatra	1	280	17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
China	67	35,427	2,308	-	-	-	33	21,215	1,487	9	3,909	166
Java	6	2,055	106	1	399	18	17	5,095	284	3	573	55
Philippine Islands	11	3,342	187	3	1,258	89	4	893	50	2	394	76
Other Islands of the Indian Seas (exclusive of the Philippines)	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	424	20	-	-	-
New Holland	49	16,019	847	-	-	-	109	25,915	2,183	-	-	-
South Sea Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	165	8	-	-	-
British Northern Colonies	2,199	491,345	27,260	-	-	-	1,963	270,732	25,929	-	-	-
British West Indies	273	226,179	12,538	-	-	-	262	252,984	12,939	-	-	-
Guiana, and other Foreign West Indies	6	887	48	-	-	-	67	10,442	529	1	109	10
United States	37	6,454	333	6	1,272	74	57	11,266	619	14	3,315	179
Mexico	227	82,450	3,852	542	256,295	9,397	234	119,963	5,508	601	251,021	9,990
Guatemala	28	7,098	396	1	240	12	35	6,036	346	1	277	12
Columbia	2	2,040	108	-	-	-	3	145	9	-	-	-
Brazil	32	6,705	358	-	-	-	18	1,240	104	1	230	15
Rivers of the Rio de la Plata	175	40,980	2,085	4	1,360	60	204	50,034	2,540	1	319	15
Falkland Islands	49	9,220	500	2	417	18	46	9,380	515	-	-	-
Chili	1	79	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Peru	21	7,228	436	5	1,188	65	24	5,210	329	-	-	-
The Whale Fisheries	15	3,051	179	-	-	-	18	2,999	187	-	-	-
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man	84	31,608	5,588	-	-	-	101	33,624	4,321	-	-	-
	2,272	151,979	10,878	29	5,005	289	2,156	180,479	9,979			
Total	14,295	2,442,784	133,688	6,005	906,990	47,152	13,949	2,419,241	126,537	6,047	905,270	47,927

IV. Account of the Vessels employed in the Coasting Trade of Great Britain and Ireland in 1830, 1831, and 1832.

Years.	Coasting Trade, exclusive of the Intercourse between Great Britain and Ireland.						Coasting Trade between Great Britain and Ireland.					
	Inwards.			Outwards.			Inwards.			Outwards.		
	Ships.	*Tons.*	*Men.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Men.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Men.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Men.*
1830	109,099	5,187,733	468,099	111,465	5,318,099	472,344	10,359	1,052,407	74,337	15,144	1,346,577	78,962
1831	108,489	5,321,129	464,992	111,248	5,342,239	479,228	10,361	1,059,185	74,221	13,158	1,346,742	78,589
1832	112,395	5,475,778	484,036	115,132	5,504,764	489,600	10,746	1,112,220	75,076	14,694	1,417,339	80,597
1830	119,458	9,240,140	542,436	124,609	9,[illegible]	551,306	} Total coasting trade of the United Kingdom.					
1831	118,849	9,379,308	542,513	124,506	9,448,981	557,798						
1832	123,091	9,580,004	558,114	129,826	9,[illegible]	570,187						

V. Account of the Number of Vessels and of their Tonnage, built and registered in, and of those belonging to, the different Ports of the British Empire, from 1820 to 1835, both inclusive; specifying the Number of their Crews, and distinguishing between those of the British Islands and Possessions in Europe and those of the Colonies.

Years.	Vessels built and registered.						Vessels and their Crews belonging to the British Empire.						
	United Kingdom and Possessions in Europe.		Colonies.		Total.		United Kingdom and Possessions in Europe.		Colonies.		Total.		Crew.
	Ships.	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	
1820	615	68,142	248	16,440	863	84,582	21,269	2,439,029	3,405	209,564	25,374	2,648,593	176,514
1821	597	69,187	226	15,365	823	84,547	21,653	2,455,853	3,384	204,350	25,036	2,660,203	169,179
1822	671	81,533	209	15,611	880	94,144	21,298	2,515,103	3,404	203,541	24,649	2,719,044	166,353
1823	804	63,788	243	22,240	947	86,028	21,042	2,362,867	3,500	203,933	24,542	2,566,760	163,474
1824	837	93,219	342	50,522	1,179	143,741	21,280	2,348,314	3,496	211,273	24,776	2,559,587	163,697
1825	1,003	124,023	536	80,895	1,539	204,924	20,701	2,328,807	3,579	214,875	24,280	2,553,682	166,158
1826	1,181	119,066	538	86,584	1,719	205,640	20,993	2,411,461	3,657	224,183	24,625	2,635,644	167,836
1827	911	95,032	529	68,906	1,440	163,948	19,524	2,181,136	3,575	279,362	23,199	2,460,500	172,415
1828	857	90,090	464	50,844	1,321	140,913	19,646	2,193,300	4,449	324,891	24,095	2,518,191	158,276
1829	734	77,835	416	39,237	1,150	116,872	19,110	2,199,259	4,943	317,041	23,453	2,517,300	154,308
1830	750	77,411	397	32,719	1,147	110,130	19,174	2,201,592	4,547	330,227	23,721	2,531,819	154,802
1831	780	85,707	376	34,290	1,156	119,997	19,450	2,224,356	4,792	357,606	24,242	2,581,962	154,625
1832	759	93,915	221	25,470	980	119,385	19,664	2,261,860	4,771	356,208	24,435	2,618,061	161,754
1833	728	92,171	431	52,476	1,159	144,647	19,629	2,271,301	4,696	363,276	24,325	2,634,577	164,046
1834	806	102,710	425	55,217	1,231	158,527	19,976	2,312,355	5,080	403,745	25,056	2,716,100	166,161
1835	916	121,722	334	52,711	1,250	174,433	23,300	2,360,303	5,211	423,458	25,511	2,783,761	171,088

N. B.—The falling off in the number of ships in 1827 is apparent only. The numbers returned in the previous years were those that appeared on the registers. But a ship, when once placed on them, remained till evidence was produced of her having been sold to foreigners, lost, or otherwise destroyed; so that a good many ships were at all times on the register, which, in fact, did not exist. The Registry Act passed in 1826 obliged all owners of ships to register them of new: when, of course, the names of those that had ceased to exist disappeared from the books.

VI. An Account of the Number of Ships or Vessels belonging to the different Ports of the British Empire on the 31st of December, 1835, stated in succession, agreeably to the Amount of Tonnage belonging to each; and specifying also the Number of the Crews. (Obtained from the Custom House.)

Ports.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ports.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ports.	Ships.	Tons.	Men
London	2,928	586,192	26,392	Penzance	94	6,002	474	Kirkwall	77	4,218	322
Newcastle	1,054	208,100	9,665	Rye	90	4,699	261	Banff	75	4,318	322
Liverpool	996	207,833	11,511	Chepstow	68	4,580	312	Lerwick	101	3,967	344
Sunderland	712	133,070	5,942	Padstow	81	4,533	301	Thurso	40	2,573	149
Whitehaven	443	65,878	3,490	Bridlington	30	4,160	192	Stornoway	56	2,302	231
Hull	603	63,524	3,763	Ilfracombe	63	3,997	223	Campbeltown	84	9,251	993
Bristol	291	42,915	2,899	Cardiff	49	3,735	213	Stranraer	37	1,769	125
Yarmouth	577	43,583	2,324	Blackney and Clay	64	3,734	258	Total Scotland	3,287	336,320	23,981
Whitby	242	39,954	2,065	Llanelly	72	3,697	236				
Plymouth	373	30,701	1,805	Carlisle	39	3,419	226	Belfast	223	32,515	1,931
Scarborough	172	27,052	1,389	Wisbeach	48	3,374	181	Dublin	324	25,336	1,236
Dartmouth	373	27,140	1,760	Shoreham	55	3,372	225	Cork	302	21,514	1,569
Beaumaris	395	21,985	1,453	Wells	63	3,287	244	Waterford	126	13,979	838
Exeter	192	15,979	875	Arundel	35	3,034	171	Newry and Strangford	161	9,080	695
Lynn	120	15,283	736	Woodbridge	36	2,982	146				
Poole	183	15,113	939	Chichester	59	2,620	164	Londonderry	43	6,257	277
Cardigan	275	14,436	1,030	Truro	34	2,411	142	Wexford	109	6,710	525
Stockton	104	13,308	619	Southwold	34	2,310	164	Limerick	69	4,993	311
Gloucester	246	13,257	1,115	Aldborough	39	2,170	162	Drogheda	99	4,372	272
Guole	167	12,588	468	Barnstaple	37	2,063	119	Baltimore	19	2,925	252
Rochester	274	12,264	744	Scilly	41	2,039	236	Sligo	19	1,762	99
Portsmouth	201	11,968	730	Bridport	19	1,932	99	Galway	10	849	48
Milford	152	10,376	634	Newhaven	20	1,476	66	Dundalk	11	645	46
Boston	175	9,982	528	Lyme	19	1,382	83	Coleraine	16	669	44
Lancaster	131	9,618	527	Grimsby	23	1,187	92	Westport	6	122	12
Bideford	115	9,509	545	Minehead	Port of Bridgewater.						
St. Ives	117	9,019	606	Gweek	11	668	43	Total Ireland	1,627	131,735	8,881
Swansea	137	8,918	565	Deal	23	641	152				
Colchester	236	8,648	940					British Islands.			
Cowes	170	8,530	737	Total England	14,823	1,953,113	105,945	Jersey	243	22,221	2,273
Southampton	177	8,363	668					Guernsey	79	9,185	631
Faversham	279	8,270	594	Glasgow	312	58,478	4,321	Man	213	7,828	1,297
Maldon	138	6,955	413	Dundee & Perth	387	44,469	3,002				
Fowey	95	6,827	411	Aberdeen	349	41,743	3,095	Total British Islands	563	39,536	3,901
Aberystwith	129	6,737	443	Greenock	367	42,732	2,723				
Falmouth	96	6,732	441	Leith	247	23,858	1,786				
Newport	61	6,082	323	Grangemouth	184	22,887	1,239	Total United			
Bridgewater	77	5,786	615	Montrose	181	18,012	1,133	Kingdom & Brit. islands	20,300	2,360,303	16,080
Dover	111	5,702	355	Kirkaldy	179	15,493	1,301				
Weymouth	73	5,698	306	Irvine & Ayr	128	12,363	869				
Chester	85	5,627	429	Dumfries	182	11,796	779	British plantations	5,211	423,458	27,911
Harwich	89	5,572	403	Borrowstouness	121	8,452	488				
Ramsgate	83	5,546	332	Inverness	160	7,597	690	Grand Total	25,511	2,783,761	171,088
Berwick	55	5,160	318	Port Glasgow	50	7,500	400				

VII. Account of the Number of Ships, with the Amount of their Tonnage, distinguishing between British and Foreign, which entered the under-mentioned Ports, from Foreign Parts, in each of the Three Years ending with 1835.—(*Papers published by Board of Trade*, vol. v. p. 46.)

Ports	1833.				1834.				1835.			
	British.		Foreign.		British.		Foreign.		British.		Foreign.	
	Ships.	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*
London	3,631	978,289	1,541	175,898	3,799	785,693	1,360	216,068	3,740	740,956	1,057	148,898
Liverpool	1,803	410,502	908	250,360	1,975	438,715	974	261,747	2,169	517,173	809	239,837
Bristol	278	51,182	24	5,529	295	56,016	32	6,833	290	54,193	23	4,960
Hull	755	142,201	610	61,403	844	163,940	695	69,904	925	183,461	736	77,589
Newcastle	425	99,230	445	45,458	495	75,356	548	27,150	609	102,035	499	50,079
Plymouth	285	30,499	23	3,815	270	27,226	26	4,801	286	24,191	25	4,267
Leith	198	31,266	180	15,975	204	33,305	169	17,927	183	31,944	143	15,578
Glasgow	117	11,031	1	183	146	14,535	5	976	184	17,257	10	2,358
Greenock	270	68,049	11	2 817	284	67,699	20	5,420	246	66,140	17	4,210
Cork	149	29,215	18	2,190	155	27,721	31	3,567	147	25,949	27	3,415
Belfast	153	30,753	15	2,305	153	31,081	23	4,801	150	30,001	24	5,063
Dublin	240	45,200	35	6,660	213	36,074	27	5,456	201	32,430	34	6,247

VIII. An Account of the Number and Tonnage of the Vessels entering into and sailing from the Ports of Ireland in 1801, and the subsequent Years mentioned below, distinguishing between the Trade with Great Britain and that with Foreign Parts.—(*Papers published by the Board of Trade*, vol. i. p. 174.)

Years	Trade with Great Britain.				Trade with Foreign				Total.			
	Inwards.		Outwards.		Inwards.		Outwards.		Inwards.		Outwards.	
	Ships.	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*
1801	6,818	882,053	-	-	574	152 249			7,690	711,242		
1805	4,678	596,720	6,308	696,790	1,085	155,742	727	7,960	754 462	7,135	703,717	
1809	7,911	880,587	7,041	600,898	953	115,356	712	7,864	695,943	7,737	704,110	
1813	8,086	773,986	8,339	718,851	936	125,895	9	9,922	899,181	9,555	890,170	
1817	10,142	945,980	9,186	770,547	748	108,752	716	116,973	10,890	954,012	9,909	887,520
1821	9 996	844,987	9,440	819,948	800	116,538	621	98,718	10,724	961,535	10 061	918,266
1825	11 543	884,756	8,923	741,192	1 116	162,660	767	136,991	12,658	1,167,414	9,689	878,173
1829	13 278	1,290,041	8,222	906,156	1,096	178,896	723	153,948	14,371	1,470,977	9,645	1,059,161
1833	13,239	1,341 501	8,455	890,965	966	166,482	690	135,248	14,307	1,507,983	9,145	1,016,213
1835	13,564	1,382,221	9,029	941,128	913	158,161	772	158,417	14,480	1,490,388	9,801	1,073,545

IX. Account specifying the Number and Tonnage of the Ships built and registered in each Division of the British Empire in 1832; with their Classification according to the Amount of their Tonnage.—(*Papers published by Board of Trade*, vol. ii. p. 49.)

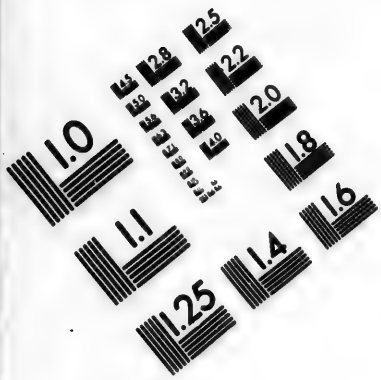
	Great Britain.		Ireland.		Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, & Man.		British Plantations.		Total.	
	Ships.	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*	*Ships.*	*Tons.*
Under 50 tons	189	5,544	15	414	13	299				
From 50 to 100 tons	200	13,868	3	206	4	306				
100 - 150 —	74	9,076	2	244	5	536				
150 - 200 —	68	11,679	2	377	- -	- -	221	25,470	980	118,385
200 - 300 —	137	33,603	3	695	6	1,354				
300 - 400 —	31	10,340	- -	- -	- -	- -				
400 - 500 —	7	3,048	- -	- -	1	440				
500 - 600 —	1	501	- -	- -	- -	- -				
Above 600 tons	1	612	- -	- -	- -	- -				
Total	708	88,271	25	1,909	26	2,735	221	25,470	980	118,385

Ship-building.—The cost, including the outfit, of the ships built in 1832, may, we believe, be taken, at a rough average, at from 10*l.* to 12*l.* per ton, or 11*l.* at a medium, making their total value 1,302,235*l.* London, Sunderland, Newcastle, Liverpool, Hull, Yarmouth, &c. are the principal building ports. The business has increased with extraordinary rapidity at Sunderland; so much so, that while only 60 ships, of the burden of 7,560 tons, were built in that port in 1820, no fewer than 109 ships, of the burden of 25,519 tons, were built in it in 1832. Ships built at London, Liverpool, Bristol, and other western ports, are, however, in higher estimation than those built on the Tyne and the Wear, at least for those branches of trade where the best ships are required. Within the last few years, a great many steam vessels have been built on the Clyde.—(As to building in the Isle of Man, see next paragraph.)

State of the Shipping Interest.—A great deal of evidence was taken by the Committee of the House of Commons on trade, Manufactures, &c., in 1833, on the state of the shipping interest. The statements made by some of the witnesses differ very materially from those of others; but, on the whole, they go to show that it was then, and had been for some years, very much depressed. It is difficult, however, seeing the number of new ships that are every year built, not to suspect that the complaints of the ship owners are very much exaggerated. No doubt their profits are a good deal lower than they were during the war; but this, if it be really an evil, is one that is not peculiar to them, but equally affects agriculturists, manufacturers, and merchants; and is not even confined to this country, but extends to others. We have already shown the groundlessness of the clamour raised against the reciprocity treaties (vol. ii. p. 211.); which, far from being injurious, have been signally beneficial to our commercial and shipping interests. It is believed that, owing to the peculiar facilities afforded by means of docks and other devices for the loading and unloading of ships, the employment of steam tugs to bring them quickly to their moorings and to take them to sea, and the greater economy and despatch that now pervade every department of the business, 3 ships are able to perform, and do, in fact perform, as much work as was done by 4 at the end of the war! There has, in this way, been a virtual addition of 400,000 to 500,000 tons to our mercantile navy. And this surely is enough, without looking at any thing else, to account for the decline in the rate of freight since 1815.

The fall in the value of ships has been a consequence of the still greater fall in the value of the timber, iron, hemp, &c. of which they are constructed; and, however injurious to those who happened to have bought or built ships during the high prices, it is in no ordinary degree advantageous to the public, and to the ship owners that are now engaging in the trade. The heavy discriminating duties on Baltic timber are, in fact, the only real grievance under which our shipping interest labours. Were it not for them, ships might be built cheaper in England than in any other country. Such, however, is the vast importance to a maritime nation like this of being able to build ships at the lowest possible rate, that we think they ought to be allowed to be built in bond, or, if that would be inconvenient, that a drawback should be allowed of the duty on every article used in their construction. A measure of this sort




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would give to the shipping of England the same superiority, in point of cheapness, that is now enjoyed by our cottons; and would do more than any thing else to consolidate and strengthen the foundations of our maritime ascendency. It is entirely owing to the operation of the duties that so many ships are now built in the colonies. They are very inferior to those built in England; and were the latter built in bond, or were the duties on the articles used in their construction drawn back, they would also be the cheapest of the two.

It may be worth mentioning, as illustrative of the singular anomalies that have been allowed to insinuate themselves into our commercial system, that timber may be imported into the Isle of Man, or into any other British possession, without regard to its origin, on payment of an *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent.! It is remarkable that advantage was not earlier taken of this anomaly, to build ships in the Isle of Man. Latterly, however, several vessels have been built in it; and it is clear that, unless it be placed on the same footing as the other parts of the empire, it will become the grand seat of the shipbuilding business. We hope, however, that the equalisation will be made, not by extending our timber laws to the Isle of Man, but by giving to Britain and Ireland the same advantages as it enjoys. There cannot be a doubt that the equalisation of the timber duties would be one of the greatest improvements which it is possible to make in our commercial system.

Mercantile Navy of France.—We have elsewhere given (see vol. i. pp. 752, 753.) very full details with respect to the navigation and shipping of France; but the subjoined classified account of the shipping belonging to that kingdom on the 1st of January, 1830, 1831, and 1832, may not be unacceptable to our readers.

Account of the Mercantile Marine of France on the 1st of January of each of the Three Years ending with 1832.

Tonnage.	1830.	1831.	1832.	Tonnage.	1830.	1831.	1832.
	Ships.	Ships.	Ships.		Ships.	Ships.	Ships.
Ships of 800 tons and upwards	2	1	1	Ships of 100 to 200 tons	1,545	1,566	1,584
— 700 to 800 tons	6	6	6	— 60 — 100 —	1,549	1,542	1,559
— 600 — 700 —	3	2	1	— 30 — 60 —	1,101	1,098	1,071
— 500 — 600 —	14	15	15	— 30 and under	9,893	10,240	10,441
— 400 — 500 —	53	51	47				
— 300 — 400 —	201	199	198	Total - - -	14,868	14,621	14,924
— 200 — 300 —	870	870	869				

(*Archives du Commerce*, tome iv. p. 138.)

(SHIPS (Classification, Qualifications of Masters of, &c.).—There is in the Art. Wreck, an account of the annual average number of shipwrecks from 1793 to 1829, with a classified account of those in the last year. Since then, the number of these calamities has in no degree diminished. The following account, compiled from Lloyd's books, shows the amount of shipwreck, in so far as it can be ascertained, from the 1st of January, 1832, to the 30th of June, 1836.

Statement of the Number of the Vessels lost, abandoned, broken up, &c.

	British.		Foreign.		Total.	
	No. of Ships.	Average Tonnage.	No. of Ships.	Average Tonnage.	No. of Ships.	Average Tonnage.
In 1832, actual losses, &c. from Lloyd's books	345	unknown	139	unknown	484	unknown
In 1833, actual losses, &c. from Lloyd's books	636	ditto	165	ditto	811	ditto
In 1834, losses, &c. 1st of January to 31st of December, from office book, Lloyd's list, and other sources, surveyors, &c. -	422	113,184	158	41,206	580	154,390
In 1835, losses, &c. 1st of January to 31st of December, from office book, Lloyd's list, and other sources, surveyors, &c. -	594	121,770	158	32,330	752	154,100
In 1836, losses, &c. 1st January to 31st of June, from Lloyd's list, and other sources	284	50,366	115	20,255	399	70,621

This account must not, however, be taken as fairly representing the total loss from shipwreck. The return as to foreign losses is too defective to be of the least value; and even as respects British shipping, such losses only are taken into account as are entered upon Lloyd's books, whereas it is well known that very many vessels are annually lost that are not entered in these books, and of which, consequently, no account is kept.

But, such as it is, the above account shows, estimating the value of the wrecked ships and cargoes at the moderate rate of 18*l.* a ton, that the pecuniary loss arising from the shipwreck of British vessels, in 1835, amounted to the immense sum of 2,191,860*l.* (121,770 × 18.) But the loss of property is less afflicting than the loss of life. In 1833, the crews of 38 ships were entirely drowned, while those of very many more partially shared the same fate. But, owing to the extent to which emigration has of late years been carried, and especially to the numbers of poor emigrants ready to embark in any ship, provided they get a cheap passage, the loss of crews is no criterion of the loss of life occasioned by shipwreck. Thus, in 1834, no fewer than 731 emigrants, bound for Canada, lost their lives by shipwreck, principally in the gulph and river of St. Lawrence (see vol. i., art. Emigrants); and within the last few years there has been a still more lamentable waste of life, in consequence of the loss of convict ships bound for Australia. The frequency and amount of shipwreck is, indeed, quite appalling; and has at length begun forcibly to attract the public attention.

It may be thought, perhaps, that these disasters are wholly ascribable to the perils incident to navigation, and that they are not really greater than might be expected to occur to a mercantile navy so extensive as that of England, whose flag is displayed on every sea, however remote or dangerous, but such is not really the case. If we suppose that a *third part* of the

wrecks that have taken place of late years have been occasioned by the dangers of the sea, we believe we shall not be within, but beyond the mark. The other *two thirds*, or more, have originated in artificial causes, of which the principal have been the erroneous system adopted by the underwriters in the classification of ships, and the incompetency of the masters.

1. *Old System for classifying Ships.*—To insure a ship on right principles, or in such a way that the premium shall be the fair equivalent of the risk, is no easy matter. The risk depends partly on the condition of the ship and the capacity of the master and crew; partly on the nature of the cargo she is to take on board; and partly on the voyage she has to perform. The last two circumstances disclose themselves, and their influence may be appreciated at least with sufficient accuracy for practical purposes, without any difficulty; but it is far otherwise with the condition of the ship, and the capacity of the master and crew. It is essential to the adjusting of an insurance on fair terms, that these should be known; and it is, at the same time, exceedingly difficult to acquire any accurate information with respect to them.

It is plain that there is but one mode in which any thing satisfactory can be learnt with respect to the condition of ships, and that is, by the inspection and examination of persons of competent information as to such matters. To acquire a just character at first, a ship should be repeatedly surveyed while she is being built; and to learn her condition at any subsequent period, some of the planks should be taken off, and her hull and rigging subjected to a thorough examination. This is the only method to be followed if we wish to arrive at results that may be safely depended on. The *age* of a ship should not be altogether overlooked in estimating her condition; but it is not a criterion that, taken by itself, is worth almost any thing. There is the greatest possible difference in the materials of which different ships are built, in the way in which they are built, and in the wear and tear to which they are exposed. Some have been so very bad, that they have actually gone to pieces on their first voyage; others, with difficulty, last for 3, 4, or 7 years; and others, again, run for 10, 15, and even 20 years, and upwards, with but little repair. It may be presumed that the condition of ships built of similar materials, on the same plan, and employed in the same departments of trade, will depend materially on their ages: but a thousand circumstances conspire to defeat this presumption; and it would be ludicrous to suppose that it should apply at all in the case of ships constructed of different materials, and engaged in different lines.

But notwithstanding the criterion of age is thus really worth less than nothing as a rule by which to judge of a ship's condition, it is almost the only one that has been referred to in this country. From about the year 1760, or perhaps earlier, down to 1834, ships were arranged, by the underwriters at Lloyd's, in classes marked by the letters A, E, I, and O, and the figures 1, 2, and 3; the former referring to the hull of the ship, and the latter to the rigging. A ship marked A 1. was in the highest class; that is, her hull and rigging were both declared to be in the best condition; ships marked E 1. were in the next class; those marked I 1. were in the lowest available class, or that formed of such as were fit only for carrying coals, or other goods not liable to sea damage along the coast; ships marked O were unseaworthy. But to get into the highest class, no examination of the ship, or none worthy of the name, was required. Unless some very flagrant defect were obvious in their construction, all ships were entitled, when new, to be marked in the highest class; and they were entitled, whatever might be their real condition, to stand in it for a certain number of years, varying from 6 to 12, according to the *port* in which they happened to be built! It is not easy to imagine that any thing can be more absurd than such a classification; but the whole extent of the injury arising from it is not immediately obvious. The great majority of merchants and underwriters have not, and could not be expected to have, any personal knowledge of different ships, and have nothing to trust to but the classified accounts. Suppose, now, that two ships were built at the same time in London or any other port; that one was constructed of the best materials, and in the best way, while the other was constructed of the worst materials, and in the most defective manner: these two ships were placed side by side in the class A 1.; the underwriters, seeing them there, were ready, without further inquiry, to insure them at the *same premium*, and the merchants were, for the same reason, quite as willing to employ the one as the other! A bounty was thus given on the construction of what have been called *slop-built* ships, or ships of an inferior class. For a half, or, at most, two thirds, of what would be required to construct a good and really sufficient ship, a shipowner got an inferior vessel of an equal burthen sent to sea; and, owing to the matchless absurdity of the system of classification, the inferior was placed in the same rank with the superior ship; enjoyed all the advantages such distinction could give; and was, in the public estimation, deemed quite as good and as deserving of employment as the other. This has been a more copious source of shipwreck than all the currents, rocks, and fogs that infest our seas; but it was not the only one. At the end of a certain number of years, depending (as already stated) on the port where the ship was built, both the vessels referred to above were degraded to the class E; and yet it might happen, that the superior ship was, when so degraded, better entitled to continue in the class A than the inferior ship was ever to be in it. But even this does not exhaust the whole absurdity of this preposterous scheme, for

supposing that the superior ship had been so thoroughly repaired as to be as good as the day she came off the stocks, and that the inferior ship had got no repair at all, still they were both placed, side by side, in the class E! All the annals of all the maritime nations of the world, from the Phœnicians downwards, furnish no example of a more perverse, contradictory, and absurd regulation. That it should have existed amongst us for the greater part of a century, strikingly exemplifies the power of habit to procure toleration for the most destructive practices and errors.

It may be said, perhaps, that, whatever system of classification is adopted, there must be great numbers of inferior vessels; for, though we did not, foreigners would build them; and being consequently able to sail them cheaper, would drive us totally out of all trades in which they could come fairly into competition with us. This is true; but no one ever thought of proscribing inferior ships, or of dictating to the shipowner what sort of ships he should build, or to the merchant what sort he should employ. We do not object to inferior ships, but we do object to the *same character* being given to them that is given to superior ships. This is practising a gross fraud upon the public; and gives an unfair and unjust advantage to the owners of inferior vessels. The interests of navigation and of humanity imperatively require that ships should be correctly classified; that those that are not seaworthy should not be classed with those that are, but that the *real state* of each should be distinctly set forth in the register, and be made known to every one. If this be done, the merchant and the underwriter may be safely left to deal with them as they think fit.

In consequence mainly of the laudable exertions of Mr. Marshall, the attention of the principal merchants, shipowners, underwriters, &c. of the metropolis was some years ago directed to this subject; and in 1824 a committee, consisting of representatives from these different bodies, was appointed to inquire into and report on it. The committee collected a great deal of valuable evidence; and laid an able report before a general meeting of merchants, shipowners, &c., on the 1st of June, 1826. We subjoin an extract from this report, which more than bears out all that we have stated:—

"From the absence of all control on the original construction of ships while building, and the impossibility of ascertaining by any inspection, after completion, their real quality, it appears to be indisputably proved, by an almost uniform concurrence of testimony, that the first character, or A 1., is indiscriminately extended to ships differing widely in strength, durability of materials, and all those qualities on which character ought to be dependent; that many ships to which the first class is assigned are decidedly inferior to others which are placed, from lapse of time alone, in a lower class; that many become totally unfit for the conveyance of dry cargoes, long before the expiration of the period during which they are entitled, according to the present system, to remain on the first letter, in which they are notwithstanding continued; that instances are on record of first class ships which have been unfit from their origin for the conveyance of dry cargoes; and some are declared to have been hardly fit, when new, to proceed to sea with safety. One case is even adduced, in which, from ill construction and insufficiency of fastening a new ship, her insecurity was predicted, and she actually foundered on her first voyage; and yet this identical vessel was ranked, according to the indiscriminate system pursued, in the first class.

"Such, as respects new ships, appears by the evidence to be the practical results of a system which, assuming to designate by marks their intrinsic quality, provides no means of actually ascertaining that quality; but offers, in effect, *a premium for the building of inferior and insufficient ships*, by the inducement it holds forth to fraudulent construction, and by the equality of character it indiscriminately extends to the best and the worst ships built at the same port.

"Nor, your committee regret to have to report, is the evidence of the errors, inconsistencies, and evils arising from the existing system, as applied to old ships, by any means less conclusive. By the *refusal to restore character, in consequence of repairs, however extensive*, the inducement to maintain ships in an efficient state is removed; whilst, from the absence of all regular provision for stated or periodical examination, their efficiency or inefficiency is rendered dependent upon the varying views, the caprices, or the interests of the proprietors. Hence, though the second character, or E, is declared by the rules of the system to be the designation of ships which, having lost the first character from age, are kept in perfect repair, and appear, on survey, to have no defects, and to be completely calculated to carry dry cargoes with safety, the whole body of evidence distinctly proves that character to be, in very numerous instances, assigned to ships which, from original defect or want of requisite repairs, are *utterly unfit and unsafe* for dry cargoes; while others, which, from sound constitution or efficient reparation, are found to be pronounced evidence to be superior to many new ships, are indiscriminately classed with the actually worth unseaworthy. Hence, too, the employment of ships, after they have passed the period prescribe fallacious standard of classification, becomes uncertain, precarious, and difficult; the shipowner injured; the shipper and underwriter misled; the building of superior ships, capable of long service, is discouraged, and direct inducement is held out to the construction of those of an inferior description; the general character of our mercantile marine is degraded; and it is to be feared that, could the system be traced to its ultimate results, it would be productive of a lamentable loss of property and life."

It may have seemed surprising that, despite the continued complaints of the lowness of freights, and the want of employment for shipping, so many new ships should be annually built. But this was, to a considerable extent at least, occasioned by the system of classification now described. Hitherto, instead of building a really good and durable ship, the principal object has been to construct one that should, at farthest, be, as the phrase is, run *off her legs* in about ten years or thereby. The reason is, that, whatever might be a ship's condition, she was then degraded from the class A 1., and that it was hardly possible, in most departments of trade, to find a merchant to employ, on any thing like reasonable terms, a ship to which these symbols of imaginary excellence were not attached. Hence, the shipowner, instead of repairing his 10-years-old ship, sold her for what she would fetch, and built a new one. But the person who purchased the ship degraded to E 1. forced her,

though at an enormous reduction, into business; so that there were two bad or inferior ships in the field; whereas, under a reasonable system of classification, there would have been only one good ship. The injury that this has done to the shipping interest is too obvious to require to be pointed out. It has been infinitely more hostile to it than all those reciprocity treaties, and that foreign competition, about which there has been so much unfounded clamour. "If the system of classification were founded on the principle of *intrinsic merit*, if the real efficiency of the ship formed the basis on which character was given, the consequence, in numerous instances, would be, that, instead of supplying the place of those ships that at present lapse from age only into the second class with new ones, the owners would effectually repair the existing ships; so that there would speedily be not only a material improvement in the construction of ships, but a material increase in the amount of tonnage, and a corresponding increase in the rate of freight.—(*Marshall's Statements*, p. 19.)

The conclusive report and exposition referred to above, did not produce the consequences that might have been anticipated. Government seems, for reasons known only to itself, to have concluded that this was not a subject with which it should interfere; and it was laid aside for some years more. But the still-increasing amount of shipwreck, and the frightful loss of life and property consequent thereon, again roused the public attention to the subject: and we are glad to have to announce, that the principal merchants, shipowners, and underwriters have at last succeeded in setting on foot machinery by which it is believed that a classified account of shipping will be obtained, founded on correct principles. Should this anticipation prove well founded, the public will owe much to the able and intelligent individuals who have imposed on themselves this difficult and important task. They will have done more than any other set of men to improve the character of our mercantile marine, and to lessen the disasters incident to a seafaring life.

2. *New system of Classification.*—This new classification is conducted under the direction and superintendence of a committee of merchants, shipowners, and underwriters established in 1834. The committee establish rules for classifying ships, and appoint, control, and dismiss the surveyors by whom they are inspected and examined. A classified register is annually published, which will be gradually made more and more complete; and the expenses attending the institution are defrayed, partly by the fees charged on making an entry in the register, partly by the profits on the sale of the register or book, and partly from voluntary sources. But, as the subject is of the utmost importance to every one interested in commerce and navigation, we think we shall do an acceptable service to our readers, by laying before them the statement prefixed by the society to their register. It fully explains their objects, the principles on which they are proceeding, and the means they have adopted for carrying their views into effect.

Classification of Ships.

After announcing the formation of the committee, the official statement goes on to say, that the following resolutions, rules, and regulations, have been adopted; viz.:—

That a society has been established for obtaining a faithful and accurate classification of the mercantile marine of the United Kingdom, and of the foreign vessels trading thereto, for whose government the following rules and by-laws have been adopted:—

That a book containing a register of such classification be annually printed, to be called *Lloyd's Register of British and Foreign Shipping*; and that all persons subscribing the sum of three guineas annually (or such other sum as may be fixed by the committee), shall be members of the Society, and entitled (*for their own use*) to a copy of the register book.

That the price at which the register book be issued to public establishments, not being marine insurance companies, be 10*l.* 10*s.*

That the register book shall be periodically posted throughout the year.

That, for the convenience of members not resident in London, a monthly supplement, containing the additions and corrections to the register book, be printed in such convenient form as will admit of its transmission by post, that those parties may be furnished with the latest and most correct information; but for which an additional charge of 1*l.* 1*s.* per annum will be made.

Superintendence of the Society.—That the superintendence of the affairs of this society be under the direction of a committee in London, composed of 24 members, consisting of an equal proportion of merchants, shipowners, and underwriters; and that, in addition, the chairman of the committee for managing the affairs of Lloyd's, and the chairman of the General Ship Owners' Society for the time being, shall, *ex officio*, be members of the committee.

Six of the members, namely, 2 of each of the constituent parts of the committee, shall go out annually by rotation, but be eligible to be re-elected.

The vacancies so arising shall be filled up by the election of 2 shipowners and 1 merchant, by the committee of the General Shipowners' Society; and 2 underwriters and 1 merchant by the committee for managing the affairs of Lloyd's.

The committee shall appoint from their own body, annually, a chairman and deputy chairman.

The secretary, clerks, and servants of the society, and the surveyors for London and the outports, shall be appointed by and be under the direction of the committee.

The committee shall meet for the despatch of business every Thursday or on such other day as they may appoint, at 11 o'clock precisely, and 5 members of the committee shall be a quorum.

Special meetings of the committee may be convened by order of the chairman, the deputy chairman, or any 3 members.

All elections and appointments whatever shall be made by ballot.

The committee are empowered to make such by-laws for their own government and proceedings as they may deem requisite, not being inconsistent with the original rules and regulations under which the society is established; but no new rule or by-law shall be introduced, nor any rule or by-law altered, without special notice being given for that purpose at the meeting of the committee next pre

ceding the one at which any such motion is intended to be made; which notice shall be inserted in the summons convening that meeting.

Surveyors.—There shall be appointed for the port of London, and other ports of the United Kingdom, such number of shipwright and nautical surveyors as from time to time may appear expedient to the committee to be requisite for the objects and purposes of the society.

No surveyor will be permitted, without the special sanction of the committee, to receive any fee, gratuity, or reward whatsoever, to his own use and benefit, for any service performed by him in his capacity of surveyor to this society, on pain of immediate dismission.

The surveyors to the society will be directed to attend on special surveys of ships under damage or repairs for restoration, when required by merchants, shipowners, and underwriters; the charge for which will be regulated according to the nature and extent of the service performed.

Funds.—The funds will be under the authority and control of the committee, and a statement of the receipts and expenditures will be annually printed for the information of the subscribers.

The following fees will be charged to the owners of ships surveyed, prior to their being classed and registered in the book:—

For the first Entry and Classification.

	Tons.	£	s.	d.
For each ship	under 150	0	10	6
Ditto	150 and under 300	1	1	0
Ditto	300 — 500	2	2	0
Ditto	500 and upwards	3	3	0

For Registering Repairs after Survey.

	Tons.	£	s.	d.
For each ship	under 150	0	10	6
Ditto	150 and under 300	1	1	0
Ditto	300 — 500	2	2	0
Ditto	500 and upwards	3	3	0

For entering and Classing New Ships built in the United Kingdom, and for entering and classing ships repaired for Restoration.

	Tons.	£	s.	d.
For each ship	under 100	1	1	0
Ditto	100 and under 200	2	2	0
Ditto	200 — 300	3	3	0
Ditto	300 — 400	4	4	0
Ditto	400 and upwards	5	5	0

For special surveys, and where the surveyors to the society are required by the owners of ships to superintend repairs for restoration, a charge will be made according to the nature and extent of the service performed.

All certificates of classification will be signed by one of the committee, and countersigned by the secretary; the charge for which is to be 10*s.* for each certificate.

Rules for Classification.

The following rules and regulations for the classification of ships have been adopted after much labour and mature consideration, assisted by the valuable information and practical knowledge of the committee of the General Ship Owners' Society.

The characters to be assigned to ships shall be, as nearly as circumstances will permit, a correct indication of their real and intrinsic qualities; and the same shall no longer be regulated by the uncertain standard of the port of building, nor by the uncontrolled decision of surveyors, but will, in all cases, be finally fixed by the committee, after due consideration of the reports of the surveyors and the documents which may be submitted to the committee.

First Class Ships.—There shall be two denominations of ships of the first class, to be distinguished as "First Description of the First Class," and "Second Description of the First Class."

1. *First Description of the First Class*—will comprise all ships which have not passed a prescribed age, and which are kept in the highest state of repair and efficiency; these will be designated by the letter A.

The period for the continuance of ships on this class shall be limited. The extent of that period will be determined by reference to the original construction and quality of the vessel, the materials employed, and the mode of building; but it is desirable, on grounds of national policy and of individual justice, that after the expiration of the prescribed period, ships shall be permitted to remain the First Description of the First Class, or to be restored thereto for a further limited period, under certain defined regulations.

2. *Second Description of the First Class*—will comprise all ships which have passed the prescribed age (but not having undergone the repairs that would entitle them to be continued in or restored to the first description), or which shall have been restored, and the period assigned for such restoration having expired, are still in a condition for the safe conveyance of dry and perishable cargoes: these will be designated by the diphthong Æ.

Second Class Ships.—This class will comprise all ships which shall be found, on survey, unfit for carrying dry cargoes, but perfectly safe for the conveyance of cargoes not in their nature liable to sea damage, *to all parts of the world:* these will be designated by the letter E.

Third Class Ships—will comprise such ships as are good in constitution, and which shall be found on survey fit for the conveyance, *on short voyages* (not out of Europe), of cargoes in their nature not liable to sea damage: these will be designated by the letter I.

Ships' Anchors, Cables, and Stores.—The efficient state and condition of ships' "Anchors, Cables, and Stores," will continue to be designated by the figure 1; and where the same are found insufficient in quantity or defective in quality, by the figure 2.

General Remarks.

All reports of survey shall be made in writing by the surveyors to this society, and submitted to the consideration of the committee, or of the sub-committee of classification; but the character assigned by the latter shall be subject to confirmation by the general committee.

In assigning character to the existing tonnage, and especially in restoration to the first description of the first class of ships that have been built without a view to such a privilege, the greatest caution will be exercised, but with a rigid attention to render ample justice to the shipowner.

No member of the committee shall be permitted to vote in the decision of the classification of any ship of which he is an owner, or directly or indirectly interested.

The reports of surveyors, and all documents and proceedings relating to the classification of ships, will be carefully preserved, and those parties proving themselves to be interested therein may have access thereto under certain regulations.

In all cases where the ships are proposed to be removed to an inferior class, notice shall be given, in writing to the owner, master, or agent, with an intimation that, if the alteration be objected to, the committee are ready to direct a special survey, on the owner, master, or agent agreeing to pay the expenses attending the same; provided it shall, upon the re-survey, appear that there has been sufficient ground for such removal.

In classing foreign ships, and ships built in the British possessions abroad, after survey on their arrival in England, a due regard will be had to their having been exempted from that supervision while building to which all British ships are to be subjected, and characters will be assigned to them according to their intrinsic quality, and from the best information that can be obtained.

First Class Ships.

First Description of First Class Ships.—New ships are required to have been surveyed while building by the surveyor to this society, in the following three stages of their progress:—

First,—when the frame be completed.

Second,—when the beams be in, but before the decks be laid, and with at least two strakes of the

plank of the ceiling, between the lower deck and the bilge, unwrought, to admit of an examination of the inner surface of the plank of the bottom.

Third,—when completed, and, if possible, before the plank be painted or payed.

A full statement, agreeably to a schedule prepared for the purpose, of the dimensions, scantlings, &c. of all new ships, verified by the builder, shall be transmitted by the surveyor, and will be kept as a record in the office of the society.

In building ships, to entitle them to be ranked in the longest period of this class, the following rules are to be observed:—

Timbering.—The whole of the timbering to be of English, African, or live oak, or teak, of good quality; the stem, stern-post, beams, transoms, aprons, knight heads, hawse timbers, and keison, to be entirely free from all defects; the frame to be well squared from first foothook heads upwards, and free from sap, and also below unless the timber is proportionably larger than the scantling hereafter described; every alternate set of timbers to be framed and bolted together to the gunwale. The butts of the timbers to be close, and not to be less in thickness than one third of the entire moulding at that place, and to be well chocked, with a butt at each end of the chock.

The dimensions to be as follows:—

Scantling for ships	Tons. 150 Inches.	Tons. 500 Inches.
Beam and square to be	30	30
Floor sided, if square, and free from sap, to be not less at the keelson than	8	12
First foothooks, sided, if square, at floor heads	7	11
Second foothooks, sided, if square, at the heads	6 1-2	10
Third foothooks, sided, and top timbers, if square	6	9
The frame to be moulded at keelson	8	13
The frame to be moulded at floor heads	7	11
Top timbers to be moulded at their heads at the deadrising	4	6

The intermediate dimensions for the scantling of timbers between the floor heads and the gunwale to be regulated in proportion to the distance from the two points. Should the room and space be increased, the siding of the timbers to be increased in proportion.

Keel Scarphs:— For ships	Tons. 150 Inches.	Tons. 500 Inches.
To be moulded in the middle (not less than)	7	9
To be moulded at the ends (not less than)	5	6 1-2
And to be sided	7	10

These at the after end of the ship to be reduced in proportion to their length.

Keel Rabbet:— For ships	Tons. 150 Inches.	Tons. 500 Inches.
To be moulded in the middle (not less than)	9	13
To be moulded at the ends (not less than)	7	10
And to be sided	9	13

These at the after end of the ship to be reduced in proportion to their length.

Keel and Keelsons:— For ships	Tons. 150 Inches.	Tons. 500 Inches.
Keel, sided	9	13
Keel, moulded below the rabbet not less than	7	10
Main keelson to be sided	10	14
Main keelson to be moulded	10	14

The scarphs of keelson, where only 1 keelson, to be 5 ft. 7 &c. But where rider keelsons are added, then they may be 4 1-2 &c. 6 ft.

Sills of timber in ships of 200 tons, and upwards, to be not less than 1-7th of the main breadth; and in ships under 200 tons, to be not less than 1-8th of the main breadth.

Plank.—1. The outside plank, above the light-water mark, to be English or African oak, East Indian teak, or red cedar.

2. The planks below the light water mark to be good white oak, elm, or beech; but the elm or beech not to be wrought higher than the first foothook heads; or if wrought higher, then 1 year will be deducted from the period that would otherwise be assigned.

3. The clamps, spirkettings, shelf pieces, and ceiling, to be English or African oak, or teak.

4. The outside plank to be clear of all defects; the inside to be free of all fayy, druxy, or decayed planks, and the whole to be properly dubbed and fastened. No butts to be nearer than 5 feet to each other, unless there be a strake wrought between them, and then a distance of 4 feet may be allowed; and no butt to be on the same timber, unless there be three strakes between.

Thickness of plank to be as under:—

Outside. For ships	Tons. 150 Inches.	Tons. 500 Inches.
Bilge to wales not less than	2 1-2	4
Short hoods	2 1-2	3
Bilge planks	3	4
Bilge to keel	2 1-2	3
Wales (average)	4	5
Top sides	2	3
Sheer strake	3	4
Plank sheer	2 1-2	4
Inside. Ceiling below the hold beams	2	3
Clamps and bilge planks	2 1-2	4
Upper deck clamps and spirkettings	2 1-2	3
Twixt deck ceiling	2	2 1-2
Deck. For ships	Tons. 150 Inches.	Tons. 500 Inches.
Upper deck	2 1-2	3
Water ways	4	6

Fastenings.—The treenails to be all of good English or African oak, locust, or other hard wood; but in no case Baltic or American oak to be used; and all planks above 9 inches in width are to be treenailed double and single, except bolts intervene; and if below that width, then to be treenailed single, and at least one half of the treenails used are required to go through the ceiling. All ships of this description of the first class are required to be copper fastened below their wales.

Sizes of Bolts:— For ships	Tons. 150 Inches.	Tons. 500 Inches.
Heel, knee, and dead wood abaft	1	1 1-2
Scarph of the keel	bolts of 3-4 in No. 6.	bolts of 1 in No. 8.
Keison bolts, one through each floor	0 7-8ths	1 1-8th
Bolts through the bilge and foot wailing	0 5-8ths	0 7-8ths
Butt-bolts	0 5-8ths	0 3-4ths
Hold beam bolts	0 7-8ths	1 1-8th
Deck beam bolts	0 3-4ths	0 7-8ths
Hooks forward at throat	0 7-8ths	1 1-8th
Hooks forward at arms	0 3-4ths	1
Transoms	0 7-8ths	1 1-8th
The lower plate of the rudder	2 1-2	3 1-2

The beams to be sufficient in number, and securely fastened at the sides, with either iron or wood knees, or both, or with shelf pieces and knees; the same to be well and sufficiently bolted; and it is required that 1 bolt in each butt below the wales, and the bolts in the bilges, shall be through and clenched.

In all cases where the butt and bilge bolts are not through and clenched, 1 year will be deducted from the period that would otherwise be assigned in the classification or the vessel; but this rule shall not be applied to ships built previously to the promulgation of the regulations of this society, although the rule will be rigidly enforced in the case of all vessels built since that period.

General Remarks.—The scantlings and dimensions of all intermediate-sized vessels to be proportionately regulated agreeably to a scale adopted by the society, a copy of which is in the hands of each of the surveyors; and it is to be clearly understood, that smaller dimensions will not entitle the ship to be placed in the longest period of this class.

1. All ships so constructed, and having the whole of the workmanship generally performed in the best manner, will be marked in the book thus, "12 A"; thereby denoting that they are ships of the first quality, and will remain in the first description of the first class 12 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

2. Ships surveyed while building, as before mentioned, in which while some of the requisites for a 12 years' ship may have been fulfilled, others have been omitted; but in which all the requisites for a 10 years' ship shall have been complied with, will be marked in the book thus, "11 A"; denoting they are to remain in the first description of the first class 11 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

3. Ships surveyed while building, as before mentioned, the scantling of timber, thickness of plank, and also of fastenings of which shall be in no respect less than those in the foregoing specifications, but which may not be framed, nor chocked, nor the timbers so well squared, as in the manner before described, or in which live oak and red cedar alternately may have been used in the framing, or in which good foreign white oak may have been used for ceiling, shelf-pieces, and clamps, will be marked in the book thus, "10 A"; denoting that they are to remain in the first description of the first class 10 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

4. Ships surveyed while building as before mentioned, but in the frame of which foreign oak timber shall be used for keisons or for floors and first foothooks only, or in which good white Dantzic oak plank shall be used below the wales outside, whilst in other respects they are constructed in the manner set forth in the preceding descriptions, will be marked in the book thus, "9 A"; denoting that they are to remain in the first description of the first class 9 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

5. Ships surveyed while building, as before mentioned and framed, fastened, and constructed in the

manner set forth in the preceding descriptions, but in the planking of which good foreign white oak shall be employed in other parts than the bottom, will be marked in the book thus, "6 A"; denoting that they are to remain in the first description of the first class 8 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

6. Ships surveyed while building, as before mentioned, and framed, fastened, and constructed in the manner set forth in the preceding descriptions, but in which good foreign white oak shall be used in the frames above the first foothook heads, or in the planking of which (except the strakes through which the beam fastenings pass) good Dantzic fir shall be used, will be marked in the book thus, "7 A"; denoting that they are to remain in the first description of the first class 7 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

7. Ships surveyed while building, as before mentioned, in the frames of which, above the first foothook heads, sound second-hand English or African oak or teak timbers shall be used, but planked and in other respects constructed agreeably to any of the preceding descriptions, or with American red pine, or yellow Baltic pine, will be marked in the book thus, "6 A"; denoting that they are to remain in the first description of the first class 6 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

8. Ships surveyed while building, as before mentioned, in the frames of which, above the first foothook heads, red pine timber, either American or Baltic, or Hackmatack, and in the bottoms of which, below that mark, the same materials are used, or black birch, elm, ash, or hard wood of like quality, and in the planking of which good yellow pine shall be used, but in other respects constructed agreeably to any of the preceding descriptions, will be marked in the book thus, "5 A"; denoting that they are to remain in the first description of the first class 5 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

9. Ships surveyed while building, as before mentioned, the frames of which, above the first foothook heads, are composed of yellow pine, elm, ash, birch, spruce, or other similar woods, but in other respects constructed agreeably to any of the preceding descriptions, will be marked in the book thus, "4 A"; denoting that they are to remain in the first description of the first class 4 years, provided they be kept in a state of efficient repair.

Ships built in the U. K. under a roof, and which shall have occupied a period of not less than 12 months in their construction, will have one year added to the period prescribed for their continuing in the first description of the first class.

Ships built in the U. K. since the promulgation of these regulations, and not surveyed while building by the surveyors to this society, or where the owners or builders may have refused to permit them to survey and examine the same at the several periods prescribed by the rules, will be subjected to a special examination previously to assigning the class in which they are to be placed, according to the preceding regulations; but in all such cases, 1 year will be deducted from the period allowed to that class, in consideration of not having been submitted to such survey during the construction.

Special Exceptions.—The prohibition, in all cases, of the use of *fir* will not apply to ships the topside planking of which, between the lower paint or shear strake and the upper black strake only, shall be composed of pitch pine, or Dantzic or Riga fir, of the best quality.

Iron-fastened Ships.

Ships, *iron-fastened*, if under 150 tons, may be entitled to continue in the first description of the first class for a period not exceeding 10 years; but if above 150 tons, then for a period not exceeding 8 years, provided that in all other respects they be constructed in accordance with the prescribed rules, and that their bottoms be not copper-sheathed.

At the expiration of the several periods assigned to ships for remaining on the first description of the first class, they will be reduced to the second description of the first class, designated by the diphthong *Æ*; but if not surveyed within 12 months after entering this description, such ships, having been during that time in some port of the U. K., the character will be omitted until such survey be held, or, if required by the owner, will be allowed to pass into the letter E.

Second Description of First Class Ships.—This class comprises ships which, having passed the prescribed age, but not having undergone the repairs that would entitle them to be continued in or restored to the first description, or which shall have been restored, and the period assigned for such restoration having expired, are still in a condition for the safe conveyance of dry and perishable cargoes; these will be designated by the diphthong *Æ*.

General Remarks.—For the purpose of ascertaining the competency of any ship for this description, careful survey will be required to be made annually, or on the return from every foreign voyage, by one of the surveyors to this society.

The bottom of every ship of this description will be required to be caulked at least once in every 5 years; or, if wood, sheathed and felted once in every 7 years; but if any ship be stripped within those periods, the bottom to be caulked if necessary.

The surveyors in their reports to the committee, on which the continuance of ships on this letter is to be founded, are required to state, distinctly and separately, the actual condition of the decks, beads, top-sides (particularly in the way of the deck fastenings), water-ways, hatchway-comings, beams, breasthooks, upper and lower deck fastenings, timber, plank, and treenails.

Where the surveyors to this society consider repairs to be requisite, they are respectfully to intimate the same, in writing, to the owner, agent, or master; and if such repairs be not entered upon within a reasonable time, a corresponding report will be made to the committee.

Parties considering the requisitions of the surveyors to this society to be unnecessary and unreasonable, may appeal to the committee, who will direct a special survey and report for their guidance: but should the requisition of the surveyors be confirmed by the committee, then the expense of such survey shall be paid by the party appealing.

In cases where it shall satisfactorily appear to the surveyors to this society that *doubling*, of sufficient thickness and properly wrought and fastened, may be allowed as a substitute for the shifting of plank, either in the wales or bottom, the surveyor is to make a special report thereof, together with his reasons to the committee, who will determine thereon.

Second Class Ships

Will comprise all ships which shall be found, on survey, unfit for carrying *dry* cargoes, but perfectly safe and fit for the conveyance, *to all parts of the world*, of cargoes not in their nature subject to sea damage; and they will be designated by the letter E.

Subject to occasional inspection, ships will continue in this class so long as their condition shall, in the opinion of the committee, entitle them thereto.

Third Class Ships

Will comprise ships that are in good constitution, and which shall be found, on survey, fit for the conveyance, *on short voyages* (not out of Europe), of cargoes in their nature not subject to sea damage; and they will be designated by the letter I.

Restoration of Ships to the First Description of the First Class.

If at any time, before the expiration of one half of the number of years beyond the period for which ships are to remain in the first description of the first class, an owner be desirous to have his ship continued in, or restored to that description, such restoration (on his consenting to the especial survey hereafter described, and performing the repairs therein found requisite) will be granted for a further period, not exceeding two thirds of the time originally assigned for her remaining in the first description of the first class: the same to be calculated from the date of such repairs.

Requisites for Restoration.—All the bolts in the range of each deck to be driven out, and the planks taken out; the upper deck water-ways, and plank sheers, and spirketting, and the strake next the water-ways on the lower deck in the midships, to be also taken out; the sheathing to be entirely stripped off the bottom; a strake in the upper course of the bottom between the wales and the light-water mark, fore and aft, and a plank in the ceiling at the floor heads, to be taken out; the timbers to be clear, and the hooks forward to be exposed; and in that state the ship to be submitted to a special survey and examination, at which the attention of the surveyors to this society is to be particularly directed to the state of the decks, the remaining plank of the topsides, the wales, upper courses, and treenails, and other fastenings; also to the state of the frame, hawse timbers, and knight heads, kelson, floor, futtocks, ceiling, and breast hooks, the rudder in all its parts and hangings; and if, after such examination, the owner should consent to take out all planks, timbers, beams, knees, water-ways, fastenings, and other parts that may be found defective, and objected to, and replace them with materials of the same species, or of equal quality, as those of which the ship was originally constructed, such ship to be entitled to restoration to the first description of the first class for a further period proportionate to their real condition and the extent of the repairs performed, and provided that they be at all times thereafter kept in a state of efficient repair.

Additional Rule.—But if, at any age, the whole of the outside plank of a vessel should be taken off as low as the second foothook heads, and the remainder of the planking, either outside or inside, together with all the decks, be removed, *so as to expose the timbers of the frame entirely to view*, and in that state the ship be submitted to a special survey and examination by the surveyors to this society; and if, after such examination, all timbers, beams, knees, kelsons, transoms, breast-hooks, remaining plank, inside or outside, or other parts to be found defective, be replaced with materials of the same species, or of equal quality, with those of which the ship was briginally constructed, and all the treenails driven out and renewed; such ships may be restored to the first description of the first class, for so long a period as may be deemed expedient by the committee, not exceeding in any case the term of six years, as provided by the seventh general rule for ships, in the construction of which second-hand timber has been used.

For Ships which comprise the existing Tonnage.—All ships comprising the existing tonnage are to undergo a very careful survey by the surveyors to this society, prior to registration, and will be classed in the register book agreeably to the descriptions herein-before laid down for the building of new ships, unless on such survey there be found sufficient cause to assign them a less period.

On the proposed survey, especial attention is required to the following points; namely, to an examination of the state of the upper deck fastenings, water-ways, spirketting, plank sheers, topsides, and upper deck, with its appendages; also, the lower deck fastenings, wales, and counter, and the plank and treenails outside the water's edge; the state of the rudder, windlass, and capstan (if the latter be used for purchasing the anchors).

And if on examination of any ship she shall be found to be so defective as to render her unfit to continue on the first description of the first class for the remainder of the term of years assigned to her in accordance with these rules and regulations, a notice of the intention to make such a reduction at the expiration of thirty days, shall be given in writing by the surveyors to this society to the master, owner, or agent, intimating that, if the alteration be objected to, the committee will direct a special survey, on the said master, owner, or agent agreeing to pay the expenses attending the same, *should it be found that the proposed reduction was justifiable.*

Ships' Anchors, Cables, and Stores.

All vessels are required to have their masts, spars, and standing rigging in good order, and the principal sails in sufficient number and good condition; and every ship is to be supplied with a good hempen stream cable, or hawser, of sufficient size and length, and with at least one good warp; and all vessels are required to be provided with anchors of proper weight, and cables of approved quality, in number and length according to the undermentioned scale:—

Anchors.—All vessels under 200 tons to have at least two bower anchors: and all vessels above that tonnage to be provided with at least three bower anchors.

Tons.	Fathoms.		Tons.	Fathoms.	
Cables.—All vessels under 100 to have at least 150 if chain.			All vessels from 300 to 400 to have at least 200 if chain		
— 100 to 150	—	160 —	— 400 — 500	—	240 —
— 150 — 200	—	170 —	But in all cases where hempen cables are used, then one sixth more in length will be required.		
— 200 — 300	—	180 —			

Boats.—All vessels under 150 tons to be provided with one good boat; and every vessel above that tonnage to be provided with at least two good boats.

For Ships navigated by Steam.

All sea-going vessels navigated by steam shall be required to be surveyed *twice in each year*, when a character will be assigned to them according to the report of survey as regards the classification of the hull and materials of the vessel.

That with respect to the boilers and machinery, the owners are required to produce to the surveyors to this society, at the above-directed surveys, a certificate from some competent master engineer, describing their state and condition at those periods; and to which certificate it is desirable there should be added a description of the particulars of the same as far as may be practicable, in the manner and form annexed; to be appended to the report of survey, and delivered to the committee, who will thereupon insert in the register book the letters "M. C.," denoting that the boilers and machinery have been inspected, and certified to be in good order and safe working condition; but if no certificate of their condition be furnished by the owner or master, then no character can be assigned for the machinery.

Hull.—The surveyors to this society are directed to examine and report the scantling of timbers, plank, and fastenings, where built, and by whom, in the same manner as directed for sailing vessels.

Scantlings.—The scantlings are to be deemed sufficient for a steam vessel under 300 tons register, if equal to those required by the scale prescribed in the rules for this society for a sailing vessel of two thirds of the registered tonnage of such steam vessel; but for a steam vessel above 300 tons register, then the scantlings are to be equal to those required by the scale for a sailing vessel of three fourths of the registered tonnage of such steam vessel.

Floors.—Where the vessel is not filled in solid to the floor heads in the engine room, an exception will be specially made against any reduction of the scantling of the floors, which, in such cases, will not be permitted to be upon the reduced scale of two thirds or three fourths of the dimensions for the scantlings of sailing vessels as before stated; but the floors will then be required to be equal to the dimensions set forth in the rules for ships of the actual registered tonnage of the steam vessel.

The surveyors are required to report the number, size, length, fastenings, and mode of arrangement of the engine and boiler sleepers, and the description of timber of which they are composed, and whether diagonally trussed with wood or iron, and to what extent; the length, size, and fastenings of shelf-pieces and paddle beams; and whether the vessel be constructed with spoonings, and how they are formed; and to give the general length and shifting of the plank outside and inside.

Materials and Stores.—The surveyors are to examine and report the number and description of the masts, sails, anchors, cables, hawsers, warps, and boats, as directed to be done for sailing vessels; but the anchors and cables will not be required to exceed in number, weight, and length those of a sailing vessel of two thirds of the registered tonnage of the steam vessel.

The surveyors are to be particular in examining and reporting the condition of the boats of all vessels employed in carrying passengers.

FORM OF CERTIFICATE FOR VESSELS NAVIGATED BY STEAM.

Lloyd's Register of British and Foreign Shipping.—Certificate for Vessels navigated by Steam.

[Place and date] , 183

, do certify that the whole of the boilers and machinery of the steam vessel , belonging to : whereof is master, , tons, have been carefully inspected and examined by , at and that find the same to be at this time in good order and safe working condition.

Witness hand.

, Master Engineer.

The following is a true account of the particulars of the machinery of the steam vessel , herein named:—

Engines.

Number	.	.	.	.	.
Estimated power	.	.	.	.	.
Diameter of paddle-wheels	.	.	.	.	.
Length of paddles	.	.	.	.	.
Breadth of paddles	.	.	.	.	.
If upon the first or second motion					
Number of revolutions per minute					
Size and condition of the holding-down bolts					

Fuel.

Where stowed	.	.	.	.	.
If in contact with boiler	.	.	.	.	.
For what quantity room is provided					
If liable to get wetted	.	.	.	.	.

Boilers.

Whether iron or copper	.	.	.	
Working pressure	.	.	.	
If it can be increased at pleasure			.	.
If any and what means of changing the water without extinguishing the fires and blowing off				.
Number of feed pumps	.	.	.	.
How attached	.	.	.	.
State of the boilers	.	.	.	.
What clear space upon the topside of the boiler				
Do. at the end	.	.	.	.
Do. round the chimney	.	.	.	.

Pumps.

Number of hand pumps	.	.	.
If any attached to engine, their purpose and power			.
Number of force pumps, with a branch and hose of sufficient length to reach to every part of the vessel			.

, Master Engineer.

The rules herein set forth may at all times be altered by the presiding committee, and especially to meet any acknowledged improvements which may be made in naval architecture, or in the materials used in ship-building.

No one can question the advantages that will result from carrying a plan of this sort completely into execution. We confess, however, that we doubt much whether this can be done without the co-operation of government. It is invidious to impose on one set of merchants and ship-owners the task of deciding upon the condition of the ships or other property belonging to others; and, though we have every confidence in the integrity of the gentlemen composing the committee, the most honourable men are liable to be influenced by an *esprit du corps*, and by insensible biasses. We, therefore, cannot help thinking that the scheme would have a much better chance of success, and that the classification would be more likely to be correct, were it managed by individuals nowise connected with business. The surveyors, on whose capacity and honesty the whole scheme principally depends, ought to be quite independent of the good or ill will of those on whose property they have to report. But can that be said to be the case at present? and can it be fairly presumed that merchants or shipowners will deal by the property of their friends and neighbours as it might be dealt with by officers appointed by, and responsible only to, government? We apprehend that both those questions must be answered in the negative; and hence our conviction that this is a matter in which government should interfere. No one can doubt that it is bound to do every thing in its power to promote the safety of navigation, and to preserve the lives of our seamen. In this view it erects lighthouses, and prescribes regulations as to pilotage, &c. But, how indispensable soever, these are not more essential to the interests of navigation than a proper classification of ships; and, if other means should fail to effect this desirable purpose, government will certainly neglect a most important duty if it do not interpose.—(For a further discussion of this important question, see the article on the Frequency of Shipwrecks in the 122d number of the *Edinburgh Review*; see also the *Report of the Commercial Committee* of 1836, on Shipwreck.)

3. *Incapacity of Masters.—Means by which it might be obviated.*—But government will not do its duty if it do not go further than this. An erroneous classification of shipping has been a great, but not the only, cause of shipwreck. The ignorance and incapacity of the masters and officers is another, and hardly a less copious, source of disaster. Officers of the navy have to go through a course of discipline, and are obliged to submit to certain examinations as to their proficiency in seamanship. This, also, was the case with the officers of the East India Company's ships, which were exceedingly well navigated. Indeed, the Company trusted entirely for protection to the goodness of their ships, and the skill of their officers and men; it not being their practice ever to insure. But the masters and officers of ordinary merchant ships are not subjected to any specific training, or any regular examination. Every thing is left to mere individual investigation and selection; and this, as every one knows, depends almost wholly on accident; or, which is nearly equivalent to it, on the skill, industry, liberality, &c. of the shipowner. Every one must be satisfied that masters so chosen cannot fail of being, in many instances, very ill qualified for their business. Few, however, have any notion of the extent of the mischief thence arising; but we have been assured by gentlemen of undoubted information, and extensively connected with the business of insurance, that

nearly half the losses at sea may be ascribed to the ignorance, incapacity, and carelessness of the masters and crews. Perhaps, there may be some exaggeration in this; but, supposing that only a third part, or that about 200 out of the 626 vessels wrecked in 1833, were lost through the circumstances referred to, is not that enough, not merely to justify government interfering to avert so great an evil, but to make such interference a positive duty?

The interposition of government in a case of this sort, is not only absolutely just and necessary, but it is conformable to the highest authority. The famous French ordinance of 1681 has the following article:—"*Aucun ne pourra ci-après être reçu capitaine, maître, ou patron de navire, qu'il n'ait navigué pendant cinq ans, et n'ait été examiné publiquement sur le fait de la navigation, et trouvé capable par deux anciens maîtres, en présence des officiers de l'Amirauté et du Professeur de l'Hydrographie, s'il y en a dans le lieu.*" (Liv. ii. tit. 1. § 1.) A similar article has been inserted in the *Code de Commerce*; and, in 1825, the French government issued an ordinance specifying, in detail, the qualifications that are necessary before any one can obtain a certificate of his fitness to command a ship, either on a foreign or coasting voyage; the persons who are to examine candidates; and the rules that are to be observed in the examination. Some similar ordeal should certainly be established in this country. The authority of the master is so very great, and the trust reposed in him, including not merely the ship and goods of his employers, but the lives of the crew and passengers, so very extensive, that it is the bounden duty of the public to provide that it be not committed to ignorant or incapable hands.

Perhaps it would, at first, be enough to enact, that no ship, which cleared out for an *oversea* voyage, should be deemed a British ship, unless the master and the second in command had received a certificate of fitness from the proper authorities. This would leave it to the owners to take whom they pleased as masters of coasting vessels; but we believe that the better way would be to enact that all masters of vessels, above a specified tonnage, should be selected from among certificated persons. We do hope that the next time we may have to notice this subject will be to announce that the measure now suggested, or one of a like import, has been carried into effect.—(*Edinburgh Review, loc. cit.*)

4. *Disorderly Conduct of the Crews.—Means by which it might be obviated.*—Nothing, we are well assured, would do so much to obviate the disorderly bad conduct so frequently complained of, on the part of seamen, as the enforcing of sobriety on board ships. However disgraceful, there can be no doubt of the fact, that some very bad cases of shipwreck have been mainly occasioned by the drunkenness of the crew. The Americans have seen the advantage that would arise from a reform in this particular; and large numbers of American ships, especially those engaged in long voyages, are now sent to sea, in which the use of spirits is strictly prohibited, unless when prescribed by the surgeon as a cordial or medicine. In these ships the conditions of agreement, signed by the men, have at their head the words "No Grog Allowed," printed in large capitals. Instead of it, the seamen are liberally supplied with coffee, cocoa, &c.; and it is said that the crews of the ships fitted out on this plan are not only more orderly, but that they are more vigorous, and able to endure greater fatigue. But, to establish the superiority of this practice, it is enough to mention that the American insurance offices have, for some time past, insured "temperance ships" at a decidedly *lower premium* than others! We are convinced that nothing would do half so much to improve the character of our common seamen, as the introduction of a similar system into our merchant-service. And, notwithstanding the prejudices against it, we are glad to have it to state, that some ships, fitted out on this plan, have sailed from London and Liverpool, and that (even in this its incipient stage) it has been found to answer exceedingly well.

5. *Improper Built of Ships.*—We have elsewhere noticed (Supplement, article Tonnage) the act 5 and 6 Will. 4. c. 56., passed in 1835, for ascertaining the tonnage of ships. In the old system, the tonnage was determined by reference only to a ship's length and breadth; which led to vessels being built of a disproportionate depth, in order that their registered tonnage, and, consequently, the charges depending on it, might be diminished as much as possible. The faulty construction of ships thence arising has, no doubt, contributed, in some degree, to occasion losses; but the act referred to, by making the tonnage be fairly determined according to the capacity of the ship, whatever the form may be, will completely obviate this source of defective construction and loss.

I. An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, with the Number of their Crews, belonging to the British Empire, on the 31st December, 1835, 1836, and 1837, respectively.

	On the 31st December, 1835.			On the 31st December, 1836.			On the 31st December, 1837.		
	Vessels.	*Tons.*	*Men.*	*Vessels.*	*Tons.*	*Men.*	*Vessels.*	*Tons.*	*Men.*
United Kingdom	18,737	2,320,087	139,151	19,283	2,312,846	138,136	19,936	2,326,227	139,232
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man	463	39,696	3,959	565	36,403	3,995	600	37,294	4,230
British Plantations	6,911	423,656	27,911	5,432	442,997	28,506	5,501	475,497	30,044
Total	25,911	2,783,761	171,020	25,280	2,792,246	170,637	26,037	2,791,018	173,506

II. Statement of the Shipping employed in the Trade of the United Kingdom, in the Year 1837, exhibiting the Number and Tonnage of Vessels that Entered Inwards and cleared Outwards (including their repeated Voyages), with the Number of their Crews, separating British from Foreign Vessels, and distinguishing the Trade with each Country.

Countries.	Inwards.						Outwards.					
	British.			Foreign.			British.			Foreign.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
Russia	1,521	317,510	14,099	370	97,247	3,973	1,533	326,649	14,213	327	86,976	3,630
Sweden	47	7,808	362	211	42,892	1,918	56	9,374	450	166	31,462	1,349
Norway	11	1,935	72	611	88,004	4,742	20	2,159	157	646	95,102	4,785
Denmark	48	5,827	290	750	65,981	3,299	242	28,231	2,146	1,329	140,864	6,345
Prussia	431	97,695	5,330	762	145,742	5,618	342	51,803	2,546	632	114,781	5,116
Germany	267	126,260	7,277	247	58,372	2,797	715	140,886	8,030	288	64,119	4,081
Holland	1,164	159,297	8,230	84	20,065	1,013	1,055	150,576	8,104	549	60,560	3,462
Belgium	544	57,193	3,327	433	48,433	2,051	540	58,121	3,158	271	42,521	2,764
France	2,288	282,250	15,140	1,076	121,078	10,629	2,284	231,701	20,040	1,814	198,741	15,346
Portugal, Proper	205	35,619	2,276	70	7,087	641	286	36,295	2,437	81	10,079	726
Azores	289	20,988	1,068	2	415	48	227	16,632	1,288	18	1,784	118
Madeira	15	2,845	168	-	-	-	20	3,246	236	-	-	-
Spain, and the Balearic Islands	455	49,550	2,612	73	5,779	297	284	34,286	2,284	29	2,884	174
Canaries	31	3,276	179	1	100	6	59	6,348	378	4	602	28
Gibraltar	44	10,289	504	-	-	-	134	29,923	2,060	4	602	28
Italy and the Italian Islands	459	92,422	5,560	44	10,195	560	383	82,151	5,949	47	9,764	588
Malta	11	1,960	96	-	-	-	74	13,954	709	2	1,042	44
Ionian Islands	71	9,560	527	-	-	-	50	6,976	382	2	290	14
Turkey and Continental Greece	119	15,143	958	-	-	-	147	24,235	1,264	6	1,884	94
Morea and Greek Islands	19	2,316	149	-	-	-	25	4,421	215	2	290	14
Egypt	28	4,266	210	-	-	-	60	12,258	616	2	290	14
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	14	1,720	98	-	-	-	34	5,923	179	24	6,744	288
Coast of Africa, from Morocco to the Cape of Good Hope	198	45,677	2,408	5	469	24	126	24,926	1,296	1	92	10
Cape of Good Hope	52	4,758	270	-	-	-	68	14,888	883	-	-	-
Eastern Coast, from the Cape of Good Hope to Babel Mandel	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Cape de Verd Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	217	18	-	-	-
St. Helena and Ascension	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	1,491	97	-	-	-
Madagascar	9	861	56	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1,599	64
Isles of Bourbon	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mauritius	74	20,510	1,097	-	-	-	53	14,560	770	-	-	-
Arabia	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	1,589	75	-	-	-
East India Company's Territories—Singapore and Ceylon	231	118,758	7,075	-	-	-	231	108,997	6,697	-	-	-
Sumatra	1	279	17	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Java	4	1,599	94	1	399	21	9	2,718	149	1	399	15
Other Islands of the Indian Seas (exclusive of the Philippines)	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	264	22	-	-	-
Philippine Islands	2	2,142	111	1	119	27	1	447	39	1	146	12
Ports of Siam	1	316	15	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
China	62	28,219	1,503	-	-	-	29	17,694	1,178	2	272	15
New Holland	62	18,946	978	-	-	-	128	47,940	2,589	-	-	-
New Zealand and South Sea Islands	9	427	22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
British Northern Colonies	1,865	631,427	26,670	-	-	-	1,856	808,448	32,792	-	-	-
British West Indies	515	226,446	11,963	-	-	-	913	344,546	18,612	-	-	-
Hayti	17	2,501	141	-	-	-	54	6,607	360	2	446	24
Cuba, and other Foreign West Indies	49	9,250	505	19	4,119	199	79	16,998	984	20	3,695	208
United States	389	81,023	3,957	662	225,818	10,276	389	110,478	4,670	634	204,542	11,143
Mexico	44	7,291	435	-	-	-	20	3,196	231	-	-	-
Guatemala	1	194	10	-	-	-	2	139	14	-	-	-
Columbia	20	4,106	224	1	223	13	4	791	46	2	399	27
Brazils	166	27,291	1,528	4	970	46	173	41,977	2,198	3	600	43
State of Rio de la Plata	28	5,257	268	-	-	-	49	12,014	577	-	-	-
Chili	41	9,567	512	2	1,256	100	22	4,075	278	2	534	28
Peru	19	4,174	231	1	259	13	15	2,680	164	1	249	13
The Whale Fisheries	71	23,454	2,777	-	-	-	61	20,108	2,535	-	-	-
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, and Man	2,419	631,280	11,694	22	2,650	122	2,302	113,282	10,548	-	-	-
Total	16,186	2,617,196	142,319	7,543	1,035,940	56,779	14,557	2,547,257	143,698	7,401	1,096,782	57,971

[The following tables, relating to the shipping of the United States, are from official reports made to Congress by the Secretary of the Treasury.

Number and Class of Vessels built, and the Tonnage thereof, in each State and Territory of the United States, for the Year ending on the 30th September, 1830.

States.	Class of Vessels.					Total number of vessels built.	Total Tonnage.
	Ships.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Sloops.	Steamboats.		Tons. 95ths.
Maine	96	48	64	-	8	145	27,726 93
New Hampshire	5	-	2	-	-	7	2,786 51
Massachusetts	24	14	100	4	-	142	24,446 20
Rhode Island	3	4	2	-	-	9	1,486 32
Connecticut	3	1	17	25	-	26	5,771 11
New York	10	7	32	46	17	106	17,351 44
New Jersey	-	1	27	24	10	72	6,789 75
Pennsylvania	4	7	14	13	11	49	6,853 57
Delaware	-	-	9	7	-	16	1,231 05
Maryland	3	7	114	-	5	129	15,238 52
District of Columbia	1	-	1	10	2	14	1,215 38
Virginia	-	-	2	-	1	10	338 31
North Carolina	-	-	25	2	-	26	1,549 57
South Carolina	-	-	3	-	1	4	443 70
Georgia	-	-	3	-	2	7	979 16
Ohio	-	-	2	-	42	44	6,568 40
Tennessee	-	-	-	-	3	3	697 68
Alabama	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mississippi	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Louisiana	-	-	6	1	4	11	998 15
Kentucky	-	-	-	-	11	11	2,101 50
Missouri	-	-	-	-	5	5	599 03
Michigan	-	-	3	-	4	7	866 22
Florida	-	-	1	1	1	3	190 56
Total	95	89	429	132	126	859	131,096 34

Statement of the Tonnage entered each State and Territory of the United States, commencing on the 1st day of October, 1838, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1839.

State and Territories.	American.				Foreign.				Total American and Foreign.			
	No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.	
			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.
Maine	861	80,514	3,629	185	266	61,443	2,276	49	1,127	111,972	5,705	233
New Hampshire	31	5,927	227	5	10	678	35	- -	41	6,605	262	5
Vermont	108	44,811	1,965	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	108	44,811	1,965	- -
Massachusetts	1,239	214,752	13,181	660	606	64,570	2,100	208	1,845	279,322	14,280	868
Rhode Island	137	26,024	1,268	- -	6	911	33	- -	143	26,935	1,341	- -
Connecticut	129	25,317	1,548	11	10	1,086	55	- -	139	26,381	1,643	11
New York	4,008	674,694	31,401	1,469	1,825	344,511	20,529	226	5,811	1,019,175	51,930	1,645
New Jersey	9	1,350	68	- -	1	97	4	- -	10	1,516	72	- -
Pennsylvania	465	96,997	4,960	226	73	14,508	690	31	538	111,505	4,650	256
Delaware	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Maryland	292	56,998	2,547	1	90	15,804	971	- -	429	72,802	3,518	1
District of Columbia	27	5,648	241	2	11	1,298	53	5	94	7,445	295	7
Virginia	97	14,715	674	- -	27	6,065	343	- -	124	20,780	1,017	- -
North Carolina	153	16,169	771	13	30	3,471	154	2	183	20,640	1,155	15
South Carolina	146	26,523	1,353	55	94	27,674	1,174	194	240	54,197	2,527	249
Georgia	54	11,516	449	1	50	20,423	782	- -	104	31,949	1,231	1
Alabama	126	21,857	1,039	- -	48	13,908	738	- -	173	35,765	1,777	- -
Mississippi	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Louisiana	609	126,547	6,210	9	219	86,619	3,949	- -	823	193,165	9,758	9
Ohio	64	4,850	300	- -	24	1,988	96	- -	91	6,138	396	- -
Kentucky	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Tennessee	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Indiana	43	3,208	96	- -	23	2,449	99	- -	66	4,657	195	- -
Michigan	180	10,449	960	18	14	1,119	150	- -	194	11,568	1,110	18
Illinois	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Missouri	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Total	8,838	1,491,279	68,952	2,614	4,108	624,814	34,277	934	12,441	2,116,093	103,199	3,449

Statement of the Tonnage cleared from each State and Territory of the United States, commencing on the 1st day of October, 1838, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1839.

State and Territories.	American.				Foreign.				Total American and Foreign.			
	No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.		No.	Tons.	Crews.	
			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.			Men.	Boys.
Maine	449	77,989	3,114	244	231	51,227	2,252	46	1,240	129,095	6,266	290
New Hampshire	19	3,949	154	5	10	678	35	- -	29	4,527	189	5
Vermont	185	44,766	1,275	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	185	44,766	1,275	- -
Massachusetts	980	193,278	9,630	809	612	43,668	2,294	6	1,592	236,947	11,903	215
Rhode Island	125	22,885	1,120	- -	5	313	13	- -	128	23,204	1,133	- -
Connecticut	136	26,309	1,670	76	9	916	49	- -	145	27,224	1,719	76
New York	3,094	549,736	23,096	1,526	1,728	350,666	19,914	186	5,332	900,402	43,010	1,712
New Jersey	17	3,904	177	7	3	347	16	- -	21	4,251	193	7
Pennsylvania	329	64,319	2,938	217	72	13,381	654	61	405	77,699	3,592	278
Delaware	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Maryland	311	49,998	2,491	- -	99	19,556	994	- -	400	69,554	3,485	- -
District of Columbia	45	6,696	333	8	11	1,547	82	5	57	8,243	415	13
Virginia	792	41,494	1,795	19	50	7,895	449	- -	842	49,389	2,244	19
North Carolina	344	43,515	2,199	3	37	3,303	247	- -	381	47,833	2,446	6
South Carolina	212	51,823	2,198	97	102	30,627	1,243	197	314	82,450	3,409	294
Georgia	111	31,564	1,342	1	50	19,408	762	1	161	50,972	2,004	2
Alabama	200	43,866	2,077	- -	44	17,606	717	- -	244	61,472	2,704	- -
Mississippi	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Louisiana	694	177,257	7,662	3	208	54,772	2,778	- -	902	232,029	10,440	3
Ohio	76	4,716	208	- -	36	1,967	97	- -	112	6,703	305	- -
Kentucky	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Tennessee	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Michigan	73	5,709	154	- -	24	1,936	80	- -	112	5,644	236	- -
Illinois	199	12,422	1,054	5	18	1,299	143	- -	217	13,681	1,197	5
Missouri	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Total	8,512	1,477,923	68,931	2,421	4,036	611,839	34,399	493	12,548	2,089,767	103,319	2,914

A Comparative View of the registered, enrolled, and licensed Tonnage of the United States, from 1815 to 1839, inclusive.

Years.	Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage.	Total tonnage.	Years.	Registered tonnage.	Enrolled and licensed tonnage.	Total tonnage.
	Tons and 95ths.				Tons and 95ths.		
1815	854,294 74	513,833 04	1,368,127 78	1826	812,619 37	929,772 50	1,741,391 87
1816	800,759 63	571,458 85	1,372,218 53	1829	650,142 88	610,654 88	1,260,977 81
1817	809,724 70	590,186 66	1,399,911 41	1830	576,475 33	615,310 10	1,191,776 43
1818	606,088 64	609,095 51	1,225,184 20	1831	620,451 92	647,394 32	1,267,846 29
1819	612,930 44	647,821 17	1,260,751 61	1832	666,960 77	752,460 39	1,439,450 21
1820	619,047 53	661,118 66	1,280,166 24	1833	750,026 72	856,123 22	1,601,149 94
1821	619,896 40	679,062 30	1,298,958 70	1834	857,438 42	901,468 67	1,758,907 14
1822	628,150 41	696,548 71	1,324,699 17	1835	885,821 60	939,118 49	1,824,940 14
1823	639,920 76	696,644 67	1,336,565 68	1836	897,774 51	984,328 14	1,882,102 65
1824	669,973 60	719,190 37	1,389,163 02	1837	810,447 29	1,086,238 40	1,896,685 69
1825	700,787 08	722,323 69	1,423,110 77	1838	822,591 89	1,173,047 89	1,995,639 80
1826	739,978 15	796,211 68	1,534,190 83	1839	834,244 54	1,262,234 27	2,096,478 81
1827	747,170 44	873,437 34	1,620,607 78				

Abstract of the Tonnage of the several Districts of the United States on the last day of September, 1830.

Districts.	Registered.		Enrolled and licensed.		Licensed, under twenty tons.		Aggregate of each District	Proportion of the registered and enrolled tonnage employed in the		Proportion of the enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the				
	Permanent.	Temporary.	Permanent.	Temporary.	Coasting trade.	Cod fishery.		Whale fishery.	Registered steam navigation.	Coasting trade.	Cod fishery.	Mackerel fishery.	Whale fishery.	Steam navigation.
	Tons and 95ths.													
Passamaquoddy, Maine	951 97	1,816 08	9,970 08		67 43	92 65	12,799 50			8,954 84	988 21	626 88		
Machias, —	525 57	579 61	9,466 24		46 76	91 10	10,909 50			9,519 37	66 78	97 14		
Frenchman's Bay —	2,047 42	495 47	14,364 82		80 78	192 92	17,180 76			13,519 44	809 80	295 53		
Penobscot —	5,807 58	322 64	27,642 34		866 03	693 12	34,959 71			25,331 69	1,580 47	720 13		
Belfast —	4,012 63	957 27	28,445 93		230 75	115 80	33,935 62			26,650 25	1,766 70	295 80		
Waldoborough, —	10,598 15	875 35	32,053 28		82 76	1,610 44	45,125 72			30,055 28				
Wiscasset, —	2,305 42	823 74	9,769 10		- -	- -	11,902 31		278 18	6,100 15	2,423 91	943 94		
Bath, —	25,975 19	957 11	20,018 89		91 50	380 25	47,411 04			18,458 36	1,564 54	- -	- -	825 14
Portland, —	32,781 44	3,730 50	13,122 83		149 24	319 49	56,163 60			13,956 50	2,426 08	780 85		
Saco, —	2,42 85	226 48	1,705 30		81 80	- -	2,396 81			1,556 80	238 45			
Kennebunk, —	6,320 54	246 31	3,577 00		- -	85 23	10,230 13			2,954 69	949 02	94 94		
York, —	- -	- -	1,109 35		- -	52 52	1,061 87			647 39	337 50	84 41		
Portsmouth, N. Hampshire	17,095 59	2,448 01	8,549 23		5 64	121 40	28,224 07			8,262 84	5,419 84	977 05		
Newburyport, Massachusetts	12,152 01	1,040 49	9,972 23		- -	76 49	23,221 38	389 45		8,984 54	2,448 77	4,844 84		
Ipswich, —	- -	- -	3,094 84		6 39	85 22	3,186 45			3,094 84				
Gloucester, —	1,763 41	145 08	14,350 14		- -	888 13	17,266 87							
Salem, —	20,285 77	994 64	13,980 26		- -	- -	35,050 67			10,346 91	2,630 60	190 70		
Marblehead, —	2,125 23	57 09	9,801 77		109 99	40 81	11,944 90			8,351 75	1,162 89	57 37		
Boston, —	119,789 62	15,679 12	64,805 80		161 14	301 09	200,615 68			54,985 36	4,189 17	5,581 27		
Plymouth, —	11,015 31	- -	14,733 23		45 88	114 74	25,948 65			11,284 69	1,251 81	1,506 64		
Dighton, —	1,282 29	943 94	7,101 52		157 64	- -	8,489 49	1,670 94		6,567 64	208 79	223 73		
New Bedford, —	46,190 34	994 93	37,262 47		22 64	180 47	86,524 75	68,850 97		20,226 49	6,036 94	28 40	218 68	87 01
Barnstable, —	3,044 81	240 83	48,888 59		203 15	165 45	52,791 83	2,615 67		19,513 17	19,571 66	27,606 69		
Edgartown —	8,371 05	707 87	1,518 23	305 74	782 13	- -	6,625 11	4,065 57		1,887 94	120 02			
Nantucket, —	24,956 85	305 77	6,461 13	- -	14 51	46 79	31,889 99	28,585 81		2,170 78	57 31	- -	227 07	171 39
Providence, R. Island	10,851 36	550 06	7,978 31	- -	129 26	- -	18,408 73	1,045 46		6,320 16	157 09	- -	- -	497 05
Bristol, —	10,301 66	- -	5,121 35	- -	- -	- -	15,423 00	1,446 34		4,121 25	- -	- -	- -	
Newport, —	4,928 15	380 01	5,063 17	- -	215 68	170 29	10,741 25	5,177 29		4,457 62	605 50	- -	- -	211 11
Middletown, Connecticut	63 77	198 01	12,077 84	- -	226 43	- -	13,157 15	- -		12,019 20	58 94	- -	- -	796 39
New London, —	16,888 84	543 67	24,365 48	- -	200 11	1,015 26	43,013 56	14,749 03		22,270 63	2,024 92	- -	- -	846 45
New Haven, —	3,834 77	877 46	7,004 65	- -	282 46	82 15	11,771 54	- -		6,956 59	43 26	- -	- -	794 30
Fairfield, —	- -	- -	14,959 94	- -	- -	32 77	14,992 05	- -		14,959 94				
Vermont, Vermont	- -	- -	4,232 57	- -	- -	- -	4,232 57	- -		4,232 57	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62
Champlain, New York	- -	- -	959 62	- -	- -	- -	959 62	- -		959 62	- -	- -	- -	
Sackett's Harbour, —	- -	- -	3,780 57	- -	- -	- -	3,780 57	- -		3,780 57	- -	- -	- -	190 00
Oswego, —	- -	- -	7,038 78	- -	- -	- -	7,038 78	- -		7,038 78	- -	- -	- -	330 39
Niagara, —	- -	- -	230 89	- -	- -	- -	230 89	- -		230 89	- -	- -	- -	230 39
Genesee, —	- -	- -	471 24	- -	- -	- -	471 24	- -		471 24	- -	- -	- -	230 00
Onondaga, —	- -	- -	1,018 61	- -	- -	- -	1,018 61	- -		1,018 61	- -	- -	- -	500 82
Buffalo Creek, —	- -	- -	4,916 00	- -	- -	- -	4,916 00	- -		4,916 00	- -	- -	- -	
Sag Harbour, —	4,880 28	220 50	7,141 21	- -	202 45	104 55	12,587 17	10,580 20		129,880 76	880 46	- -	- -	20 37
New London, —	160,884 20	25,451 69	9,77,024 72	- -	9,447 77	281 74	430,300 89	2,480 49	205 79	237,084 72	- -	- -	- -	20,345 47
Cape Vincent, —	- -	- -	116 82	- -	- -	- -	116 82	- -		116 82	- -	- -	- -	
South Amboy, New Jersey	885 82	57 09	13,271 20	- -	278 26	- -	15,032 80	- -		13,071 20	- -	- -	- -	5,400 47
Bridgetown, —	- -	- -	13,547 82	- -	822 80	- -	14,068 77	- -		12,547 82	- -	- -	- -	
Burlington, —	- -	- -	8,074 66	- -	60 45	- -	8,128 11	- -		8,074 66	- -	- -	- -	
Newark, —	880 20	876 75	2,787 82	- -	- -	- -	3,787 82	- -		2,787 82	- -	- -	- -	1,125 22
Little Egg Harbour, —	- -	- -	2,437 91	- -	- -	- -	2,437 91	- -		2,437 91	- -	- -	- -	
Great Egg Harbour, —	- -	- -	12,470 98	- -	144 52	- -	12,615 50	- -		12,470 98	- -	- -	- -	
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	49,441 17	6,187 75	25,950 13	- -	9,443 99	- -	90,922 04	- -		69,850 13	- -	- -	- -	
Presquisle, —	- -	- -	3,632 37	- -	- -	- -	3,632 37	- -		3,632 37	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62
Pittsburg, —	- -	- -	11,954 71	- -	- -	- -	11,954 71	- -		11,954 71	- -	- -	- -	1,119 99
Wilmington, Delaware	674 18	215 56	15,453 70	- -	190 49	- -	16,771 19	- -		15,453 70	- -	- -	- -	11,954 71
New Castle, —	- -	- -	2,529 06	- -	- -	- -	2,529 06	- -		2,529 06	- -	- -	- -	2,18 80
Baltimore, Maryland	27,281 20	4,714 65	27,281 12	- -	616 12	- -	71,593 14	- -		27,281 12	- -	- -	- -	7,954 99
Annapolis, —	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -		1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	
Oxford, —	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -		1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	
Vienna, —	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -		1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	
Snow Hill, —	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -		1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	
Georgetown, —	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -		1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	
Alexandria, —	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -		1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	
Fredericksburg, —	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -		1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	
Richmond, —	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -		1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	
Yorktown, —	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -		1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	
Tappahannock, —	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -		1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	
Urbanna, —	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -		1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	
Tappahannock, —	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -		1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	
Urbanna, —	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	1,954 62	- -		1,954 62	- -	- -	- -	

Statistical view of the Tonnage of American and Foreign Vessels arriving from, and departing to each foreign country, during the Years ending on the 30th day of September, 1837, 1838, and 1839.

Countries.	1836—1837.				1837—1838.				1838—1839.			
	American Tonnage.		Foreign Tonnage.		American Tonnage.		Foreign Tonnage.		American Tonnage.		Foreign Tonnage.	
	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.
	Tonnage.				Tonnage.				Tonnage.			
Russia	15,153	6,644	5,091	4,147	12,901	7,953	813	196	15,423	8,540	2,011	2,0
Prussia	707	-	17,737	4,825	-	240	643	1,433	253	616	316	1,2
Sweden and Norway	7,981	1,581	11,457	4,084	7,231	1,412	6,616	1,639	9,861	797	13,711	2,6
Swedish West Indies	1,021	2,629	-	54	236	1,945	-	-	669	2,164	-	1
Denmark	234	1,062	3,834	4,797	-	260	1,084	1,072	364	708	231	2
Danish West Indies	20,013	21,257	1,752	5,180	24,323	21,168	921	719	25,796	23,563	1,634	3,0
Netherlands	12,033	15,745	19,436	22,788	10,706	16,501	5,980	12,039	14,167	11,612	3,660	12,5
Dutch East Indies	4,026	5,441	-	7,340	3,756	11,430	-	-	4,370	9,234	-	6
Dutch West Indies	11,602	6,208	681	563	14,239	2,948	355	169	9,325	4,020	533	4
Dutch Guiana	6,089	6,378	-	2,677	7,262	4,718	-	76	6,550	6,657	-	
Belgium	6,353	4,995	3,145	2,211	5,037	13,544	1,354	6,044	5,849	8,211	1,889	3,7
England	273,577	268,066	100,900	67,125	314,154	344,616	73,389	72,698	277,152	269,486	110,092	52,6
Scotland	8,257	12,641	10,747	7,924	6,153	9,457	7,361	6,597	4,884	2,351	10,214	5,0
Ireland	480	551	11,961	184	1,291	472	7,429	165	1,319	1,962	8,048	2
Gibraltar	3,410	10,387	749	1,578	640	11,496	-	1,911	1,640	15,264	833	3,1
Malta	1,087	1,968	-	710	290	857	-	-	914	1,889		
British East Indies	11,574	3,497	-	-	5,997	2,334	-	-	3,998	10,557		
British West Indies	52,181	63,687	26,315	16,088	30,522	56,769	23,389	11,345	43,145	76,740	23,614	11,2
British Guiana	599	4,113	1,961	493	1,266	6,992	2,349	1,763	1,085	4,702	5,940	2,7
British Honduras	4,594	5,066	1,965	2,158	2,797	2,406	2,237	1,505	3,331	6,454	1,171	2,5
British African Ports	284	-	-	-	1,179	309	491	119				
Cape of Good Hope	879	455	-	-	716	1,064	-	913	1,044	2,278		
Mauritius	-	91	-	-	91	-	295	-	419	924	533	8
British North American Colonies	286,680	282,234	386,986	440,008	256,220	261,226	370,207	393,156	284,121	285,506	389,097	373,7
Hanse Towns and other Ports of Germany	14,767	6,957	74,576	48,565	7,402	8,956	34,584	34,542	10,721	4,892	37,241	
French Atlantic Ports	79,747	91,697	14,434	20,082	91,983	108,056	10,403	16,109	77,962	86,519	14,583	14,7
French Mediterranean Ports	9,196	10,528	9,997	6,116	7,186	17,345	2,838	2,891	7,009	9,256	7,794	3,9
French West Indies	18,078	21,814	5,030	2,276	11,731	23,168	6,703	1,871	21,352	24,369	5,645	1,4
French Guiana	2,319	2,900	-	-	1,815	1,906	216	-	2,843	2,305		
French Africcan Ports	-	-	-	-	-	223	-	-	-	-	-	
Hayti	20,200	17,642	1,666	1,232	17,120	15,066	2,005	2 314	22,900	21,031	1,541	2,0
Spanish Atlantic Ports	13,455	2,724	496	5,943	14,581	5,301	-	1,556	6,749	18,129	567	1,0
Spanish Mediterranean Ports	14,786	1,846	3,508	4,836	5,679	1,553	2,754	4,736	16,472	5,637	6,112	2,5
Teneriffe, and other Canaries	2,697	2,167	435	-	3,335	2,177	228	-	3,676	1,192	744	
Manilla and Phillippine Islands	7,488	-	718	-	2,347	1,780	-	-	7,418	1,674		
Cuba	151,193	175,796	7,686	13,194	184,398	193,748	11,491	10,619	180,014	194,578	13,098	13,9
Porto Rico	38,728	17,071	2,346	1,155	48,261	19,538	1,157	2,406	61,491	22,547	1,020	1,4
Portugal	6,054	3,226	1,032	10,407	9,549	2,922	1,444	1,041	15,405	2,081	2,097	2,0
Madeira	2,783	4,250	454	-	2,437	5,461	432	-	2,112	4,373		
Fayal and other Azores	1,263	486	-	-	1,114	509	-	68	914	819	102	
Cape de Verd Islands	999	3,725	-	2,148	833	3,224	-	568	337	3,952		
Italy	5,193	2,537	7,144	3,581	3,181	3,041	2,105	1,310	4,263	2,100	1,616	1,9
Sicily	10,608	1,230	3,701	2,105	10,807	1,012	3,517	1,324	13,707	2,233	5,760	2,3
Trieste, and other Austrian Adriatic ports	4,751	2,179	3,072	12,919	2,672	4,974	1,477	2,703	4,480	2,069	760	2,7
Turkey, Levant, &c.	4,756	484	1,231	1,769	2,574	1,29	-	305	3,591	2,232	198	
Mocha	-	-	-	-	-	233	-	-	-	-	-	
Morocco, and Barbary States	344	-	498	-	848	215	143	-	447	-	271	
Mexico	14,475	17,502	1,571	4,018	15,558	11,736	1,550	2,725	17,409	17,816	4,723	5,0
Texas	2,230	12,039	938	1,092	25,001	22,195	869	397	32,544	44,503	886	1,2
Central America	1,167	1,085	-	-	1,580	1,845	-	-	741	471		
Colombia	-	-	-	-	9,794	6,923	2,559	1,917	-	-		
Venezuela	9,666	7,515	1,808	1,893	-	-	-	-	4,976	3,941	1,814	1,5
New Grenada	3,099	960	1,298	1,298	-	-	-	-	2,196	1,962	1,128	1,2
Brazil	25,192	19,576	5,796	4,107	23,037	20,625	276	1,801	24,457	30,491	2,367	3,1
Argentine Republic	4,575	4,372	1,815	951	7,119	3,00	169	1	645	999		
Clepatine Republic	2,075	3,562	-	435	1,473	2,112	-	170	-	3,488	579	2
Chili	5,048	6,944	-	-	4,266	6,235	-	-	4,571	-	-	3
Peru	-	1,221	-	-	196	1,674	-	-	-	1,019		
South America, generally	418	800	-	-	197	115	-	-	1,613			
China	16,160	5,783	-	-	11,821	7,214	-	-	7,392	6,419		
Europe, generally	-	1,015	-	250	-	219	-	141	-	680	-	
Asia, generally	2,084	2,244	231	-	1,345	707	-	-	2,367	4,880	366	1,0
Africa, generally	2,307	6,634	1,121	641	4,969	5,923	405	611	3,538	5,310	-	3,2
West Indies, generally	-	11,801	90	5,851	-	13,908	-	4,385	374	16,378	-	
South Seas and Sandwich Islands	62,902	61,973	-	-	50,580	66,996	-	-	58,951	58,239	93	
Australasia	274	537	-	-	284	620	-	-	772	1,093		
Northwest Coast of America	-	246	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,601	107		
Atlantic Ocean	-	-	-	-	7,092	1,193	-	-	-	-		
Uncertain places	2,045	-	215	-	1,101	-	-	-	-	279		
Total	1,299,720	1,266,922	765,703	756,292	1,309,974	1,406,781	592,110	604,166	1,491,479	1,477,938	624,814	611,3

Statement exhibiting the Number, Tonnage, Crews, and National Character of the Foreign Vessels that entered into, and cleared from, the United States, during the Year ending on the 30th September, 1839.

Flag	Entered. No.	Entered. Tons.	Entered. Crews. Men.	Entered. Crews. Boys.	Cleared. No.	Cleared. Tons.	Cleared. Crews. Men.	Cleared. Crews. Boys.
British	3,584	496,552	27,743	751	3,500	491,495	28,169	427
French	91	22,988	1,194	14	92	21,880	1,148	20
Spanish	102	16,501	1,068	7	90	13,753	964	6
Dutch	94	17,725	743	14	93	18,787	780	10
Swedish	28	5,058	283	6	23	4,759	277	4
Danish	19	3,364	177	4	17	3,231	167	2
Hanseatic	139	41,139	1,854	17	132	39,087	1,759	16
Portuguese	7	1,060	64	2	6	998	66	2
Austrian	3	2,788	119	- -	3	1,294	51	
Prussian	3	2,804	88	4	5	1,818	50	2
Russian	17	3,438	197	3	18	4,000	206	
Sardinian	2	540	34	- -	1	219	12	
Two Sicilies	3	824	38	1	1	196	12	
Papalian	2	451	20	- -	2	455	22	
Tuscan	2	748	32	- -	2	748	32	
Texan	6	1,662	62	- -	7	2,573	99	
Liberian	6	1,145	58	3	6	1,145	51	2
Haytien	3	720	36	- -	2	523	19	
Mexican	3	436	23	- -	1	140	12	
Brazilian	17	1,462	143	- -	16	1,500	140	
Buenos Ayrean	18	995	94	- -	16	844	78	
Chilian	5	923	12	- -	5	923	46	
Peruvian	6	1,143	54	2	4	900	39	1
Columbian	5	455	28	- -	7	1,074	69	
Hawaiian	6	1,004	42	- -	6	861	53	1
Other Nations	5	1,243	66	- -	4	950	41	
Total	4,105	624,814	34,277	834	4,026	611,859	34,366	493

Am. Ed.]

SHIPS' PAPERS, the papers or documents required for the manifestation of the property of the ship and cargo, &c. They are of 2 sorts; viz. 1st, those required by the law of a particular country—as the certificate of registry, licence, charterparty, bills of lading, bill of health, &c.—(see those titles)—required by the law of England to be on board British ships; and, 2dly, those required by the law of nations to be on board neutral ships, to vindicate their title to that character. Mr. Serjeant Marshall, following M. Hubner (*De la Saisie des Bâtimens Neutres*, tom. i. pp. 241—252.), has given the following description of the latter class of documents:

1. *The Passport, Sea Brief, or Sea Letter.*—This is a permission from the neutral state to the captain or master of the ship, to proceed on the voyage proposed, and usually contains his name and residence; the name, property, description, tonnage, and destination of the ship; the nature and quantity of the cargo, the place whence it comes, and its destination; with such other matters as the practice of the place requires. This document is indispensably necessary for the safety of every neutral ship. Hubner says, that it is the only paper rigorously insisted on by the Barbary corsairs; by the production of which alone their friends are protected from insult.

2. *The Proofs of Property.*—These ought to show that the ship really belongs to the subjects of a neutral state. If she appear to either belligerent to have been built in the enemy's country, proof is generally required that she was purchased by the neutral before, or captured and legally condemned and sold to the neutral after, the declaration of war; and in the latter case the *bill of sale*, properly authenticated, ought to be produced. M. Hubner admits that these proofs are so essential to every neutral vessel, for the prevention of frauds, that such as sail without them have no reason to complain if they be interrupted in their voyages, and their neutrality disputed.

3. *The Muster Roll.*—This, which the French call *rôle d'équipage*, contains the names, age, quality, place of residence, and, above all, *the place of birth*, of every person of the ship's company. The document is of great use in ascertaining a ship's neutrality. It must naturally excite a strong suspicion, if the majority of the crew be found to consist of foreigners; still more, if they be natives of the enemy's country.—(See SEAMEN.)

4. *The Charterparty.*—Where the ship is chartered, this instrument serves to authenticate many of the facts on which the truth of her neutrality must rest, and should therefore be always found on board chartered ships.

5. *The Bills of Lading.*—By these the captain acknowledges the receipt of the goods specified therein, and promises to deliver them to the consignee or his order. Of these there are usually several duplicates; one of which is kept by the captain, one by the shipper of the goods, and one transmitted to the consignee. This instrument, being only the evidence of a private transaction between the owner of the goods and the captain, does not carry with it the same degree of authenticity as the charterparty.

6. *The Invoices.*—These contain the particulars and prices of each parcel of goods, with the amount of the freight, duties, and other charges thereon, which are usually transmitted from the shippers to their factors or consignees. These invoices prove by whom the goods were shipped, and to whom consigned. They carry with them, however, but little authenticity, being easily fabricated where fraud is intended.

7. *The Log Book, or Ship's Journal.*—This contains a minute account of the ship's course, with a short history of every occurrence during the voyage. If this be faithfully kept it will throw great light on the question of neutrality; if it be in any respect fabricated, the fraud may in general be easily detected.

8. *The Bill of Health.*—This is a certificate, properly authenticated, that the ship comes from a place where no contagious distemper prevails; and that none of the crew, at the time of her departure, were infected with any such disorder. It is generally found on board ships coming from the Levant, or from the coast of Barbary, where the plague so frequently prevails.

A ship using false or simulated papers is liable to confiscation.—(*Marshall on Insurance*, book i. c. 9. § 6.)

SHOES (Du. *Schoenen*; Fr. *Souliers*; Ger. *Schuhe*; It. *Scarpe*; Rus. *Bashmaki*; Sp. *Zapatos*), articles of clothing that are universally worn, and require no description. The shoe manufacture is of great value and importance. The finest sort of shoes is made in London; but the manufacture is carried on upon the largest scale in Northamptonshire and Staffordshire. The London warehouses derive considerable supplies from Nantwich, Congleton, and Sandbach, in Cheshire. During the late war, the contractor for shoes generally furnished about 600,000 pairs annually.—(For an estimate of the value of the shoes annually manufactured in Britain, see LEATHER.)

SHUMAC OR SUMACH (Ger. *Schmack, Sumach*; Fr. *Sumac, Roure, Roux*; It. *Sommacco*; Sp. *Zumaque*; Rus. *Sumak*). Common shumac (*Rhus Coriaria*) is a shrub that grows naturally in Syria, Palestine, Spain, and Portugal. That which is cultivated in Italy and is improperly called *young fustic*, is the *Rhus Cotinus*. It is cultivated with great care: its shoots are cut down every year quite to the root; and, after being dried, they are chipped or reduced to powder by a mill, and thus prepared for the purposes of dyeing and tanning. The shumac cultivated in the neighbourhood of Montpellier is called *rédoul* or *roudou*. Shumac may be considered of good quality when its odour is strong, colour of a lively green, is well ground, and free from stalks. Italian shumac is used in dyeing a full high yellow, approaching to the orange, upon wool or cloth; but the colour is fugitive. Common shumac is useful for drab and dove colours in calico printing, and is also capable of dyeing black.—(*Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. p. 100.)

The entries of shumac for home consumption amounted, at an average of 1832 and 1833, to 136,9[illegible] cwt. a year. The imports are almost entirely from Italy.

Shumac, the produce of Europe, may not be imported for home consumption except in British ships or in ships of the country of which it is the produce, or from which it is imported, under penalty of confiscation, and forfeiture of 100*l.* by the master of the ship.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 54. §§ 2. and 32.)

SIERRA LEONE, an English settlement, near the mouth of the river of the same name, on the south-west coast of Africa, in lat. 8° 30′ N., lon. 13° 5′ W.

Objects of the Colony.—This colony was founded partly as a commercial establishment, but more from motives of humanity. It was intended to consist principally of free blacks, who, being instructed in the Christian religion, and in the arts of Europe, should become, as it were, a focus whence civilization might be diffused among the surrounding tribes. About 1,200 free negroes, who, having joined the royal standard in the American war, were obliged at the termination of that contest, to take refuge in Nova Scotia, were conveyed thither in 1792: to these were afterwards added the Maroons from Jamaica; and, since the legal abolition of the slave trade, the negroes taken in the captured vessels, and liberated by the mixed commission courts, have been carried to the colony. The total population of the colony in 1831 amounted to 31,627, of which 18,073 were males, and 13,554 females. The whites make but a very small fraction of the population.

Success of the Efforts to civilise the Blacks.—Great efforts have been made to introduce order and industrious habits among these persons. We are sorry, however, to be obliged to add, that these efforts, though prosecuted at an enormous expense of blood and treasure, have been signally unsuccessful. There is, no doubt, much discrepancy in the accounts as to the progress made by the blacks. It is, however, sufficiently clear, that it has been very inconsiderable, and we do not think that any other result could be rationally anticipated. That laziness has been loudly complained of, but without reason. Men are not industrious without a motive; and most of those motives that stimulate all classes in colder climates to exertion in laborious employments, are unknown to the indolent inhabitants of this burning region, where clothing is of little importance, where sufficient supplies of food may be obtained with comparatively little exertion, and where more than half the necessaries and conveniences of Europeans would be positive incumbrances. And had it been otherwise, what progress could a colony be expected to make, into which there are annually imported thousands of liberated negroes, most of whom are barbarians in the lowest stage of civilisation?

Influence of the Colony upon the illicit Slave Trade.—As a means of checking the prevalence of the illicit slave trade, the establishment of a colony at Sierra Leone has been worse than useless. That trade is principally carried on with the countries round the bight of Biafra and the bight of Benin, many hundred miles distant from Sierra Leone; and it

mortality in the captured ships during their voyage to the latter is often very great. In fact, there is but one way of putting down this nefarious traffic; and that is, by the great powers declaring it to be *piracy*, and treating those engaged in it, wherever and by whomsoever they may be found, as sea robbers or pirates. Such a declaration would be quite conformable to the spirit of the declaration put forth by the Congress of Vienna in 1824.—(See SLAVE TRADE.) And were it subscribed by England, France, the United States, Russia, &c., the Spaniards and Portuguese would be compelled to relinquish the trade; but unless something of this sort be done, we are afraid there are but slender grounds for thinking that humanity will speedily be relieved from the guilt and suffering inseparable from the traffic.

Climate of Sierra Leone.—The soil in the vicinity of Sierra Leone seems to be but of indifferent fertility, and the climate is about the most destructive that can be imagined. The mortality among the Africans sent to it seems unusually great; and amongst the whites it is quite excessive. Much as we desire the improvement of the blacks, we protest against its being attempted by sending our countrymen to certain destruction in this most pestiferous of all pestiferous places. It would seem, too, that it is quite unnecessary, and that instructed blacks may be advantageously employed to fill the official situations in the colony. But if otherwise, it ought to be unconditionally abandoned.

Commerce of Sierra Leone, and the West Coast of Africa.—Commercially considered, Sierra Leone appears to quite as little advantage as in other points of view. We import from it teak wood, camwood, ivory, palm oil, hides, gums, and a few other articles; but their value is inconsiderable, amounting to not more than from 40,000*l.* to 60,000*l.* a year. The great article of import from the coast of Africa is palm oil, and of this more than *fifty* times as much is imported from the coast to the south of the Rio Volta, several hundred miles from Sierra Leone, as from the latter. We doubt, indeed, whether the commerce with the western coast of Africa will ever be of much importance. The condition of the natives would require to be very much changed before they can become considerable consumers of European manufactures. It is singular, that speculative persons in this country should be so much bent on prosecuting, without regard to expense, a trade with barbarous uncivilised hordes, while they contribute to the neglect or oppression of the incomparably more extensive and beneficial intercourse we might carry on with the opulent and civilised nations in our immediate vicinity. The equalisation of the duties on Canadian and Baltic timber, and the abolition of the existing restraints on the trade with France, would do 10 times more to extend our commerce, than the discovery of 50 navigable rivers, and the possession of as many forts on the African coast. If, however, an establishment be really required for the advantageous prosecution of the trade to Western Africa, it is abundantly obvious that it should be placed much further to the south than Sierra Leone. The island of Fernando Po has been suggested for this purpose; but after the dear-bought experience we have already had, it is to be hoped that nothing will be done with respect to it without mature consideration.

Imports into the United Kingdom in 1839 from the Western Coast of Africa, distinguishing their Quantities and Values.

Articles Imported.	Quantities Imported.				Official Value of Imports.				
	Sierra Leone, the River Gambia, and the Coast between the Gambia and the Mesurada.	Windward Coast, from the River Mesurada to Cape Apollonia.	Cape Coast Castle and the Gold Coast, from Cape Apollonia to the Rio Volta.	Coast Southward of the Rio Volta, with the Island of Fernando Po.	Sierra Leone, the River Gambia, and the Coast between the Gambia and the Mesurada.	Windward Coast, from the River Mesurada to Cape Apollonia.	Cape Coast Castle and the Gold Coast, from Cape Apollonia to the Rio Volta.	Coast Southward of the Rio Volta, with the Island of Fernando Po.	Total.
					L. s.	*L. s.*	*L. s.*	*L. s.*	*L. s.*
Cotton . lbs.	1,327	. .	. .	6,766	82 15	. .	. .	422 17	505 10
Dye and hard woods, viz.—									
Barwood tons, cust. qr. lb	. .	. .	. .	246 15 2 13	. .	. .	. .	9,871 4	9,871 4
Camwood tons, cust. qr. lb.	105 4 1 8	. .	. .	15 18 0 19	825 14	. .	. .	127 5	952 10
Ebony tons, cust. qr. lb.	. .	. .	. .	12 4 2 20	. .	. .	. .	201 17	201 17
Red or Guinea wood tons, cust. qr. lb.		. .	. .	3 1 3 15	. .	. .	. .	123 16	123 16
Elephant's teeth cust. qr. lb.	312 2 24	. .	686 3 6	1,238 2 22	1,912 5	. .	3,920 16	7,432 3	13,165 4
Grains, Guinea . lbs.	5,007	. .	5,302	. .	151 7	. .	77 6	. .	208 13
Gum, copal . lbs.	12,576	. .	666	433	524 0	. .	23 11	17 12	565 3
Senegal cust. qr. lb.	2,567 1 6	. .	. .	. .	5,498 0	. .	. .	. .	5,498 0
Hides, untanned cust. qr. lb.	5,676 2 25	. .	. .	. .	11,101 12	. .	. .	. .	11,101 12
Oil, palm cust. qr. lb.	2,963 1 15	400 0 0	7,001 2 18	169,556 3 7	2,963 7	400 0	7,001 13	169,556 16	179,921 17
Skins, calf and kip cust. qr. lb	627 1 21	0 3 6	. .	. .	2,606 2	2 10	. .	. .	2,608 12
Timber, viz.—									
Teak wood loads & feet.	16,015 26	. .	. .	. .	10,207 15	. .	. .	. .	10,207 15
Wat. hem' cust. qr. lb.	4,510 1 19	. .	. .	64 2 0	21,496 11	. .	. .	806 7	21,792 19
Other articles official value	. .	. .	. .	. .	767 12	1 5	484 4	614 5	1,847 6
					58,107 15	403 15	11,887 12	189,674 5	258,573 8

II. Exports of British Produce and Manufactures from the United Kingdom, in 1829, to the Weste
Coast of Africa, distinguishing their Quantities and Values.

Articles exported.	Quantities exported.				Official Value of Exports.				
	Sierra Leone, the River Gambia, and the Coast between the Gambia and the Mesurada.	Windward Coast, from the River Mesurada to Cape Apollonia.	Cape Coast Castle and the Gold Coast, from Cape Apollonia to the Rio Volta.	Coast Southward of the Rio Volta, with the Island of Fernando Po.	Sierra Leone, the River Gambia, and the Coast between the Gambia and the Mesurada.	Windward Coast, from the River Mesurada to Cape Apollonia.	Cape Coast Castle and the Gold Coast, from Cape Apollonia to the Rio Volta.	Coast Southward of the Rio Volta, with the Island of Fernando Po.	Total.
					L. s.	*L.* s.	*L.* s.	*L.* s.	*L.*
Apparel and slops -	. .	. .	. .	. .	7,172 14	10 0	670 2	1,203 10	9,056
Brass and copper wrought - *cwt. qr. lb.*	228 2 0	10 0 0	77 2 0	242 0 7	1,637 9	45 0	380 7	1,102 10	3,205
Cottons, entered by the yard, *yards*	558,187	119,494	651,908	631,981	41,501 18	8,981 0	40,049 0	51,908 0	141,541
Hosiery, lace, and small wares -	. .	. .	. .	. .	218 15	. .	. .	. .	218
Glass and earthenware -	. .	. .	. .	. .	578 13	13 15	180 7	351 0	1,124
Guns and pistols *No.*	21,151	2,960	14,525	37,915	15,785 5	2,220 0	10,894 15	28,466 5	57,366
Gunpowder - *lbs.*	357,604	25,000	220,400	1,549,360	10,302 12	756 4	6,980 0	46,803 0	65,841
Hardware and cutlery *cwt. qr. lb.*	430 0 0	2 0 0	45 2 0	1,194 2 20	1,157 1	5 10	119 12	2,295 7	3,597
Iron, wrought and unwrought *tons, cwt. qr. lb.*	527 18 0 17	20 0 0 0	151 8 2 6	1,157 12 0 0	8,647 16	310 0	2,220 3	11,504 15	22,782
Lead and shot *tons, cwt. qr. lb.*	8 2 2 0	4 7 0 0	35 3 0 0	4 6 0 0	26 16	47 15	269 1	45 0	548
Leather, wrought and wrought - -	. .	. .	. .	. .	772 19	. .	174 3	. .	947
Linens - *yards*	26,502	. .	3,519	1,859	1,795 17	. .	178 0	79 10	1,994
Salt - *bushels*	26,440	. .	. .	141,700	1,279 16	. .	. .	4,723 6	6,003
Soap and candles *cwt. qr. lb.*	500 3 21	. .	20 2 26	270 0 16	1,795 16	. .	69 4	310 0	2,075
Stationery of all sorts -	. .	. .	. .	. .	956 9	. .	44 10	. .	1,001
Sugar, refined *cwt. qr. lb.*	199 1 2	. .	14 3 23	261 3 3	690 11	. .	41 2	478 14	1,110
Swords and cutlasses *No.*	16,198	. .	400	12,162	4,048 5	. .	100 0	3,040 10	7,188
Wood, viz.— Staves and casks *packs*	170	200	1,295	10,747	118 6	50 0	756 13	7,104 13	8,029
Woollens, entered by the piece *pieces*	196	8	228	40	934 5	13 10	433 0	120 0	1,501
by the yard, *yards*	200	. .	30	650	93 10	. .	5 0	48 11	147
Hosiery and small wares -	. .	. .	. .	. .	161 19	2 0	66 6	1,323 0	1,554
All other articles -	. .	. .	. .	. .	7,569 19	180 4	2,095 2	1,546 7	11,377
					107,882 19	12,488 3	68,791 19	164,219 11	353,381

Exclusive of the above, we exported, in 1829, to the western coast of Africa, 161,431 worth of foreign and colonial merchandise; of this amount, 43,550*l.* worth went to the coas south of the Rio Volta.

Expenses incurred on account of Sierra Leone.—The pecuniary expense occasioned b this colony, and our unsuccessful efforts to suppress the foreign slave trade, have bee altogether enormous. Mr. Keith Douglas is reported to have stated, in his place in the Hous of Commons, in July, 1831, that "down to the year 1824, the *civil* expenses of Sierra Leon amounted to 2,268,000*l.*; and that the same expenses had amounted, from 1824 to 1830, t 1,082,000*l.* The naval expenses, from 1807 to 1824, had been 1,630,000*l.* The payment to Spain and Portugal, to induce them to relinquish the slave trade, amounted to 1,230,000 The expenses on account of captured slaves were 533,092*l.* The expenses incurred on ac count of the mixed commission courts were 198,000*l.* Altogether, this establishment ha cost the country nearly 8,000,000*l.*

The prodigality of this expenditure is unmatched, except by its uselessness. It is doub ful whether it has prevented a single African from being dragged into slavery, or conferre the smallest real advantage on Africa. The kings of Spain and Portugal have certainl turned their spurious humanity to pretty good account. We hope there is now, at least, a end of all attempts to bribe such monarchs to respect the rights of humanity, or the treati into which they have entered.

For further deaths with respect to Sierra Leone, and the trade of Western Africa, see th *Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons*, No. 661. Sess. 1830.

SILK (Lat. *Sericum*, from *Seres*, the supposed ancient name of the Chinese), a fine glos thread or filament spun by various species of caterpillars or larvæ of the *phalæna* genus. O these, the *Phalæna atlas* produces the greatest quantity: but the *Phalæna bombyx* is th commonly employed for this purpose in Europe. The silkworm, in its caterpillar state, which may be considered as the first stage of its existence, after acquiring its full growth (about inches in length), proceeds to enclose itself in an oval-shaped ball, or cocoon, which is form ed by an exceedingly slender and long filament of fine yellow silk, omitted from the stomach of the insect preparatory to its assuming the shape of the chrysalis or moth. In this latter stage, after emancipating itself from its silken prison, it seeks its mate, which has undergone a similar transformation; and in 2 or 3 days afterwards, the female having deposited her eggs (from 300 to 500 in number), both insects terminate their existence. According to Reau mur, the *phalæna* is not the only insect that affords this material,—several species of the *aranea*, or spider, enclose their eggs in very fine silk.

Raw Silk is produced by the operation of winding off, at the same time, several of the

nels or cocoons (which are immersed in hot water, to soften the natural gum on the filament) on a common reel, thereby forming one smooth even thread. When the skein is dry, it is taken from the reel and make up into hanks; but before it is fit for weaving, and in order to enable it to undergo the process of dyeing, without furring up or separating the fibres, it is converted into one of three forms; viz. *singles, tram*, or *organzine*.

Singles (a collective noun) is formed of *one* of the reeled threads, being twisted, in order to give it strength and firmness.

Tram is formed of 2 or more threads twisted together. In this state it is commonly used in weaving, as the *shoot* or *weft*.

Thrown Silk is formed of 2, 3, or more singles, according to the substance required, being twisted together in a *contrary* direction to that in which the singles of which it is composed are twisted. This process is termed organzining; and the silk so twisted, *organzine*. The art of throwing was originally confined to Italy, where it was kept a secret for a long period. Stow says it was known in this country since the 5th of Queen Elizabeth, "when it was gained from the strangers;" and in that year (1562), the silk throwsters of the metropolis were united into a fellowship. They were incorporated in the year 1629; but the art continued to be very imperfect in England until 1719.—(See *post*.)

1. *Historical Sketch of the Manufacture.*—The art of rearing silkworms, of unravelling the threads spun by them, and manufacturing the latter into articles of dress and ornament, seems to have been first practised by the Chinese. Virgil is the earliest of the Roman writers who has been supposed to allude to the production of silk in China, and the terms he employs show how little was then known at Rome as to the real nature of the article:—

Velleraque ut foliis depectant tenuia Seres.—(*Georg.* book ii. lin. 121.)

But it may be doubted whether Virgil does not, in this line, refer to cotton rather than silk, Pliny, however, has distinctly described the formation of silk by the *bombyx*.—(*Hist. Nat.* lib. xi. c. 17.) It is uncertain when it first began to be introduced at Rome: but it was most probably in the age of Pompey and Julius Cæsar; the latter of whom displayed a profusion of silks in some of the magnificent theatrical spectacles with which he sought at once to conciliate and amuse the people. Owing principally, no doubt, to the great distance of China from Rome, and to the difficulties in the way of the intercourse with that country, which was carried on by land in caravans whose route lay through the Persian empire, and partly, perhaps, to the high price of silk in China, its cost, when it arrived at Rome, was very great; so much so, that a given weight of silk was sometimes sold for an equal weight of gold! At first it was only used by a few ladies eminent for their rank and opulence. In the beginning of the reign of Tiberius, a law was passed, *ne vestis serica viros fœdaret*—that no man should disgrace himself by wearing a silken garment.—(*Tacit. Annal.* lib. ii. c. 33.) But the profligate Heliogabalus despised this law, and was the first of the Roman emperors who wore a dress composed wholly of silk (*holosericum*). The example once set, the custom of wearing silk soon became general among the wealthy citizens of Rome, and throughout the provinces. According as the demand for the article increased, efforts were made to import larger quantities; and the price seems to have progressively declined from the reign of Aurelian. That this must have been the case, is obvious from the statement of Ammianus Marcellinus, that silk was, in his time (anno 370), very generally worn, even by the lowest classes. *Sericum ad usum antehac nobilium, nunc etiam infimorum sine ulla discretione proficiens.*—(Lib. xviii. c. 6.)

China continued to draw considerable sums from the Roman empire in return for silk, now become indispensable to the Western World, till the 6th century. About the year 550, two Persian monks, who had long resided in China, and made themselves acquainted with the mode of rearing the silkworm, encouraged by the gifts and promises of Justinian, succeeded in carrying the eggs of the insect to Constantinople. Under their direction they were hatched and fed; they lived and laboured in a foreign climate; a sufficient number of butterflies was saved to propagate the race, and mulberry trees were planted to afford nourishment to the rising generations. A new and important branch of industry was thus established in Europe. Experience and reflection gradually corrected the errors of a new attempt; and the Sogdoite ambassadors acknowledged, in the succeeding reign, that the Romans were not inferior to the natives of China in the education of the insects, and the manufacture of silk.—(*Gibbon, Decline and Fall*, vol. vii. p. 99.)

Greece, particularly the Peloponnesus, was early distinguished by the rearing of silkworms, and by the skill and success with which the inhabitants of Thebes, Corinth, and Argos carried on the manufacture. Until the 12th century, Greece continued to be the only European country in which these arts were practised: but the forces of Roger, king of Sicily, having, in 1147, sacked Corinth, Athens, and Thebes, carried off large numbers of the inhabitants to Palermo; who introduced the culture of the worm, and the manufacture of silk, into Sicily From this island the arts spread into Italy; and Venice, Milan, Florence, Lucca, &c. were soon after distinguished for their success in raising silkworms, and for the extent and beauty of their manufactures of silk.—(*Gibbon*, vol. x. p. 110.; *Biographie Universelle*, art *Roger II.*)

The silk manufacture was introduced into France in 1480; Louis XI. having invited workmen from Italy, who established themselves at Tours. The manufacture was not begun at Lyons till about 1520; when Francis I., having got possession of Milan, prevailed on some artisans of the latter city to establish themselves, under his protection, in the former. Nearly at the same period the rearing of silkworms began to be successfully prosecuted in Provence, and other provinces of the south of France. Henry IV. rewarded such of the early manufacturers as had supported and pursued the trade for 12 years, with patents of nobility.

Silk Manufacture of England.—The manufacture seems to have been introduced into England in the 15th century. Silk had, however, been used by persons of distinction two centuries previously. The manufacture does not appear to have made much progress till the age of Elizabeth; the tranquillity of whose long reign, and the influx of Flemings occasioned by the disturbances in the Low Countries, gave a powerful stimulus to the manufactures of England. The silk throwsters of the metropolis were united, as already observed, in a fellowship, in 1562; and were incorporated in 1629. Though retarded by the civil wars, the manufacture continued gradually to advance; and so flourishing had it become, that it is stated in a preamble to a statute passed in 1666 (13 & 14 Cha. 2. c. 15.), that there were at that time no fewer than 40,000 individuals engaged in the trade! And it is of importance to observe, that though the importation of French and other foreign silks was occasionally prohibited during the reigns of James I. and Charles I., the Protectorate, and the reign of Charles II., the prohibition was not strictly enforced; and, generally speaking, their importation was quite free.

A considerable stimulus, though not nearly so great as has been commonly supposed, was given to the English silk manufacture by the revocation of the edict of Nantes, in 1685, by which Louis XIV. drove, by that disgraceful measure, several hundreds of thousands of his most industrious subjects to seek an asylum in foreign countries; of whom it is supposed about 50,000 came to England. Such of these refugees as had been engaged in the silk manufacture established themselves in Spitalfields, where they introduced several new branches of the art. When the refugees fled to England, foreign silks were freely admitted; and it appears from the Custom-house returns, that from 600,000*l.* to 700,000*l.* worth were annually imported in the period from 1685 to 1692, being the very period during which the British silk manufacture made the most rapid advances. But the manufacture was not long permitted to continue on this footing. In 1692, the refugees, who seem to have been quite as conversant with the arts of monopoly as with those either of spinning or weaving, obtained a patent, giving them an exclusive right to manufacture lustrings and *à-la-modes*,—the silks then in greatest demand. This, however, was not enough to satisfy them; for, in 1697, Parliament passed an act, in compliance with their solicitations, prohibiting the importation of all French and other European silk goods; and, in 1701, the prohibition was extended to the silk goods of India and China.

These facts show the utter fallacy of the opinion so generally entertained, that we owe the introduction and establishment of the silk manufacture to the prohibitive system. So far from this being the case, it is proved, by statements in numerous acts of parliament, and other authentic documents, that the silk manufacture had overcome all the difficulties incident to its first establishment, had been firmly rooted, and had become of great value and importance, long before it was subjected to the trammels of monopoly; that is, before the manufacturers were taught to trust more to fiscal regulations, and the exertions of Custom-house officers, than to their skill and ingenuity, for the sale of their goods.

The year 1719 is an important epoch in the history of the British silk manufacture; a patent being then granted to Mr. (afterwards Sir Thomas) Lombe and his brother, for the exclusive property of the famous silk mill erected by them at Derby, for throwing silk, from models they had clandestinely obtained in Italy. At the expiration of the patent, Parliament refused the prayer of a petition of Sir Thomas Lombe for its renewal; but granted him 14,000*l.* in consideration of the services he had rendered the country, in erecting a machine which, it was supposed, would very soon enable us to dispense wholly with the supplies of thrown silk we had previously been in the habit of importing from Italy: but instead of being of any advantage, it is most certainly true that the establishment of throwing mills in England has proved one of the most formidable obstacles to the extension of the manufacture amongst us. These mills could not have been constructed unless oppressive duties had been laid on thrown or organzine silk; and the circumstance of their having been erected, and a large amount of capital vested in them, was successfully urged for more than a century, as a conclusive reason for continuing the high duties!

From this period down to 1824 the history of the silk manufacture presents little more than complaints, on the part of the manufacturers, of the importation of foreign silks; impotent efforts on the part of parliament to exclude them; and combinations and outrages on the part of the workmen. Of the multitude of acts that have been passed in reference to this manufacture, from 1697 to the era of Mr. Huskisson, we believe it would be exceedingly difficult to point out one that is bottomed on any thing like a sound principle, or that was productive of any but mischievous consequences. The French writers estimate the average

exportation of silks from France to England, during the period from 1688 to 1741, at about 12,500,000 francs, or 500,000*l.* a year! In 1763, attempts were made to check the prevalence of smuggling; and the silk mercers of the metropolis, to show their anxiety to forward the scheme, are said to have recalled their orders for foreign goods! It would seem, however, either that their patriotic ardour had very soon cooled, or that they had been supplanted by others not quite so scrupulous; for it appears from a report of a committee of the privy council, appointed, in 1766, to inquire into the subject, that smuggling was then carried on to greater extent than ever, and that 7,072 looms were out of employment. The same committee reported, that though the French were decidedly superior to us in some branches of the trade, we were quite equal, and even superior to them in others; but instead of proposing, consistently with their report, to admit French silks on a reasonable duty,—a measure which would have proved very advantageous to those branches of the manufacture in which we were superior, or nearly equal, to the French, without doing any material injury to the others, which were already in the most depressed condition,—they recommended the continuance of the old system; substituting absolute prohibitions in the place of the prohibitory duties that formerly existed! Whatever immediate advantages the manufacturers might have reaped from this measure, the ultimate tendency of which could not fail of being most injurious, were effectually countervailed by the turbulent proceedings of the workmen, who succeeded, in 1773, in obtaining from the legislature an act which, by itself, was quite sufficient to have destroyed even a prosperous trade. This, which has been commonly called the Spitalfields Act, entitled the weavers of Middlesex to demand a fixed price for their labour, which should be settled by the magistrates; and while both masters and men were restricted from giving or receiving more or less than the fixed price, the manufacturers were liable in heavy penalties if they employed weavers out of the district! The monopoly which the manufacturers had hitherto enjoyed, though incomplete, had had sufficient influence to render inventions and discoveries of comparatively rare occurrence in the silk trade; but the Spitalfields Act extinguished every germ of improvement. Parliament, in its wisdom, having seen fit to enact that a manufacturer should be obliged to pay as much for work done by the best machinery as if it were done by hand, it would have been folly to have thought of attempting any thing new! It is not, however, to be denied that Macclesfield, Manchester, Norwich, Paisley, &c. are under obligations to this act. Had it extended to the whole kingdom, it would have totally extirpated the manufacture; but being confined to Middlesex, it gradually drove the most valuable branches from Spitalfields to places where the rate of wages was determined by the competition of the parties, on the principle of mutual interest and compromised advantage. After having done incalculable mischief, the act was repealed in 1824. Had it continued down to the present day, it would not have left employment in the metropolis for a single silk weaver.

But, as the effects of this act did not immediately manifest themselves, it was at first exceedingly popular. About 1785, however, the substitution of cottons in the place of silk gave a severe check to the manufacture, and the weavers then began to discover the real nature of the Spitalfields Act. Being interdicted from working at reduced wages, they were totally thrown out of employment; so that, in 1793, upwards of 4,000 Spitalfield looms were quite idle. In 1798, the trade began to revive; and continued to extend slowly till 1815 and 1816, when the Spitalfields weavers were again involved in sufferings far more extensive and severe than at any former period.

It appears from this brief sketch of the progress of the English silk trade, that from the year 1695, down to our own times, it has been exposed to the most appalling vicissitudes. The reason is obvious. The monopoly enjoyed by the manufacturers, and the Spitalfields Act, effectually put a stop to all improvement; so that the manufacture continued stationary in England, while on the Continent it was rapidly advancing. Whenever, therefore, the markets were, either from the miscalculation of the manufacturers, or a change of fashion, overloaded with silks, there were no means of disposing of the surplus profitably abroad, and the distress became extreme. Notwithstanding the unparalleled advances we had made in other departments of manufacturing industry, it was affirmed, in 1826, by the member for Coventry (Mr. Ellice), in his place in the House of Commons, "that there were in that city 9,700 looms; 7,500 of which were in the hands of operative weavers, who applied their manual labour, as well as their machinery, to the manufacture of ribands. These looms were, for the most part, of the *worst possible construction*; and it would scarcely be believed that the improved loom in France would, in a given time, produce 5 times as much riband as the common loom in England with the same manual labour! He could also state that there existed an improved manufacture in Germany, by which one man could make *forty-eight times as much velvet as could be made in an equal time by an English machine.* What chance was there that the English manufacturer could maintain such a competition?"

Perhaps these statements may be somewhat exaggerated; but there can be no doubt that they are substantially well founded. Surely, however, no one believes that the inferiority of the machinery used by the English manufacturers is to be ascribed to any thing except that the protection they enjoyed had made them indifferent to improvements. No one believes

that the French or Germans are superior to the English in the construction of machines; on the contrary, their inferiority is admitted by themselves, and by everybody else. That that spirit of invention, which has effected such astonishing results in the cotton manufacture, should have been wholly unknown in that of silk, is entirely to be ascribed to the fact of the former never having been the object of legislative protection. The cotton manufacturers were not bribed into the adoption of a routine system; they could not rest satisfied with mediocrity; but being compelled to put forth all their powers—to avail themselves of every resource of science and of art—they have, in a few years, raised the British cotton manufacture from a subordinate and trifling, to the very first place amongst the manufactures, not of this country only, but of the world!

Change, in 1826, *of the Monopoly System.*—At length, however, the impolicy of the system by which the silk manufacture had been so long depressed, became obvious to every intelligent individual. The principal manufacturers in and about London subscribed, in 1824, a petition to the House of Commons, in which they stated that "this important manufacture, though recently considerably extended, is still depressed below its natural level, by laws which prevent it from attaining that degree of prosperity which, under more favourable circumstances, it would acquire." Fortified by this authority, by the experience of 130 years, during which the prohibitive system had been allowed to paralyse the energies of the manufacturers, and by the sanction of parliamentary committees, Mr. Huskisson moved, on the 8th of March, 1824, that the prohibition of foreign silks should cease on the 5th of July, 1826, and that they should then be admitted for importation on payment of a duty of 30 per cent. *ad valorem*. On this occasion Mr. H. observed—"The monopoly had produced, what monopoly was always sure to produce, an indifference with regard to improvement. That useful zeal which gives life to industry, which fosters ingenuity, and which in manufactures occasions unceasing efforts to produce the article in the most economical form, had been comparatively extinguished. *To the prohibitive system it was to be ascribed, that in silk only, in the whole range of manufactures, we were left behind our neighbours!* We have here a proof of that chilling and benumbing effect which is sure to be produced when no genius is called into action, and when we are rendered indifferent to exertion by the indolent security derived from restrictive regulations. I have not the slightest doubt, that if the same system had been continued with respect to the cotton manufacture, it would have been at this moment as subordinate in amount to the woollen as it is junior in its introduction into the country."—(*Speeches*, vol. ii. p. 249.)

We have already alluded to the enormous duties imposed, in 1719, when Sir Thomas Lombe erected his throwing mill at Derby, on foreign organzine silk. These, though subsequently reduced, amounted, in 1824, to no less than 14*s*. 7½*d*. per lb.! There was also, at the same time, a duty of 4*s*. per lb. on raw silk imported from Bengal, and of 5*s*. 7½*d*. per lb. on that imported from other places. Even had the manufacture been otherwise in a flourishing condition, such exorbitant duties on the raw material were enough to have destroyed it. Mr. Huskisson, therefore, proposed, by way of preparing the manufacturers for the approaching change of system, that the duty on foreign thrown silk should be immediately reduced to 7*s*. 6*d*. (it was further reduced to 5*s*. in 1826), and the duty on raw silk to 3*d*. per lb. These proposals were all agreed to; and considerable reductions were at the same time effected in the duties charged on most of the dye stuffs used in the manufacture.

It is to be regretted that Mr. Huskisson did not propose that the reduction of the duties on raw and thrown silk, and the legalised importation of foreign silks, should be simultaneous and immediate. During the interval that was allowed our manufacturers to make preparations for the change, the French had been accumulating a large stock of goods to pour into our markets. To quiet the alarm occasioned by this circumstance, a singular device was fallen upon.—The French had long been accustomed to manufacture their goods of a certain length: and, in the view of rendering their accumulated stock unfit for our markets, a law was passed in 1826, prohibiting the importation of any silks except such as were of entirely different lengths from those commonly manufactured by the French! No one can regret that this wretched trick, for it deserves no better name, entirely failed of its object. The French manufacturers immediately commenced, with redoubled zeal, the preparation of goods of the legitimate length: and the others having become unsaleable at any thing like fair prices, were purchased up by the smugglers, and imported, almost entirely, into this country.

But no permanent injury arose from this circumstance; and, on the whole, the effect of the opening of the trade has been such as to justify all the anticipations which the advocates of the measure had formed of its success.

Effects of the Change of 1826.—We do not exaggerate, we only state the plain matter of fact, when we affirm that the silk manufacture has made a more rapid progress during the last 8 years, or since the abolition of the prohibitive system in 1826, than it did during the preceding century. So unprecedented has been its advance, that "the once existing disparity in quality between goods of French and English make has, with some very unimportant exceptions, not merely disappeared, but actually ranged itself on the side of the British artisan." Some of our readers will, probably, be not a little surprised to learn, that

the real or declared value of the silk goods of British manufacture exported to France, in 1832, amounted to 75,187*l.*

Most of the machines and processes known on the Continent have been introduced amongst us, and many of them have been materially improved. Nor, after what has taken place, can the least doubt remain in the mind of any one, that had the same freedom been given to the silk manufacture 50 years ago, that was given to it in 1826, it would now have ranked among the most important and valuable businesses in the kingdom, and would have had nothing whatever to fear from the admission of foreign silks, free of duty. It is the opinion of the most intelligent persons in the trade, that the existing duty of 30 per cent. on foreign silks ought to be reduced to 20 per cent.; and that it should be further reduced 1 per cent. per annum till brought to 12 or 15 per cent., at which it might be allowed to continue stationary, not as a protecting duty, but as a duty imposed for the sake of revenue. A measure of this sort, by increasing *fair* competition, would continue the impulse already given to the manufacture, and excite to new efforts of invention. Under such a system, we are well assured that, in a very few years, perhaps not more than 5 or 6, our superiority over France in some important departments of the silk manufacture would be little less decided than in that of cotton.

"I maintain," said Mr. Poulett Thomson, in his excellent speech on the state of the silk trade (14th of April, 1829),—a speech equally distinguished for soundness of principle and beauty of illustration,—"I maintain, without fear of contradiction, that the very essence of commercial and manufacturing industry is freedom from legislative interference and legislative protection. Attempt to assist its course by legislative enactments, by fostering care, you arrest its progress, you destroy its vigour. Unbind the shackles in which your unwise tenderness has confined it—permit it to take unrestrained its own course—expose it to the wholesome breezes of competition,—you give it new life, you restore its former vigour. Industry has been well likened to the hardy Alpine plant; self-sown on the mountain side, exposed to the inclemency of the season, it gathers strength in its struggles for existence—it shoots forth in vigour and in beauty. Transplanted to the rich soil of the parterre, tended by the fostering hand of the gardener, nursed in the artificial atmosphere of the forcing-glass, it grows sickly and enervated, its shoots are vigourless, its flowers inodorous. In one single word lies the soul of industry—competition. The answer of the statesman and the economist to his sovereign inquiring what he could do to assist the industry of his kingdom was, 'Let it take its own way.' Such is my prayer. Relieve us from the chains in which your indiscreet tenderness has shackled us; remove your oppressive protection; give us the fair field we ask; and we demand no more. The talent, the genius, the enterprise, the capital, the industry of this great people will do the rest; and England will not only retain her present position, but she will take a yet more forward place in the race of competition for wealth and improvement which, by the nature of things, she is destined to run amongst the nations of the world. Place us in that condition, not by any violent change, but by slow and easy transition. Here we shall find security for our enterprise, and reward for our labours.

"'Hic patet ingenüis campus; certusque merenti
Stat favor; ornatur propriis industria donis.'"

It was not, however, to be supposed, that all departments of the silk manufacture would be equally benefited by the change of system that has taken place.—*Non omnia possumus.* The probability is, that the trade will in future be divided between the English and French. In point of substantial excellence, the plain silk goods manufactured in England are superior to those of France; and the difference in favour of the latter in point of *finish* is every day becoming less perceptible; while in all mixed manufactures, of silk and wool, silk and cotton, silk and linen, &c., our ascendancy is admitted by the French themselves. On the other hand, the ribands, figured gauzes, and light fancy goods, manufactured in France, are superior to those of this country. Even in this department we have made a very great progress; and fancy goods are now produced at Spitalfields, Coventry, and other places, contrasting most advantageously, in point of taste and beauty, with those produced previously to the introduction of the new system. Still, however, we are not sanguine in our expectations of our countrymen being able to maintain a successful competition with our neighbours in the manufacture of this class of articles. The greater attention paid to the art of designing in Lyons, the consequent better taste of the artists, and the superior brightness and lustre of their colours, give them advantages with which it will be very difficult to contend.

But, supposing that the trade is partitioned between the two countries in the way now stated, it is easy to see that the best share will belong to us, and that that share will be incomparably more valuable than the whole manufacture formerly was. The proofs of the accuracy of this statement are at hand. Notwithstanding the decline of the trade at Coventry and a few other places, the manufacture, taken as a whole, is rapidly increasing. During 1822 and 1823, when the restrictive system was in its vigour, the entries for consumption of all sorts of raw and thrown silk amounted at an average to 2,454,842 lbs. a year. But, in despite of all the sinister predictions indulged in with respect to the ruin of the manufacture, the entries amounted, at an average of 1832 and 1833, to 4,565,850 lbs.; being an increase of nearly 100 per cent. upon the quantity entered during the monopoly!

The increase in the exports of wrought silks affords, if possible, a still more decisive proof of the extraordinary improvement and extension of the manufacture. Instead of having anything to fear from the competition of the French at home, we are actually underselling them in the heavier and more important species of goods, in every foreign market equally accessible to both parties. The exports of silks from France have been declining, while those from England have been increasing beyond all precedent. The declared value of our exports of silk goods, in 1823, amounted to 351,409*l.*, whereas in 1833 it amounted to 740,294*l.*, being *an advance of more than cent. per cent.!* Not only, therefore, are the statements as to the ruin of the silk manufacture proved to be wholly without even the shadow of a foundation, but the expectations of those who contended that the repeal of the restrictive system would be the commencement of a new era of invention and improvement, have been realised to the fullest extent.

What has now been stated renders it obvious, that though the manufacturers of fancy goods may be obliged to change their employment, a new, and at the same time a more extensive and fruitful, field is opened for their exertions. We lament the hardships incident to the transition even from one department of the same business to another, but the suffering thence arising will speedily disappear; and when the change has been effected, the manufacturers will enter with fresh vigour on a new career of prosperity.

It is to be regretted, that it is not possible either to abandon a routine system, or to introduce new and improved methods of production, without injury to individuals. But because such is the fact—because the bridge cannot be built without displacing watermen, nor the plough introduced without superseding the spade, nor wine brought from abroad without diminishing the demand for ale and beer—is that any reason for proscribing inventions, and denying ourselves gratifications within our reach? To maintain the affirmative, would be evidently absurd,—it would be equivalent to maintaining that the interests of society are best promoted by perpetuating poverty, ignorance, and barbarism! The injury occasioned by the adoption of an improved method of production, or the opening of new markets whence cheaper supplies of any article may be obtained, is temporary only, and affects but a very small portion of the community; while the advantage is permanent, and benefits every individual, even those whom it may, in the first instance, have forced to resort to other businesses.

Those unacquainted with the history of the silk trade, who may have looked into the pamphlets and speeches of those opposed to the late alterations, will probably be disposed to think that, though more limited in point of numbers, the condition of the workmen engaged in the trade was better previously to 1825 than it has been since. But those who have looked, however cursorily, into the history of the trade, must know that such is not the fact: and that, speaking generally, the situation of those engaged in it has been materially improved since 1825. We have already adverted to the state of the trade in 1793 and 1816. At the last mentioned period, 7 years before any relaxation of the monopoly had been so much as thought of, the distress in the silk trade was infinitely more severe than it has ever been since the introduction of the new system. In proof of this, we may mention that, at a public meeting held for the relief of the Spitalfields weavers, at the Mansion-house, on the 26th of November, 1816, the secretary stated, that *two-thirds* of them were without employment, and without the means of support; "that some had deserted their houses in despair, unable to endure the sight of their starving families; and many pined under languishing diseases brought on by the want of food and clothing." And Mr. Fowell Buxton, M. P., stated, at the same meeting, that the distress among the silk manufacturers was so intense, that "*it partook of the nature of a pestilence*, which spreads its contagion around, and devastates an entire district." Such was the state of the workmen under that monopoly system that has been the worthless theme of so much recent eulogy. But such, we are glad to say, is not their state at present. The trade, being now mostly diverted into those branches in which we have a superiority, is comparatively secure against revulsions; and it would be an absurdity to imagine, that measures that have about doubled the manufacture, should have reduced the rate of wages, or been otherwise than advantageous to the workmen.

We have already noticed the smuggling of foreign silks carried on in the early part and towards the middle of last century. The evil was not afterwards abated. The vigilance of the Custom-house officer was no match for the ingenuity of the smuggler; and at the very moment when the most strenuous efforts were made to exclude them, the silks of France and Hindostan were openly displayed in the drawing-rooms of St. James's, and in the House of Commons, in mockery of the impotent legislation which sought to exclude them. We doubt, indeed, whether the substitution of the *ad valorem* duty of 30 per cent., in place of the old system of prohibition, has been productive of any materially increased importation of foreign silks. "I have lately," said Mr. Huskisson, in his famous speech in vindication of his policy as to the silk trade, "taken some pains to ascertain the quantity of smuggled silks that has been seized inland throughout the kingdom during the last 10 years: and I find that the whole does not exceed 5,000*l.* a year. I have endeavoured, on the other hand, to get an account of the quantity of silk goods actually smuggled into this country. Any estimate

of this quantity must be very vague; but I have been given to understand that the value of such goods as are regularly entered at the Custom-houses of France, for exportation to this country, is from 100,000*l.* to 150,000*l.* a year; and this, of course, is exclusive of the *far greater supply* which is poured in throughout all the channels of smuggling, without being subjected to any entry. In fact, to such an extent is this illicit trade carried, that there is scarcely a haberdasher's shop in the smallest village of the United Kingdom, in which prohibited silks are not sold; and that in the face of day, and to a very considerable extent.

"The honourable member for Coventry (Mr. Ellice) has mentioned the silk goods from India as those against which any thing but prohibition would prove an unavailing protection. Now, in my opinion, it is scarcely possible to conceive a stronger case than those very silks furnish against the honourable member's own argument. I believe it is universally known that a large quantity of Bandana handkerchiefs are sold every year, for exportation, by the East India Company. But does any gentleman suppose that these Bandanas are sent to the continent for the purpose of remaining there? No such thing! They are sold at the Company's sales, to the number of about 800,000 or 1,000,000 a year, at about 4*s.* each; they are immediately shipped off for Hamburgh, Antwerp, Rotterdam, Ostend, or Guernsey, and from thence they nearly all illicitly find their way back to this country.

"Mark, then, the effect of this beautiful system.—These Bandanas, which had previously been sold for exportation at 4*s.*, are finally distributed in retail to the people of England at about 8*s.* each; and the result of this prohibition is to levy upon the consumer a tax, and to give those who live by evading your law a bounty of 4*s.*, upon each handkerchief sold in this country!"—(*Speeches*, vol. ii. p. 510.)

Indeed, one of the principal objections to the present Duty of 30 per cent. on foreign silks is, that it is high enough to enable a considerable smuggling trade to be still carried on; the facility for smuggling being increased by means of the legalised importation. A duty of 12 or 15 per cent. would not, however, be so high as to balance the risks run in smuggling; and would, therefore, really afford the manufacturer a more efficient protection than he derives from the existing duty, at the same time that it would place all classes of dealers on the same footing; whereas the advantage is at present on *the side of those who engage in fraudulent schemes.*

Regulations as to the Importation of Silks.—Silk manufactures are not to be imported in any vessel under 70 tons burden, except by licence from the commissioners of the customs to vessels belonging to Dover, to import such manufactures direct from Calais, though such vessels may not exceed 60 tons burden. Silk goods, the manufacture of Europe, not to be imported except into the port of London or the port of Dublin direct from Bordeaux, or the port of Dover direct from Calais.—(*3 & 4 Will.* 4. c. 52. § 58; *and*, p. 11.)

When the shoot or the warp only is of silk, the article is to be considered as composed of *not more* than one half part of silk, and subject to the *ad valorem* duty of 30 per cent.; but if the shoot or the warp be entirely of silk, and a portion of the other be of silk also, the article is to be considered to be composed of more than one half part of silk, and subject to the rated duties at per lb., or to the *ad valorem* duties, at the option of the officers.—(*Mins. Com. Cus.* 14th of August, 1829.) But in all cases where the duties charged by weight upon mixed articles would manifestly exceed 30 per cent., by reason of the weight of the wool, or other ingredient thereof besides silk, the article is to be admitted to entry at value.—(*Mins. Com. Cus.* 19th of December, 1831.)

For the regulations as to the smuggling of silks, see SMUGGLING.

I. Account, illustrative of the Progress of the Silk Manufacture, showing the Quantities of Raw, Waste, and Thrown Silk imported at different Periods.—(*Report of* 1832 *on Silk Trade*, p. 10., and *Parl. Paper*, No. 9. Sess. 1834.)

Average Imports.	Raw.	Waste.	Thrown.	Total.
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*
1785, 1786, 1787, being the commencement of the absolute prohibition	392,000	- -	323,000	715,000
1785, 17-6, 1787	554,000	- -	337,000	891,000
1801 to 1812	760,000	- -	350,000	1,11 ,000
1815, 16 & 1817, being 30 years after prohibition, and the first 3 years of peace	1,095,000	27,000	293,000	1,415,0 0
1821, 1822, 1823, being the years immediately previous to the abolition of the prohibition	1,970,000	74,000	385,000	2 394,000
1831, 1832, 1833, being the last 3 years	3,137,271	688,3-9	345,270	4,17 ,910

II. Account of the Quantities of Raw, Waste, and Thrown Silk *entered for Consumption* in each Year from 1814, with the total Amount of Duty received on the same in each Year from 1820.—(From the *Parl. Papers*, No. 678. p. 10. Sess. 1832, No. 9. Sess. 1834; and *Papers published by the Board of Trade.*)

Years.	Raw.	Waste.	Thrown.	Total of all Sorts.	Duty received.	Rates of Duty.
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*L.*	
1814	1,504,235	29,234	586,505	2,119,974		*Rate of Duty, Raw.*—From India 4*s.* per lb., from other places 6*s.* 6*d.* per lb., to the 25th of March, 1824; 5*d.* per lb. from all places, to the 5th of July, 1826; 1*d.* per lb. from all places, from the 5th of July, 1826.
1815	1,068,396	27,921	377,822	1,475,399		
1816	873,414	4,162	208,014	1,08 ,590		
1817	1,249,051	49,066	294,953	1,593,049		
1818	1,444,861	86,940	391,166	1,922,967		*Rate of Duty, Waste.*—From India, 3*s.* 9*d.* per lb., from other places 4*s.* per lb. to the 25th of March, 1824; 3*d.* per lb. from all places, to the 5th of July, 1826; 1*d.* per lb. to the 5th of July, 1829; 1*s.* per cwt. from all places, after the 5th of July, 1829.
1819	1,446,097	71,391	331,125	1,848,563		
1820	1,621,590	95,098	309,949	2 027,635	614,472	
1821	1,881,425	105,135	140,248	2,329,808	732,542	
1822	1,993,569	64,178	182,573	2,441,563	772,431	
1823	2,751,895	69,392	383,864	2,469,121	708,6 0	*Rate of Duty, Thrown.*—On all kinds, dyed, 2*l.* 5*s.* 6*d.*, and undyed, 14*s.* 8*d.* per lb., to the 25th of March, 1824; dyed and undyed, 7*s.* 6*d.* per lb., to the 5th of November, 1825; then 5*s.* per lb. on undyed, to the 5th of July, 1826; thereafter, 6*s.* 8*d.* on organzine and crape, and 4*s.* on tram and singles dyed, and 3*s.* on tram and singles not dyed, to the 5th of July, 1829; and then 5*s.* 3*d.* on organzine and crape, and 3*s.* on tram and singles dyed; 3*s.* 6*d.* on organzine and crapes, 2*s.* on tram, and 1*s.* 6*d.* on singles not dyed.
1824	3,414,520	133,257	463,271	4,011,038	3 6,9 4	
1825	2,948,508	193,910	550,542	3,604,0 0	246,430	
1826	1,814,188	150,000	289,2 5	2,253,413	84,457	
1827	3,540,138	200,000	454,015	4,213,153	125,709	
1828	3,912,750	240,000	385,262	4,547,912	111,907	
1829	2,419,992	300,000	172,2 9	2,892,201	45,248	
1830	3,771,989	486,013	436,536	4,6 3,517	89,544	
1831	3,3 0,045	758,748	514,470	4,283,031	49,578	
1832	3,333,619	160,696	329,932	4,573,247	66,551	
1833	3,934,244	665,963	368,244	4,758,453	59,682	

III. An Account of all Silks and Ribands (separately) imported from July, 1826, to the present Time.— *(Report from Select Committee of Silk Trade*, p. 13. For Rates of Duty, see TARIFF.)

	Silk Manufactures imported into the United Kingdom for Home Consumption.						
	1826. From the 5th of July.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.
Silks of Europe.	*Lbs. oz.*	*Lbs. oz.*	*Lbs. oz.*	*Lbs. oz.*	*Lbs. oz.*	*Lbs. oz.*	*Lbs.*
Silk or satin	20,238 11 1-2	38,549 6 1-2	61,323 2 1-4	64,612 3 1-2	51,417 6 1-2	62,248 5	70,140
in ribands	7,682 1 1-2	20 958 11 1-2	35,516 14				
Gauze	5,2-2 14 1-4	6,504 5 1-2	4,600 0 1-4	20,088 3 3-4	30,341 3	33,686 7 3-4	46,886
in ribands	3,817 15	16,210 14 3-4	21,917 13				
Crape	5,496 13 3-4	16,381 1	21,851 13	22,786 11 1-2	23,880 4	19,057 0	15,092
Velvet	5,518 3 1-2	15,406 15 3-4	18,470 7	13,743 0	14,847 6	12,210 0	11,997
in ribands	52 10	242 2	2,101 10 3-4				
Ribands embossed or figured with velvet	Not entered under this denomination until the 5th of July, 1829.			317 2	523 3	345 14	627
Fancy silk net or tricot	27 14	223 5	11 4	3 12	43 11	96 12	107
Silk mixed with metal	230 3	583 10 1-4	512 7 3-4	498 12 1-2	412 7	464 3	137
in ribands	54 1	230 13	125 1				
Total entered by weight	48,301 1 1-2	115,278 5 1-4	169 880 9	121,953 13 1-4	126,370 8 1-2	148,516 10 3 4	144,966
Plain silk lace or net, called tulle square yds.	40,676 1-4	122,238 1-2	171,036 1-2	109,729 1-2	114,381 1-4	54,117	38,727
Millinery viz. turbans or cape No.	113	358	295	383	368	201	3.0
hats or bonnets —	119	428	414	528	535	412	546
dresses —	44	215	275	330	296	300	207
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*Y. s. d.*	*L.*
at value declared value		80 12 0	13 10 0	50 12 0	154 4 0	27 16 0	92
Manufactures of silk, or of silk and any other materials, not particularly enumerated	21,499 5 0	54,128 9 10	77,189 0 8	85,359 19 5	44,923 15 10	35,636 0 0	43,173
Silks of India.							
Bandanas, romals, and silk handkerchiefs pieces	208,068	55,183	69,628	67,485	77,962	101,023	82,292
Silks and crapes, in pieces —	32,754	18,150	15,577	10,164	8,978	3,779	2,506
Crape shawls, scarfs, gown pieces, and handkerchiefs No.	77,776	24,900	4,799	1,969	17,020	16,157	12,218

Note.—The distinction in the rates of duty between silks and ribands having ceased to exist in 1829, on the passing of the act 10 Geo. 4. c. 23., both articles have since been entered at the Custom house under the general denominations of silk or satin, gauze and velvet, and are necessarily stated in the above return.

IV. Account of the Official and of the Declared or Real Value of British Manufactured Silks exported from the United Kingdom since 1820, with the Bounty or Drawback paid thereon.

Years.	Total British Silks exported. Official Value.	Goods all Silk. Declared Value.	Silk mixed with other Materials. Official Value.	Total British Silks exported. Declared Value.	Bounty or Drawback paid.
	L. s. d.	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*
1820		203,698	168,109	371,775	23,601
1821	136,841 19 1	224,2-7	150,186	374,473	32,563
1822	141,174 17 6	215,298	165,805	381,703	35,353
1823	140,459 19 5	203,769	147,640	351,409	32,446
1824	159,670 17 6	183,635	258,961	442,596	34,212
1825	150,896 19 9	93,998	202,750	296,738	586
1826	106,931 10 1	73,247	95,554	168,801	57
1827	173,593 4 6	99,055	137,289	236,344	68
1828	179,053 19 11	97,346	158,524	255,870	
1829	231,998 1 3	143,636	124,296	267,931	4,944
1830	427,849 5 7	355,790	165,220	521,010	26,690
1831	471,119 0 0	388,948	190,048	578,048	46,038
1832	475,165 0 0			529,990	
1833				740,294	

The United States is our best customer for silk goods. Of the total quantity exported in 1831, they took nearly 1-2, or to the amount of 237,985*l.* of real value. During the same year, the exports to the British North American colonies, were 93,013*l.*; to the British West Indies, 27,508*l.*; to France, 43,462*l.*; to Spain, 24,853*l.*, &c.

Sources of the Supply of Silk.—The following Table shows the sources whence we directly derive our supplies of raw and of foreign thrown silk, and the quantities brought from each in 1831 and 1832.

Imports of Silk.

Countries.	1831.	1832.	Countries.	1831.	1832.
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*		*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*
Raw silk from India	1,723,650	1,814,707	Waste and knubs from Italy	410,750	347,454
Cape of Good Hope	26,930	8,194	France	320,325	287,016
China	8,374	28,105	Other countries	16,743	56,127
Turkey	451,421	488,278	Total of waste and knubs	756,729	656,010
Italy	115,766	216,702			
France	981,349	749,418	Thrown silk from Italy	698	2,546
Other countries	86,375	116,318	France	612,590	145,284
Total of raw silk	3,235,865	3,391,721	Other countries	15,993	29,336
			Total of thrown silk	629,281	177,166
Waste and knubs from India		112			
Turkey		701			

It is necessary, however, to observe that this account does not exhibit the countries which really furnish us with silk, and the quantities we import from them. It merely exhibits the sources whence we *immediately derive our supplies*, without tracing them to their source. Hence it makes the imports of silk from China and Italy appear very much less than they really are, and those from India and France much larger. With respect to China, it would appear from this account that only 8,374 lbs. were imported from it in 1831; whereas it appears from another parliamentary paper, that the imports of Chinese silk in that year really amounted to 466,692 lbs.; and even this last is, we believe, underrated—(see vol. i. p. 304.). The reason is, that by far the largest portion of the Chinese silk imported into England is carried, in the first instance, to Singapore, or to some port in India, and is thence imported under the name of Indian silk. During the year 1831-32, there were exported from Canton, in British ships, 8,451 piculs, or 1,126,800 lbs., of silk, costing at the port of shipment (Canton) 2,654,666 dollars; and of this, by far the largest portion came to England.—(See vol. i. p. 301.) The silk exported from Canton consists of two leading varieties, known in commerce by the names of Canton and Nanking. The first which is raised principally in the province of Canton, is divided into 5 sorts. At an average, the picul of Canton silk brought at Canton, in 1831-32, 158 dollars. The Nanking silk, produced in the province of Kiangnan, is divided into 2 sorts, known in commerce by the names of Tsatlee and Tayaanm. It is very superior to the other, and usually fetches more than double its price. It cost at Canton, in 1831-32, 366 dollars a picul. We have no doubt, now that the trade to China is thrown

ages, that the exports of Chinese silk will be materially increased; and that it will become an article of great commercial importance.

East India native silk comes wholly from Bengal. About the year 1760, the East India Company introduced the Italian mode of reeling silk, which was productive of a very great improvement in the quality of the article; but we are not aware that any subsequent improvement has been effected. According to the *Parliamentary Paper*, No. 425. Sess. 1833, the imports of raw silk from all places to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, except China, were, in 1830, 1,736,231 lbs.; in 1831, 1,725,650 lbs.; and in 1832, 1,814,819 lbs. But, notwithstanding this exception, we believe that a very considerable quantity of the silk so imported was the produce of China; being brought to us partly from Singapore, and partly from the Indian ports. Some of it was also the produce of Persia, shipped, in the first instance, from Bushire for Bombay. The silk goods brought from India are not only inferior, in point of quality, to those of Europe, but also to those of China. The quantity imported of late years is specified in the Table, No. III.

A good deal of the silk brought from Turkey is supplied by Persia. Some considerable part of the Persian silk that used to be exported from Bushire and other ports on the Persian Gulf, is now exported by way of Trebisond; which promises to become an important emporium for Persian and Turkish silk. (See TREBISOND.)

By far the greatest part of the raw and thrown silk that comes to us from France, is not the growth of that country, but of Italy; being principally conveyed by the canal of Languedoc and the Garonne to Bordeaux, whence it is shipped for England. So much is this the case, that it appears from the official accounts published by the French government, that while the aggregate value of the French and foreign raw and thrown silk exported from France in 1831 amounted to 45,102,054 fr., the value of the portion which was of French origin was only 2,092,776 fr.!—(*Administration des Douanes*, for 1831, p. 36.)

The reader will find, under the article VENICE, an account of the exports of silk from the Venetian provinces in 1829, 1830, and 1831. Since the article NAPLES was printed, we have obtained the following authentic statement of the exports of silk from that city during the 6 years ending with 1833, and of the stocks on hand:—

Year.	Exports. Raw.	Spun.	Sewing.	Total.	Waste.	Stocks on the 31st of December. Raw.	Spun.	Total.
	lbs.*	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1828	169,091	46,604	95,196	330,847	88,718	107,100	3,600	110,700
1829	176,133	31,858	96,601	304,642	6,776	197,500	7,200	144,700
1830	217,312	39,286	132,647	389,241	12,036	118,200	1,800	120,000
1831	138,777	22,585	230,150	391512	27,188	173,800	600	174,400
1832	310,635	32,786	127,874	471,295	19,243	130,100	3,000	133,100
1833	313,229	53,668	105,575	471,472	26,694	86,500	2,400	90,900
Total	1,345,183	225,787	788,043	2,358,013	130,655			

[The following account of the silk culture in the United States, from the third report of the Agricultural Society of Massachusetts, will be interesting to the American reader.

The production of silk in this country has been repeatedly brought before the public; and presented in various forms as a subject of general interest to the agricultural community. When the state of Georgia was settled, silk and wine were recommended as particular objects of culture. In Virginia, measures were taken as early as 1663 to encourage the general production of silk; and the failure to plant mulberry trees at the rate of ten for every hundred acres, was made by the laws a penal offence. In 1760, the society in London for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce, offered liberal premiums for the production of silk in Georgia, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut. "The society propose to give for every pound weight of cocoons produced in the Province of Connecticut in the year 1759, of an hard, weighty, and good substance, wherein one worm only has spun, three pence; for every pound weight of cocoons of a weaker, lighter, spotted, or bruised quality, though only one worm has spun in them, two pence; for every pound of cocoons, produced in the same year, wherein two worms are interwoven, one penny. These premiums will be paid on condition that a public filature be established in Connecticut, and that each person bring his or her balls to such public filature." This invitation, says Jared Eliot, in his remarkable essays on Field Husbandry in New England, is not to a business to which we are wholly strangers; it is not to an empty, airy, and untried project; for there has been something of this manufactory carried on for sundry years, and by a number of our people in divers of our towns, by which we are assured that it is practicable. As early as 1747, the governor of Connecticut, Mr. Law, wore the first coat and stockings made of New England silk; and in 1750, his daughter wore the first silk gown of domestic production.

In an almanac of Nathaniel Ames, for the year 1769, it seems the subject had been matter of much public discussion, and "a gentleman, whom posterity will bless, deposited one hundred dollars in the hands of the selectmen of Boston; forty dollars to be given to the person who, in the year 1771, shall have raised the greatest quantity of mulberry trees; thirty dollars to him that shall have the next greatest number; twenty to the next; and ten to the next; certificate being produced from a justice of the peace of the number, and that they belong to Massachusetts Bay." * * * *

It is further stated by Eliot, in 1762, "that by a late account from Georgia, it appears that the silk manufactory is in a flourishing way. In the year 1757, the weight of silk balls received at the filature, was only 1,050; last year produced 7,040, and this year already about 10,000; and it is very remarkable that the raw silk exported from Georgia, sells at London from two to three shillings a pound more than that from any other part of the world." It is stated by president Stiles, that in 1762 Georgia exported to London 15,000 lbs. cocoons, deemed sufficient to make 1500 lbs. of silk.

Other remarks of Eliot, considering the time when he wrote, are particularly deserving of attention. He commends especially the cultivation of silk to the northern colonies, "who are destitute of any staple commodity by which they could make an immediate and direct return to England, for such goods as we want, and must always want, more abundantly than we have means at present by which we can refund. This seems to be the state of Georgia, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut." The cultivation of the great staple of cotton was not pursued then to any extent in the southern states.

He goes on to say that, "those among us, who raise silk, say, that it is more profitable than other ordinary business. Some years past, I asked a man of good faith and credit, who had then made the most silk of any among us, what profit might be made of it. His reply was, that he could make a yard of silk as cheap as he could make a yard of linen cloth of eight run to the pound. A woman of experience in this business told me, that, in the short time of feeding the worm and winding the silk balls, she could earn enough to hire a good spinner the whole year. I have not the least scruple of the informer's veracity, but how far their capacity might serve for an exact calculation, I know not." * *

* Two lbs. avoirdupois are equal to about 2 7-9 libri Napolitani.

In 1772, as appears from the manuscript journal of President Stiles of Yale College, his family engaged, to some extent, in the culture of silk, and their production was sent to England to be manufactured, a sample of which cloth, presenting a singularly beautiful fabric, together with the journal itself, is now in my possession.

About the year 1770, a filature was established in Philadelphia, and it is a remarkable fact, from the 23th of June to the 15th of August 1771, 2,300 pounds of cocoons were brought to the filature to be reeled, or were bought by the managers. These came from Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Delaware.

About the year 1760, the culture of silk was introduced into Mansfield, Conn., and some of the neighbouring towns. It has been pursued ever since that time, to a small extent, in several other places in New England; but it cannot be said to have maintained its foothold in any other situation than in Mansfield. In other places, where it planted itself with every favourable prospect of success, it presently expired. In Mansfield, Conn., it has continued to be pursued to the present time. The largest amount of raw reeled silk reported to have been produced in any one year in Mansfield, as was stated to me in that town, has been about seven thousand pounds. In general, however, it has not exceeded three thousand pounds per year. The inhabitants of Mansfield have been wholly dependent upon the white mulberry for feed for their worms; and a large proportion of these were destroyed by the severe winter of 1834–5.

The silk culture became again strongly the subject of public attention in 1826. Congress encouraged it, by the publication and distribution of large editions of manuals and treatises, prepared with great care and fulness, and giving all the directions and details necessary to the prosecution of the business, from the raising of the trees, to the preparation of the article for use. The vast amounts of money annually sent abroad for the purchase of this article of universal use and almost of necessity, the increasing use of the article among all classes of people, and to an extent probably not known in any other country; and, at the same time, the acknowledged capacity of the country to produce silk, and of the best quality, gave new prominence to the subject in the community, and drew the public attention to it with an intense interest; but with no greater interest than in an economical view, in the opinion of many intelligent men, its national importance may justly claim.

In 1830, the introduction of a new plant into the country, (the Perottet mulberry, or morus multicaulis,) which promised, from its extraordinary capacity of rapid multiplication, and its productiveness of foliage, to furnish superior advantages for the prosecution of the silk culture, gave a new impulse to the cause, and aroused public enthusiasm to a high degree of fervour. The disappointment occasioned by the almost universal destruction of these plants by the frosts, produced a revulsion in public feeling; and the progress of the silk culture was again arrested and set back in a strong ebb.

It does not fall within my province to detail more particularly the history of events in relation to this subject. The introduction of this extraordinary variety of the mulberry, the morus multicaulis, or many stalked mulberry, or, as I think it should be called after the name of the spirited individual who brought it into Europe, the Perottet mulberry, led to the introduction of other valuable varieties. About this time the erection of a cocoonery at Northampton, in Massachusetts, of extraordinary dimensions and expense, and the reiterated and extravagant calculations of profit, which were to follow from the culture of silk, continually given to the public in the most imposing forms, and the establishment of societies in all parts of the country, with large capitals for this object, kept the curiosity and interest of the public constantly upon the stretch. The announced introduction of varieties of the mulberry, of such hardihood as to brave the severity of our climate, and especially the adoption of a plan for taking up the tender varieties and resetting them, or laying them down in the spring; and the practicableness in this way of obtaining in the same season from trees thus managed, an ample supply of food for the worms, seemed to give strong assurance that the bright hopes which had been indulged on this subject, were, at least in some degree, on the point of being realized.

In the year 1838, a new chapter in the history of the silk culture was to be unfolded. There is little reason to doubt, that, at this time, a conspiracy or combination of some principal individuals, deeply interested in the multicaulis in the United States, was formed, in order to force the sales of this tree at high prices. By every species of finesse, and by the grossest impositions, the public pulse was quickened to a rapidity and intensity of circulation almost unparalleled in the history of the excitements of the human mind. The selling of spurious seed, the disposal of trees under false names, the selling for multicaulis that which did not even belong to the species of the mulberry, and especially the villany, for it deserves no milder name, and should shut out its perpetrators from all community with honest men, of getting up extensive auction sales of multicaulis trees, which were purely fictitious, and this with no other view than that of fraudulent wholesale imposition upon the public, present facts in the history of our community equally remarkable and disgraceful. They are instructive monuments to mark the extremes to which, under the influence of an unbridled avarice, the cunning of some men will proceed, and the credulity of others may be led. In these circumstances the public attention was directed exclusively to the growing of trees. The production of silk did not enter into the calculation. Thousands and thousands of acres were planted with the Perottet mulberry; and immense importations of these trees have been made from foreign countries.

By the caprices and fluctuations incident to all human affairs, and by no means unexpected in a case of such violent and extravagant speculation, as that of which I have been speaking, it has happened that the ebb has gone down in proportion to the elevation of the flood. This speculation is at an end; and though all the growers and speculators in morus multicaulis from Florida to Maine should pump at the bellows together, they are much more likely to blow out the last embers that remain on the hearth, than to fan them into a flame. It is feared that in too many cases the exposure of the speculation, as it was termed, would present only humiliating examples of fraud and credulity; and it would be an invidious and ungrateful task to rake open the ashes for the sake of seeing the burnt bones and carcasses of those who have perished in the flames. The multicaulis is no longer in quick demand, and may be purchased at a price far below its actual and intrinsic value. The tree having ceased to be an object of speculation, it is now hoped that public attention will be directed to the production of silk. The best trees of the best descriptions being obtainable, even by persons of the most limited means, it becomes matter of important inquiry, whether, to what extent, and under what circumstances, the silk culture may be conducted and encouraged as a profitable branch of agriculture.—*Am. Ed.*]

SILVER (Ger. *Silber*; Du. *Zilver*; Da. *Sölv*; Sw. *Silfver*; Fr. *Argent*; It. *Argento*; Sp. *Plata*; Port. *Prata*; Rus. *Serebro*; Pol. *Srebro*; Lat. *Argentum*; Gr. ἄργυρος; Arab. *Fazzeh*), a metal of a fine white colour, without either taste or smell; being in point of brilliancy inferior to none of the metallic bodies, if we except polished steel. It is softer than copper, but harder than gold. When melted, its specific gravity is 10·474; when hammered, 10·51. In malleability, it is inferior to none of the metals, if we except gold. It may be beaten out into leaves only $\frac{1}{250000}$ of an inch thick. Its ductility is equally remarkable: it may be drawn out into wire much finer than a human hair; so fine, indeed,

that a single grain of silver may be extended about 400 feet in length. Its tenacity is such, that a wire of silver 0·078 inch in diameter is capable of supporting a weight of 187·13 lbs. avoirdupois without breaking. Silver is easily alloyed with copper by fusion. The compound is harder and more sonorous than silver, and retains its white colour even when the proportion of copper exceeds $\frac{1}{2}$. The hardness is at a maximum when the copper amounts to *one fifth* of the silver. The standard or sterling silver of Britain, of which coin is made, is a compound of 12$\frac{1}{2}$ parts silver and 1 copper. Its specific gravity is 10·2. The specific gravity of Paris standard silver, composed of 137 parts silver and 7 copper, is 10·175. The French silver coin during the old government was not nearly so fine, being composed of 261 parts silver and 27 copper, or 9$\frac{2}{3}$ parts silver to 1 part copper. The Austrian silver coin contains $\frac{13}{144}$ of copper. The silver coin of the ancients was nearly pure, and appears not to have been mixed with alloy.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

The most productive silver mines are in America, particularly in Mexico and Peru. There are also silver mines in Hungary, Saxony, and other parts of Europe, and in Asiatic Russia.—(See PRECIOUS METALS.)

Besides being used as coin, or money, silver is extensively employed in the arts. The value of the silver plate annually manufactured is very considerable. Large quantities are also used in plating.—(See PLATE.) For an account of the quantity of silver coined at the British mint, since 1790, see vol. i. p. 389.

SINGAPORE, an island and recent British settlement at the eastern extremity of the Straits of Malacca. The town is in lat. 1° 17′ 22″ N., lon. 103° 51′ 45″ E.

The island is of an elliptical form, about 27 miles in its greatest length, and 15 in its greatest breadth, containing an estimated area of 270 square miles. The whole British settlement, however, embraces a circumference of about 100 miles; in which is included about 80 desert islets, and the seas and straits within 10 miles of the coast of the principal island. Singapore is separated from the main land by a strait of the same name, of small breadth throughout, and scarcely, indeed, $\frac{1}{4}$ of a mile wide in its narrowest part. In the early period of European navigation, this channel was the thoroughfare between India and China. Fronting the island, on its southern side, and at the distance of about 9 miles, is an extensive chain of islands, all desert, or at least inhabited only by a few wild races, of which nothing is known but their mere existence. The intervening channel is now the grand route of the commerce between the eastern and western portions of maritime Asia; the safest and most convenient track being so near to Singapore, that ships in passing and repassing approach close to the roads. The town is on the south side of the island, and is situated on a river, or rather salt creek, navigable by lighters for about $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile from the sea. Ships lie in the roads, or open harbour, at the distance of from 1 mile to 2 miles from town, according to their draught of water. The assistance of a number of convenient lighters, which are always in readiness, enables ships to load or unload, with scarcely any interruption, throughout the year. The river or creek is accessible to the lighters, and the goods are taken in and discharged at convenient quays, at the doors of the principal warehouses.

The climate of Singapore is hot, but healthy. Fahrenheit's thermometer ranges from 71° to 89°. In a place only about 80 miles from the equator there is, of course, very little variety in the seasons. There is neither summer nor winter; and even the periodical rains are short, and not very well marked—moderate showers of rain falling for about 150 days each year. The settlement of Singapore was formed in February, 1819, and its sovereignty and property, in their present extent, confirmed to the British government in 1825, by a convention with the king of the Netherlands, and a treaty with the Malay princes of Johore, to whom it belonged. When taken possession of by the English, it had been inhabited for about 8 years by a colony of Malays, half fishermen and half pirates. When the first census of the population was taken, in January, 1824, it was found to amount to 10,683. In 1828, it had increased to 15,834: in both cases, exclusive of troops, camp followers, Indian convicts, and a floating population of about 3,000. The following statement of the censuses taken on the 1st of January, 1832, and on the 1st of January, 1833, shows the different classes of inhabitants, and their proportions to each other:—

	1832.		1833.			1832.		1833.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.		Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
European	83	22	91	28	Nat. of Hindostan	408	121	389	116
Indo Britons	67	27	68	40	Javanese	291	263	261	234
Native Christians	274	148	167	133	Bugis, Bauneae, &c.	753	693	794	932
Armenians	20	6	27	8	Caffres	97	1	23	14
Jews	5		2		Parsees	2			
Arabs	61	3	96						
Malays	3,749	3,497	3,765	3,969	Total	14,324	5,391	15,181	5,797
Chinese	7,149	613	7,630	867	Females	5,391		5,797	
Natives of the Coast of Coromandel	1,074	40	1,762	87	Total Inhabitants	19,715		20,978	

The principal merchants and agents are Englishmen, of whom also there are a few shopkeepers, auctioneers, &c. There are also some respectable Chinese merchants; and the bulk of the shopkeepers, with the most valuable part of the labouring population, consist of Chinese. About 5,000 adults arrive annually from China by the junks; about 1,000 of whom remain at Singapore, the rest

dispersing themselves among the neighbouring Dutch, English, and Malay settlements. The boatmen are chiefly natives of the Coromandel coast; and the Malays employ themselves as fishermen, in cutting timber, and in supplying the settlement with the rude produce of the neighbourhood. There are 2 good daily markets, open at all hours, and well supplied with vegetables, fruits, grain, fish, pork, and green turtle; the latter the cheapest animal food that can be procured. At Singapore there are no export or import duties levied, nor anchorage, harbour, light-house dues, or any fees; but a register is kept of all exports and imports. Reports must be made to the master attendant by the masters of vessels, and invoices delivered to the superintendent of imports and exports.

Commodities and Prices.—Singapore is chiefly an *entrepôt*, having, with the exception of pearl sago, manufactured on the spot from the raw material imported from the north coast of Sumatra, implements of agriculture, and some others fabricated by the Chinese from European iron, and gambier or catechu grown and manufactured on the island, few commodities of its own exportation. The following price current of the 22d of August, 1833, will convey the best idea of the miscellaneous articles of which the commerce of the port consists:—

Articles.		Prices.	
		From	To
Eastern Articles.			
Bees' wax	per picul	28 dol.	32 dol.
Biche de mer, 1st sort	—	40	60
inferior	—	20	25
Isle of France	—	7	15
Benjamin	—	16	55
Betel nut	—	1 1-2	1 3-4
Bird's nests, white	per catty	20	45
black	per picul	30	200
Camphor, Baras	per catty	12	30
China	per picul	30	35
Canvass, Bengal	per bolt	3	4
Coffee, Sumatra	per picul	9 1-2	10
other descriptions	—	9	9 1-2
Copper, Japan,	—	27	30
Cordage, coir	—	3 1-2	5
Cotton	per bale	18	22
Dammer, raw	per picul	1	1 1-4
Dholl	per bag	2 3-4	3
Dragon's blood, inf'r (block)	per picul	12	25
Ebony, Isle of France	—	3	3 1-2
of other parts	—	2	3
Elephant's teeth, 1st sort	—	100	120
2d do.	—	95	100
3d do.	—	70	90
Gambier, Rhio and Singapore	—	4	5
Siak	—	3	
Gamboge	—	15	20
Ghee, cow	—	14	18
buffalo	—	12	14
Grain, rice, white	per coyan	55	60
cargo, 1st sort	—	45	0
do. inferior	—	40	45
Bengal	per bag	2 1-2	2 3-4
wheat	—	3	3 1-4
gram, 2 maunds	—	2	2 1-4
Gold dust, of Pahang & Siac	per bung	30	31 1-2
of other parts	—	27	30
Gunnies	per 100	7	9
Mother-o'-pearl shells	per picul	20	22
Nankeens, long junk	per 100	38	45
short do.	per corge	7	8
Oil, cocoa nut	per picul	6	6 1-2
Opium, Patna	per chest	620	720
Benares	—	630	720
Malwa	—	530	550
Pepper, black	per picul	5 1-2	6
long	—	4	
Piece goods, Bengal sannahs	per corge	80	84
Mahmoodies	—	28	30
Gurrahs	—	12	14
Baftas	—	20	22
chints of 12 cubits	—	14 1-2	16
chints of 10 cubits	—	8	10
Madras. muries, white	—	22	25
blue	—	30	40
salempires, blue	—	40	50
brown	—	30	35
handkerchiefs	—	80	100
kolamkories	—	20	45
Rambayas	—	12	13
bugis sarungs	—	16	30
Bali cloths	—	6	7
Batick handk's.	—	9	16
Rattans	per picul	1 1-2	2
Sago, pearl, in case	—	2 3-4	3
Salt, Siam	per coyan	23	24
Saltpetre	per picul	7 1-2	8
Sapan wood, Manilla	—	1 1-4	1 1-2
Siam	—	1 3-4	2
Silk, raw, China, junk	72 cyts.	220	240
Canton, No. 3.	100 cyts.	530	530
Macao	95 cyts.	500	510
Spirits, arrack	per gal.	15 cts.	20 cts.
Stick lac	per picul	12	14
Sezars, Manilla	per 1,000	6	6 1-2
Sugar, Siam, 1st sort	per picul	5 1-2	6

Articles.		Prices.	
		From	To
Eastern Articles.			
Sugar, Cochin-China	per picul	3¼ cts.	4½ cts.
Sugar candy	—	6	10
Tin, Banca	—		15 dol.
Straits	—	13½ dol.	14 1-2
Tobacco, Java	40 baskets	120	130
China	per picul	14	16
Tortoiseshell	—	1,000	1,000
European Articles.			
Ale, Hodgson's	per hhd.	35	40
Allsop's	—	35	40
Barclay's	—	10	20
Anchors and grapnels	per picul	10	12
Bottles, English	per 100	3 1-2	4
Canvass	per bolt	9	11
Copper nails and sheathing	per picul	35	40
Cordage	—	10	12
Cotton twist, No. 16. to 36.	—	38	40
No. 38. to 70.	—	50	60
Gunpowder	per 100 lbs.	25	30
Flints	per picul	30 cts.	
Iron, Swedish, bar	—	5 dol.	5 1-2
English	—	2	2 1-2
nails, spike	—	3	3 1-4
Lead, pig	—	5	5 1-2
sheet	—	5 1-2	6
Patent shot	per bag	1	2
Paint, oil	per gallon	1 1-2	1 3-4
Provisions, beef, American	per brl.	2	3
English	—	30	
pork, English	—	25	
flour,	—	4	6
Rosin	—	2	3
Spelter	per picul	4	4 1-2
Steel, Swedish	per tub	6	10
Tar, Stockholm	per brl.	5	
Piece goods, Madapolams, 25 yds. by 32 to 36 inches	per piece	1 1-4	3
Imitation Irish, 25 yds. by 36 inches	—	2 1-4	2 1-2
long cloths, 38 to 40 yds. by 36 to 37 in.	—	3 1-2	6
38 to 40 yds. by 38 to 40 in.	—	4	5 1-4
38 to 40 yds. by 44 in.	—	5	9
38 to 40 yds. by 50 in.	—	6	8
38 to 40 yds. by 54 in.	—		
38 to 40 yds. by 60 in.	—	10	12
prints, 7 8, light grounds, single colours	—	2 1-2	3
9-8, do. do.	—	3	4
7-8, dark, do.	—	2 1-2	3
9-8, do. do.	—	3	3 1-2
7-8 and 9-8, 3 colours	—	3 1-2	3 1-2
9-8, Turkey red ground, 24 yards	—	10	12
9-8 furniture, 24 yards	—	6	8
cambric, 12 yds. by 43 to 44 inches	—	1 1-4	2
12 yards by 45 inches	—	1 1-2	2 1-2
jaconnet, 20 yds. by 44 to 46 inches	—	1 1-2	4
lappets, 20 yds. by 40 to 44 inches	—	1 1-2	2
handkerchiefs, imitation Batkic, dbl.	per corge	5	6 1-2
Pulicat	per dozen	2 1-2	3
Woollens, long ells	per piece	10	11
camlets	—	25	30
ladies' cloths (scarlet)	per yard	1 1-2	2 1-4
bombazettes	per piece	7	9
Wines and spirits—sherry	per dozen	6	8
port	—	9	10
claret, French	—	4	8
English	—	8	10
brandy	per gal.	3 4	4
rum	—	30 cts.	45 cts.
gin	per case	6	8

The following are the rates of commission and warehouse rent charged at Singapore, except in cases of special agreement:—

Commission.

1. On all sales or purchases, except the following, 5 per cent.
2. On purchases of goods or produce for returns, 2 1-2 per cent.
3. On sales or purchases of opium, 3 per cent.
4. On sale or purchase of ships, vessels, houses, or lands, 2 1-2 per cent.
5. On sale, purchase, or shipment of bullion, 1 per cent.
6. On sale or purchase of diamonds, jewels, &c., 2 per cent.
7. On returns in treasure, bullion, or bills, 1 per cent.
8. On all goods consigned and withdrawn, 1-2 commission.
9. On sale, purchase, or negotiating of bills not serving for purchase of goods or produce, 1 per cent.
10. On all goods sold by auction by the agents themselves in addition to the above, 2 1-2 per cent.
11. On del credere, or guaranteeing sales when specially required, 2 1-2 per cent.
12. Shroffrage, 1 per cent. per mille.
13. On all advances of money for the purpose of trade, whether the goods are consigned to the agent or not, and where a commission of 5 per cent. is not charged, 2 1-2 per cent.
14. On ordering goods, or superintending the fulfilment of contracts whence no other commission is derived, 2 1-2 per cent
15. On guaranteeing bills, bonds, or other engagements, and on becoming security for administrations of estates, or to grant bond ment or individuals for contracts, agreements, &c., 2 1-2 per cent.
16. On acting for the estates of persons deceased as executors or administrators, 5 per cent.

17. On the management of estates of others, on the amount received, 1 1-2 per cent.
18. On procuring freight, or advertising as the agent of owner or commander, on the amount of freight, whether the same passes through the hands of the agent or not, 5 per cent.
19. On chartering ships for other parties, 2 1-2 per cent.
20. On making insurance, or writing orders for do., 1-2 per cent.
21. On settling insurance losses, total or partial, and on procuring returns of premium, 1 per cent.
22. On debts, when a process at law or arbitration is necessary, 3 1-2 per cent.—And if recovered by such means, 5 per cent.
23. On bills of exchange noted or protested, 2 per cent.
24. On collecting house rent, 5 per cent.
25. On ships' disbursements, 2 1-2 per cent.
26. On negotiating loans on respondentia, 2 per cent.
27. On letters of credit granted for mercantile purposes, 2 1-2 per cent.
28. On purchasing or selling government securities, or on exchanging or transferring the same, 1-2 per cent.
29. On delivering up do., 1-2 per cent.
30. On all advances not punctually liquidated, the agent to have the option of charging a second commission, as upon a fresh advance, provided the charge be only made once in the same year.
31. On transhipping all goods or produce, except the following, 1 per cent.
32. On transhipping whole chests of cassia, cassia buds, aniseed, camphor, nankeens, and gunny bags, per package, 1 dollar.
33. At the option of the agent, on the amount debited or credited within the year, including interest, and excepting only such items, on which at least 2 1-2 per cent. has been charged, 1 per cent.

This charge not to apply to paying over a balance due on an account made up to a particular period, unless where such balance is withdrawn without reasonable notice.

Warehouse Rent per Month.

Chests of opium or silk, bales of woollens, pipes of wine or brandy, leaguers of arrack, &c., 1 dollar.
Bales of Indian piece goods, cottons, and gunny bags, 50 cents.
Cases of European piece goods, trusses of woollens, &c., 25 cents
Hogsheads of liquor, 1-2 chests of wine, &c., 40 cents.
Pepper, rice, coffee, sugar, saltpetre, &c., 10 per cent.
Iron, tin, tutenague, spelter, copper, lead, &c., 5 per cent.
All other goods, not mentioned, to pay accordingly, or by measurement, at the rate of, per ton of 50 cubic feet, 1 dollar.

Trade of Singapore.—The following Tables are taken from the official statements published in the *Singapore Chronicle*, 27th of September, 1832. The sums are expressed in sicca rupees, at the fixed exchange of 210½ sicca rupees per 100 Spanish dollars.

I. Total Account of Imports and Exports at Singapore for the Years 1823 to 1831-32.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.*	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
	Sicca Rupees.	*Sicca Rupees.*		*Sicca Rupees.*	*Sicca Rupees.*
1823	not stated.	117,21,816	1829-1829	196,11,903	180,46,604
1824	145,55,096	179,02,695	1829-1830	212,15,599	187,62,609
1825	132,39,178	124,87,863	1830-1831	187,53,505	166,85,249
1826-1827	136,13,786	136,83,062	1831-1832	178,09,948	156,51,573
1827-1828	148,88,999	138,72,010			

II. Total Value of Imports and Exports, with the Places stated, to show the general Channel of Transhipments.

Countries.	1826-1827.	1827-1828.	1828-1829.	1829-1830.	1830-1831.	1831-1832.
	Imports.					
	Sicca Rupees.	*Sicca Rupees.*	*Sicca Rupees.*	*Sicca Rupees.*	*Sicca Rupees.*	*Sicca Rupees.*
From England and Foreign Europe	28,35,477	24,61,890	25,09,359	34,88,549	26,04,403	33,59,507
From China	15,13,556	17,92,675	56,22,136	71,54,407	60,15,040	51,23,483
From Java	11,78,676	22,54,633	14,29,149	17,81,427	21,89,238	20,60,748
	Exports.					
To England and Foreign Europe	26,99,576	30,61,745	68,60,717	77,83,176	76,82,126	64,38,988
To Java	24,61,915	15,19,977	18,14,729	23,84,326	18,03,037	15,48,044
To Java	8,26,966	10,26,379	10,34,596	8,97,488	11,41,729	7,57,153

Note.—Japan copper from Batavia is an article of transhipment to Calcutta, and occasionally to Bombay.

III. Table showing the total Value of Cargoes exported to England, distinguishing Transhipments from Straits' Produce, in the Years 1829-30, 1830-31, 1831-32.

Year.	Vessels.	Tons Register.	Straits' Produce.†	Transhipments.	Total.
			Sicca Rupees.	*Sicca Rupees.*	*Sicca Rupees.*
1829-1830	20	6,049	19,03,792	58,55,209	77,59,001
1830-1831	23	7,785	23,24,234	50,76,361	74,10,595
1831-1832	20	6,756	15,53,613	51,16,764	70,70,377

IV. Quantities of the principal Articles exported from Singapore, in the undermentioned Years.

Articles.	Year ending 1st of April, 1830.				Year ending 1st of April, 1830.				Year ending 1st of April, 1831.				Year ending 1st of April, 1832.		
	Piculs.	*Cases*	*Bags.*	*Corg.*	*Piculs.*	*Cases.*	*Bags.*	*Corg.*	*Piculs.*	*Cases.*	*Bg.*	*Corg.*	*Piculs.*	*Cases.*	*Corg.*
Benjamin	8	75			428	28			564½	6			842·69		
Canes	3,461								5,512·1				1,870		
bods	234														
Camphor, Cross	3,535				956	1,854			467·3				142		
Cubebs	38,630				18,525½			1,211	31,770·38				23,238 23		
Dragon's blood	26	25			5				202·3	58			101·84		
Dammer	37½				70·65	1	teeth	17	77·12				41·67		
Gold dust	2·94	8					bungk.	18	9·62	bungk. 13				mayams	
							purell	1					9·20	73	
Mushrooms		4,508		7,012		6,524		260		pieces 585,091				pieces 256,554	
Pepper, black	8,395				31,814			559	32,051·84				37,539·88		
white	6,009														
Raw silk	150	934	bund. 3,810		98	191½		4,420	2,355				1,554·16		bund. 103
Rice	8,356				26,277			707	46,470				26,764		
Rattans	6,120		71		43,146			bundles 1,940	25,672		84		15,232	10	
Spices	87	66			2,670	4,953	canks 26	lbs. 2,777	3,433½		4,911		8,068		
							hhds. 10								
Sugar	24,246				58,409	10		79	62,917				44,183		
Tea	2,005				4,965	75	slabs	843	2,050½				5,064½		
	2,241				24,262				19,776				25,063		
Turmeric	158				94·81	52			218		sers 25		199½	10	

* Piculs and Measures are included.
† Under this head is included Banca tin, which has been largely transhipped, but the state of the entries does not permit of its being de

V. General Trade with India for the Years 1826–27 to 1831–1832.

(*Imports into Singapore from India.*)

	1826–1827.	1827–1828.	1828–1829.	1829–1830.	1830–1831.	1831–1832.
	Sicca Rupees.	*Sicca Rupees.*	*Sicca Rupees.*	*Sicca Rupees.*	*Sicca Rupees.*	*Sicca Rupees.*
From Calcutta	19,53,120	23,16,466	23,77,066	27,96,415	25,[illegible],582	22,[illegible],[illegible]
Madras	4,05,072	4,14,699	10,90,278	5,74,564	1,02,[illegible]	3,[illegible],[illegible]
Bombay	2,56,700	3,76,899	3,92,249	2,73,393	2,31,341	1,[illegible],765
Total	26,11,892	31,08,063	44,49,813	36,44,394	29,34,[illegible]	27,[illegible],[illegible]
	Exports to India.					
To Calcutta	20,39,762	18,91,949	21,18,804	20,26,747	22,24,748	18,[illegible],471
Madras	2,78,928	1,[illegible],099	3,93,599	2,06,377	2,[illegible],978	3,[illegible],752
Bombay	5,26,188	1,88,013	3,73,036	4,00,474	4,06,[illegible]	3,[illegible],114
Total	28,44,878	23,57,460	31,25,539	26,49,096	29,36,940	25,[illegible],337

VI. Corrected List of Cargoes to Europe, by Vessels which sailed from the Port during this Official Year 1831–32.

Vessels' Names.	Tons.	Straits' Produce.	Transhipt.	Total.	Vessels' Names.	Tons.	Straits' Produce.	Transhipt	Total.
		Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*			*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
Atwick	341	9,900	- -	9,900	Childe Harold	466	26,404	308,000	334,404
Helen Mar	255	86 117	198,159	284,276	Hebe	256	5[illegible],388	2,700	51,[illegible]
Madeline	256	6,066	- -	6,066	Aurora	350	65,795	61,000	126,795
Eliza	538	50,918	13,845	64,763	Batavia	260	52,080	- -	52,[illegible]
Victoria	375	95,191	37,681	132,872	Orynthia	318	54,141	4,[illegible]	58,[illegible]
Eagle	208	37,997	40 580	78,577	Spartan	237	2,081	- -	2,[illegible]
Edmond Castle	285	85,006	51,546	136,552	Duke of Roxburgh	417	83,219	664,559	667,778
Bencoolen	403	855	10,710	11,565	Edward	354	64,323	9,[illegible]	73,[illegible]
Lady Gordon	239	66,835	6,0.0	72,855	Irene	180	40,[illegible]04	10,000	50,[illegible]
Fanny	280	49,453	295,205	344,658					
Ganymede	400	65,067	727,[illegible]44	792,511	Totals	6,756	928,[illegible]8	2,[illegible],177	3,[illegible],[illegible]

Currency, Weights, Language, &c.—The currency and weights are simple and convenient. Merchants' accounts are kept in Spanish dollars, divided into 100 parts, represented either by Dutch doits or by English copper coins of the same value. The weights in use (and almost every thing is sold by weight, as in China) are the Chinese picul of 100 catties, or 133⅓ lbs. avoirdupois. Rice (the produce of Siam and the Archipelago) and salt are sold by the coyan of 40 piculs. Gold dust is sold by a Malay weight called the bungkal, which weighs two Spanish dollars, or 839 grains Troy. Bengal rice, wheat, and pulses of the same country, are sold by the bag, containing 2 Bengal maunds, or 164½ lbs. avoirdupois. Piece goods, &c. are sold by the corge or score. English weights and measures are frequently used in reference to European commodities. The mode of transacting business among the European merchants is simple and efficient. Instead of trusting their affairs to native agents, as in other parts of India, they transact them in person, with the occasional assistance of a Chinese creole, as an interpreter and broker. The European merchants transact business on their own account; but a great deal of their employment consists in acting as agents for houses in London, Liverpool, Glasgow, Amsterdam, Antwerp, Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Canton, and Batavia. They are also agents for various insurance offices at Calcutta and elsewhere, and policies of insurance to any extent may be effected without difficulty. The language of commercial intercourse, where any of the natives of the East are concerned, is universally Malay,—a simple and easy dialect, of which all the resident merchants have a sufficient acquaintance for the transacting of ordinary business. A newspaper, the *Singapore Chronicle*, is published once a week, and contains a price current, an account of arrivals and departures of shipping, and an official detail of all the exports and imports of the preceding week. The administration of justice is entirely English, there being a recorder's court for the settlement, in common with the two neighbouring ones of Penang and Malacca.

(Statement of the Value of the Import and Export Trade of Singapore, with the undermentioned Prices, in the Years 1836–37 and 1837–38.

Countries.	Imports.		Exports.	
	1836-37.	1837-38.	1836-37.	1837-38.
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
Great Britain	1,720,426	1,[illegible]2,457	1,190,953	970,[illegible]
Foreign Europe	58,[illegible]6	9,516	54,[illegible]4	70,[illegible]
United States	100,293	80,980	208,540	118,[illegible]
Rio de Janeiro	2,725	- -	41,[illegible]8	32,[illegible]
Mauritius	12,447	28,720	784,[illegible]3	1,[illegible],[illegible]
Calcutta	1,406,907	1,615,784	111,[illegible]5	175,[illegible]
Madras and Ports in Cape Coast	272,556	379,409	469,[illegible]8	88,[illegible]
Bombay	23[illegible],311	301,607	18,[illegible]1	6,[illegible]7
Arabia	2,220	25,361	249,[illegible]3	443,[illegible]
Manilla	94,048	212,305	[illegible]0,[illegible]0	5,[illegible]8
Ceylon	8,120	17,049	1,[illegible]27 14	1,[illegible]7-0
China	790,735	6[illegible],[illegible]2	808,171	863,[illegible]0
Java	892,861	1,037,157	106,618	115,[illegible]4
Rhio	148,[illegible]5	124,[illegible]2	980,[illegible]2	924,[illegible]2
Siam	225,969	8[illegible],516	105,838	9[illegible]1
Cochin China	94,018	70,908	174,[illegible]4	2[illegible],[illegible]3
Sumatra	230,941	321,890	4[illegible],[illegible]5	314,[illegible]9
E. S. Peninsula	423,230	368,777	[illegible]4,[illegible]4	28,[illegible]8
W. S. Peninsula	32 140	44,051	[illegible],[illegible]43	31[illegible],[illegible]5
Borneo	2[illegible],[illegible]9	1[illegible],[illegible]48	22[illegible],[illegible]2	2[illegible],[illegible]1
Neighbouring Islands, &c.	168,[illegible]45	117,[illegible]73	120,[illegible]8	1[illegible],[illegible]6
Bally	91,[illegible]62	83,[illegible]7	136,[illegible]13	1[illegible],[illegible]3
Celebes and other Eastern Islands	273,242	310,184		
Total Dollars	7,528,999	8,156,[illegible]2	6,[illegible],[illegible]10	7,[illegible]49
		7,5[illegible],[illegible]90		6,[illegible]8[illegible]
		617,[illegible]2		121,[illegible]1

Eastern Ports trading with Singapore.—As every thing that relates to the trade of the East is now becoming of the first importance to commercial men, we make no apology for

bying before the reader the following statements, taken from a late number of the *Singapore Free Press*, respecting the Eastern ports from which native ships arrive at Singapore. They are mostly all very imperfectly known even to residents at the settlement; and the names of some of them may now, perhaps, be learned for the first time by the English reader.

Commencing with ports to the northward, those in China, from which junks (which are included among the *native craft*) arrive here, are, CANTON, TEW-CHEW, CHUNGLIM, and MACAO, in Canton province; AMOY and CHINCHEW in Fokien; and SEANGHAE and NINGPO, large commercial cities, in Chekeang province. They come also from HAILAM or HAINAN, which is subject to Canton. The average number of these vessels (some of which are of large burden, 300 to 400 tons), is 20 arriving here annually. The cargoes they bring are, however, only chiefly intended for the consumption of the numerous Chinese who are settled in Dutch and English colonies in these parts, as well as in the native states, and are re-exported thence by smaller vessels, to places where they may be mostly required. The only articles they bring, in any way required by Europeans, are raw silks, nankeens, and tea. These vessels likewise convey a large number of emigrants from China every year, probably from 4,000 to 5,000, most of whom, however, proceed to other places soon after landing here.

The ports in Cochin-china and Cambodia, from which similar vessels arrive, are KANGKAO and LOUTOI, in Cambodia, and TURON and SAIGON, in Cochin-china Proper. Anom or Anam, from which many vessels report themselves to come, is but a general name for either Cochin-china or Tonquin. The average number of vessels arriving from these ports are 40 annually, bringing, principally, sugar, rice, oil, salt, and some other articles of minor importance. These vessels are usually smaller than the Chinese and Siamese junks.

BANGKOK and CHANTIBUN are the only two ports in Siam of any note, and from these about 30 to 40 junks and topes arrive annually. They are manned and owned almost entirely by Chinese residing in Siam, and bring, chiefly, sugar, rice, oil, iron pans, sticlac, gamboge, salt, indigo, paddy, tobacco, and sapanwood.

We have had too frequent occasion to notice the depredations and cruelties which every class of vessels from the places above mentioned have suffered at the hands of pirates every year, on their way to this port, which certainly contributes to check an increase of trade with the countries they come from.

The ports on the east coast of the Peninsula are SUNGORA and CALANTAN, subject to Siam; and TRINGANU, KEMMAMAN and PAHANG, independent states. There are other ports on this coast, but of little note; namely, Doongoon, Endau, Pakoh, Sadeelee, and Teloban. The produce usually brought here by pucats and other craft from those first mentioned consists chiefly of tin, gold dust, pepper, Malay sarongs and trowsers, bees' wax, hides, elephants' teeth. Junks occasionally touch at these ports, and we sometimes have the produce of Siam and China brought here from them. The average number of craft arriving thence may be about 120 or 130 annually.

Proceeding to Borneo, we find a great variety of ports, from which vessels report themselves, of which the following is a list:—* BANJERMASSIN, BALEMBANGAN, BURNAI, COTI, MEMPAWA, MATTAN, POTTIRAK, PASSEIR, PEGOTAN, SARAWAK, SAMBAS, SUCCADANA, *Brissil, Batulichen, Buncalan, Binsalo, Calakat, Coti-ringin, Cooboo, Chinkol, Kayong, Monterado, Mukah, Mahto, Oyak, Pambuang Ending, Sempit, Tekrang*, and *Tenwah Darat*. Some of these are well known, others only by the names reported: the locality of the latter is also but little understood. Those with which trade is principally carried on are Brunai, or Borneo Proper, Banjermassin, Pontianak, Sambas, Coti, Passier, Pegotan, and Sarawak. The productions commonly brought here from Borneo, in general, are, rattans, birds' nests, bees' wax, tortoiseshell, gold dust and diamonds, biche de mer, pearl and raw sago, camphor, rice and paddy, mother of pearl shells, garro and lakka woods, pepper, seaweed, mats, ebony and antimony ore. The number of boats arriving here annually from all the above places average about 150 or 160. The boats which come from the southern and eastern ports are commonly manned by Bugis, who seem to be the principal carriers in the Archipelago, and, next to the Chinese, are the most enterprising and industrious of the traders in these regions. They are considerably less tainted with piracy than the Malays.

CELEBES is the parent country of the Bugis, which name, though properly belonging only to one of the tribes on Celebes, is applied generally to all traders from that island, from the east and south-east coasts of Borneo, and from the islands to the southward and eastward of it. Of these tribes, by far the most considerable in point of improvement and numbers are the Bugis of Wajo or Tuwajo, a country near the centre of Celebes, and situated up the Bay of Boni. The ports in Celebes from which prahus arrive here are Bonirati, Bugis Pari-pari, Wajok, Bugis Pemana, Kallie, Macassar, Mandhar, and Sangye. They usually bring sarongs—the produce of their own looms—rattans, wax, tortoiseshell, pearl shells, seaweed, biche de mer, coffee, birds' nests, sandal and bookoo woods, and other articles of minor importance. The number of vessels arriving here from the above places average about 50 or 60 annually.

The islands to the eastward and southward of Celebes, from which the Bugis bring cargoes to this port, are chiefly Bootoon, Enday or Flores, Selayer, Timor, Booroo, Lombok, Sumbawa, Amboyna, Ceram, and even from the Aroos and Papua. The articles are the same as those from Celebes, with the addition of kayu-pooteh oil, birds of paradise, and wild nutmegs. The vessels arriving from these places may average about 30 every year.

The island of Bali, or Bally, contains several ports, from which upwards of 50 prahus annually arrive here: the principal of these are Balilling, Bali Badong, Sasak, Saliparang, and Ampanan; they bring rice, oil, hides, tobacco, sarongs, wax, birds' nests, and biche de mer. In this trade, we believe, the Bugis are likewise the principal carriers.

Returning westerly, we come to Java, from various well-known ports of which upwards of 60 native craft, independently of square-rigged vessels, annually frequent this harbour, bringing the productions of that valuable and fertile island, principally rice, sugar, tobacco, cachang or peas, tamarinds, hides, cubebs, Baltic handkerchiefs and salendongs. We go next to SUMATRA, from the various ports on the east coast of which the greatest number of native craft frequenting this port arrive, amounting on an average to between 300 to 400 annually. The names of these ports are, Acheen, Apong, Assahan, Batu bara, Bukitbatu, Billah, Ayeretam, Campar, Delli, Gawang, Indragiri, Jambie, Kitaman, Langkat, Lampung, Manda, Merbu, Pulo Padang, Panai, Palembang, Rantow, Rittee, Siac, Subee, and Tabing Tingie. The greatest portion of boats come from Apong, Manda, Rantow, and Tabing Tingie, with raw sago. The next in number are those from Campar, Jambie, and Siac, bringing coffee, rice, wax, rattans, ivory, gold dust, benzoin, dragons' blood, lakka wood, and a few other articles. From Palembang come the lacquered basons and ceeree boxes so much in request among natives; and the best rattan mats are made there. The coast near Siac furnishes in great abundance the *Trubo*, or fishroe

* The places mentioned in this statement, of which the names are in capitals, are either well known to Europeans by long report or actual intercourse; while those in italics remain, so far as we have ascertained, not only unvisited by, but are only recently known by name to them: few or none of them earlier than the foundation of this settlement.

so universally used, and affords our principal supply of sago, which has now become an article of commerce at Singapore.

The names of the petty places on the west side of the Malayan Peninsula, opposite the Sumatra shore, between this and Penang, are—Batu Pahat, Benook, Beladong, Dooyong, Broose, Muar, Padang, Poontian, and Panghie; while the principal ports, besides Malacca and her dependencies, are:—Perak, Salengore, Lingin, and Lookoot. From the former very few articles, and those only of trifling value, are brought here, consisting chiefly of fowls, cocoa nuts, paddy, fruit, &c.; but the other ports all furnish tin in large quantities, besides several other articles of less importance. The whole of this coast, however, bears a bad name for piracy. The number of prahus arriving here from all the places above named amounts to about 100 every year.

Of the neighbouring islands, RHIO is the one with which we carry on the most extensive and constant trade; the number of boats or rather trips of a regular set of Chinese boats, called *sampan pucats*, employed in the trade, being about 300 every year. They bring chiefly pepper and gambier, the produce of Bintang. From LINGIN, or LINGA, also, we have upwards of 70 or 80 boats arriving annually, bringing a great variety of useful produce, but principally pepper, tin, rattans, &c. BILLITON sends about 25 boats yearly, which bring biche de mer, seaweed, tortoiseshell, wax, &c.

BUNGORAN (or Great Natunas) and SEANTAN (or N. Anambas) are the next in importance, from which 30 or 40 vessels trade with this settlement. The other islands are—Pulo Awore, Benawang, Condore, Carimons, Jamaja, (or S. Anambas), Pulo Laut, Laboo, Leboc, Meppar, Nongsa, Saraseas, Sinkip, Soobie, Tajam, Timbian, Timiang, Tingih, Trong, Carimata, Ungaran, and some others.

Piracy in the Eastern Seas.—We regret to have to state that piracy has been of late exceedingly frequent in the seas to the eastward of the Straits of Malacca, and even in the Straits themselves. It has always, it is true, prevailed to a less or greater extent in the Eastern Seas; but latterly the number of pirates has rapidly increased, and they have prosecuted their depredations with a boldness and success that require immediate attention. In so far as we can judge from the statements in the Singapore and Canton papers, we seem, to say the least of it, to have manifested the most singular indifference to the spread of this great and growing evil. In 1824, we bound ourselves by treaty with the Dutch to co-operate with them for the suppression of piracy in the Eastern Seas. It is affirmed that, until very recently, we did little or nothing towards the fulfilment of this engagement, though we are far more interested in the suppression of piracy than any other people. Hitherto the trade of Singapore has chiefly suffered from piratical attacks; but, besides waylaying the smaller junks and ships of the Chinese, Siamese, &c., the pirates, emboldened by impunity, have recently attacked some British ships in the Straits of Malacca, and have actually captured some ships in the seas more to the eastward, inflicting the most horrid barbarities on the unhappy passengers and crews. The Andromache ship of war destroyed in June, 1836, a nest of pirates; but, until the naval force in the seas in question be considerably strengthened, and, especially, till some armed steamboats be sent to the assistance of the other vessels, the nuisance will not be materially diminished, much less suppressed. It would really seem, from the little attention that the subject has attracted in this country, as if it were imagined that the trade of the Eastern Seas is of little or no value. But we are within the mark when we affirm, that from *ten to twelve* millions' worth of British property (including the trade between India and Canton) is annually conveyed through the Straits of Malacca, and the other Eastern Seas infested by pirates. The trade from England to China, already of vast importance, and increasing more rapidly perhaps, than any other department of our commerce, is wholly carried on through the channels referred to; and, as we do not hesitate to send powerful squadrons to secure far less valuable interests in other quarters, it is not easy to see why we should not send some half-dozen steamers to protect this great and growing trade, as well as that which we carry on with the Philippine Islands, New South Wales, &c., from the depredations of a piratical banditti. Nothing but the employment of steamers will be able effectually to abate the evil of piracy. The infinite number of small islands in the Eastern Seas, the difficulty of their navigation, and our little acquaintance with any but the principal lines of intercourse, afford the greatest facilities for the escape of pirates from ordinary cruisers. But steam ships could follow them into their haunts; and the pirates would not be able to escape from them, as they frequently do from sailing vessels, by taking to their oars while their pursuers are becalmed. Except when defending our own shores, the navy is never so legitimately employed as in the defence and extension of commerce. Its protection is one of the most important duties which government has to discharge; and, considering the immense naval force at our disposal, it may well excite astonishment that piracy in the Eastern Seas—one of the great highways by which commerce is carried on—should have been allowed to attain to such a magnitude, and that the reiterated complaints of the merchants and others, who have suffered by its prevalence, should have been so little attended to. A very little outlay on the part of government might make, in so far at least as piracy is concerned, the navigation of the Eastern Seas quite as safe as that of the Channel; and the advantages thence resulting to our trade would, in a very short period, far more than countervail the little sacrifice required at the outset.

Besides putting down piracy in the Eastern Seas, government should take the necessary measures for obtaining accurate information with respect to them, and the ports and countries to which they afford access. We know *very little* indeed of many, or rather, we should say, of most, of the islands to the east of Malacca; and yet several of them are of great extent, and they all abound in valuable products; and might, it is probable, were we better acquainted with their ports and capabilities, furnish the means of carrying on an extensive and

advantageous commerce. Had utility been at all attended to in such matters, the exploration of New Guinea, and of the seas and numberless islands in its vicinity, would have taken precedence of many late expeditions.

The following paragraph, taken from the *Canton Repository* for March, 1836, corroborates what has been now stated:—

"The value of the trade which annually passes through the Chinese Sea, and the number of persons employed in it, present a striking contrast to the paucity of the means of protection afforded us from our 'father-lands.' The number of British vessels that arrived in China during 1834 was 156. The total of British trade for the year 1833-34, opium included, was about 46,953,586 dollars; and that for 1834-35 was still greater. The number of American vessels which arrived in China during 1833-34 was 16, and the total of the trade is estimated at 19,775,003 dollars; the number of vessels, and total of imports and exports for 1834-35, were nearly the same amount. The number of Dutch vessels that come to this port we cannot state; but the total of the Netherlands trade with China, in 1829-30, was 4,666,943 dollars. Besides these, there is also a considerable amount of Portuguese, Spanish, French, Hamburgh, Danish, and Swedish trade annually. The trade of Manilla, already amounting to several millions, is on the increase. The number of square-rigged vessels that imported to Singapore during 1834-35 was 517, which exceeded any former year; that of native craft was 1484, which is less than in either of the two preceding years. The number of Dutch, foreign, and native vessels which cleared from Java in 1833 was 1720, with a tonnage of 199,193 tons.

"While such is the annual amount of trade carried on in these seas, employing in the foreign vessels more than 10,000 seamen, what care have our governments shown for its protection? *Not one of his Brittanic Majesty's ships is stationed in the Chinese Sea; not one is yet stationed even at Singapore, except an occasional visitor makes a sweep among the pirates.* The Americans have done nothing here since the bloody affair of Quallah Batoo; it is said, however, that these seas are henceforth to be one of the stations for the American navy. A wide range, indeed, will two or three small men-of-war have from the Cape of Good Hope to Japan! The Portuguese here, we understand, have no naval armament whatever. It is long since a French man-of-war has visited these seas. The Spaniards at Manilla have a number of small craft called pontines, for the destruction of the piratical Mainya who infest the sea to the southward of Luconia. These are characterised by a writer in a late number of the *Canton Free Press* as particularly successful in the capture of shells and turtles, but most inefficient in the destruction of the pirates. The Dutch alone have done anything effectual towards the suppression, and their activity in this respect is worthy of all praise. In Java, and generally in all places contiguous to their possessions, they have either suppressed or greatly checked piracy, and, were it not the tendency of their severe and restricted government to make as many outlaws, as they destroy, no deduction need be made from their praise. They alone have systematically attempted to put down lawless misrule in these seas, and make them, what the Creator designed them to be, the highway of nations."—*Sup.*)

Trade of Java.—Since the article BATAVIA was printed, we have received a number of the *Singapore Chronicle*, containing the following account of the quantities of the principal articles exported from Java in 1830, 1831, and 1832. It shows a very rapid progress. There wants nothing but good management to render Java by far the most valuable of all the Eastern possessions belonging to any European power.

Articles.		1830.	1831.	1832.	Articles.		1830.	1831.	1832.
Coffee	piculs	288,742	299,086	314,173	Rattans	piculs	5,094	5,189	14,503
Sugar	—	108,640	120,298	245,872	Tortoiseshell	—	4,389	8,587	14,173
Tin	—	21,426	30,255	47,801	Tripang	—	4,908	4,060	5,578
Pepper	—	6,061	7,836	7,075	Birds' nests	—	201	246	372
Indigo	lbs.	92,063	42,841	168,211	Mace	—	177	745	647
Rice	piculs	392,067	505,199	622,944	Nutmegs	—	1,504	2,559	3,949
Arrack	leggers	1,927	1,497	2,000	Cloves	—	943	1,531	5,144
Hides	No.	30,249	63,271	82,386					

(See *Journal of an Embassy to Siam and Cochin China*, by *John Crawfurd, Esq.*, chap. xix.; *Return of the Population of British India*, in *Report of the Select Committee of the Commons*, 1831; *Report of the Select Committee of the Commons, for* 1830; and *Singapore Chronicle*, passim.)

SINOPE, a town of Asia Minor, on the S. coast of the Black Sea, lat. 42° 2′ 30″ N., lon. 35° 9′ 45″ E. Population uncertain, probably from 8,000 to 10,000. Sinope is situated on a low narrow isthmus, connecting the high rocky promontory of Ada with the main land. Its port, which is the best on this coast, on the south side of the town, is protected from the N. and N. E. gales by the isthmus and promontory already mentioned. Ships anchor within ¼ mile of the town, in from 13 to 17 fathoms; or nearer to it, in from 5 to 7 fathoms. There is a roadstead on the north side of the isthmus, but it is open and exposed. Sinope is one of the principal stations of the Turkish fleet; and there are docks and arsenals for its accommodation and outfit. Its exports are inconsiderable, the principal being timber, salt, cordage, fish oil, &c.

In ancient times, Sinope was a city of great wealth, magnitude, and importance. It was the birthplace of Diogenes, the Cynic; and Mithridates made it the capital of his dominions. After its conquest by the Romans under Lucullus, it became the seat of a colony; and continued for a lengthened period to enjoy a good deal of consideration.

Should civilization and the arts once more revive in the ancient Pontus, and the other countries to the south of the Black Sea, the excellence of its port could not fail to restore to Sinope some portion of its former grandeur. Even now a considerable intercourse is beginning to take place with the countries E. and S. of Sinope. Diarbeker, on the Tigris, in lat. 37° 54′ N., lon. 39° 53′ 45″ E., is one of the principal seats of Eastern commerce; and caravans set out regularly from it for Aleppo, Smyrna, and Constantinople: but any one who consults a map of Asia Minor, and of the contiguous countries, will see at once that Trebisond and the neighbouring ports on the S. E. coast of the Black Sea are the natural channels through which Armenia, Koordistan, and the north-western parts of Persia may best maintain an intercourse with Europe. We shall afterwards show that the danger to vessels in the roads of Trebisond has been very much exaggerated.—(See TREBISOND.) In the event, however, of the commerce with the countries referred to becoming of any considerable importance, Sinope would be an advantageous *entrepôt* to which goods might be brought, and whence they might be conveyed in proper vessels, and at proper times, to the other ports. At all events, it is of material importance

that a direct intercourse with the southern coast of the Black Sea should be established, and that the trade with it should not be carried on, as hitherto, through Odessa.—(For further particulars as to Sinope, see *Tournefort, Voyage du Levant*, tom. ii. pp. 202-212; and *Norie's Sailing Directions for the Black Sea*. See also the article TREBISOND, in this work.)

SKINS. The term is applied in commercial language to the skins of those animals, as calves, deer, goats, lambs, &c., which, when prepared, are used in the lighter works of bookbinding, the manufacture of gloves, parchments, &c.; while the term hides is applied to the skins of the ox, horse, &c., which, when tanned, are used in the manufacture of shoes, harness, and other heavy and strong articles. Lamb and kid skins are principally used in the glove manufacture; 120 skins being supposed to produce, at an average, 18 dozen pairs of gloves.

Account of the Skins imported in 1831, specifying the Countries whence they came, and the Numbers brought from each.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 550. Sess. 1832.)

Countries from which imported.	Skins.							
	Calf and Kip, unlanned.			Deer, undressed.	Goat, undressed.	Kid, undressed.	Kid, dressed.	Lamb, undressed.	Seal, undress'd.
	Cwt.	qrs.	lbs.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number.	Number
Russia	27,591	3	7						
Sweden	-	-	-		3				
Norway	2	0	5		3	18,319	617		
Denmark	220	0	19	-	-	-	-	-	13,903
Prussia	2,289	3	8	-	-	480	-	-	2,200
Germany	8,014	0	9	1,073		12,181	1,638	16,944	114,288
The Netherlands	2,881	1	9	-	-	10,303	-	576	11,650
France	-	-	-	-	-	38,746	30,780	599,973	231,789
Portugal, Proper	-	-	-	-	-	186	150	-	33,469
Azores	-	-	-	-	-	26			
Spain and the Balearic Islands	-	-	-	-	-	855	43,312	200	296,740
Gibraltar	-	-	-		1	-	1,035	-	18
Italy and the Italian islands	-	-	-	-	-	5,032	516,457	4,032	2,113,678
Malta	-	-	-	-	-	796	-	1	
Ionian Islands	-	-	-	-	-	-	312	-	265
Turkey and Continental Greece, exclusive of the Morea	0	1	19	-	-	-	-	-	2,790
Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	-	-	-	-	-	137,610			
Western Coast of Africa	575	1	22						
Cape of Good Hope	104	0	23		6	90,030	2	54	- - 8,474
St. Helena	-	-	-	-	-	1			
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	941	3	1		5	29,374	1,947		
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	1	2	0	-	-	-	-	-	- - 6,143
British Northern colonies	20	0	10	1,943		5	3	-	- - 513,459
British West Indies	-	-	-		14				
United States of America	7	1	13	122,151	-	-	-	-	- - 51
Mexico	-	-	-		12	-	-	-	- - 208
Brazil	3	1	24	-	-	-	-	-	- - 10
States of the Rio de la Plata	678	0	18		89	-	-	-	- - 635
Chili	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	- - 2,658
Peru	-	-	-		58	10,735	-	-	- - 4,866
The Whale Fisheries	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	- - 4,952
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man (foreign goods)	4	3	15	-	-	3			
Total import	42,637	1	27	125,357	354,584	595,573	621,780	2,820,092	541,624
Quantity retained for home consumption, deducting the quantity exported subsequently to the payment of duty	40,193	3	19	31,079	212,422	486,527	621,780	2,819,709	528,206

SLATE (ROOF), Ger. *Schiefer*; Fr. *Ardoise*; It. *Lavagna, Lastra*; Sp. *Pizarra*), a fossil or compact stone (*argillaceous schistus*), that may be readily split into even, smooth, thin laminæ. There are several varieties of this valuable mineral, the prevailing colours being grey, blue, and brown. But the tints are very various; and slates are often marked with streaks of a different colour from the ground. Slate is principally used in the covering of houses, for which purpose it is infinitely superior to thatch or tiles, and is far less expensive than lead. Good roofing slate should not absorb water; and it should be so compact as not to be decomposed by the action of the atmosphere. When properly selected, roof slates are of almost perpetual duration; but those which are spongy and imbibe moisture speedily get covered with moss, and require, at no very distant period, to be renewed.

The use of slates in the covering of houses is entirely European. From the Hellespont to China inclusive there is not a single slated house; and this does not arise from any want of slate, which is as abundant in Asia as in Europe.

Slates carried by land have never been subjected to any duty: but those carried coastwise were, until 1831, charged with duties varying according to their size and species. The injustice of this distinction, and the impolicy of laying any duty on an article of this sort, are obvious. The revenue it produced was quite inconsiderable, not exceeding 35,000*l.* a year. It was repealed at the same time as the duty on coal carried coastwise.

Since the repeal of the duty, the consumption of slate has been materially increased; and it is now

extensively employed for various purposes to which it was not formerly made applicable, such as the flooring of warehouses and vaults, the paving of streets, the formation of cisterns, the covering of open or decayed floors, and of the walls of houses in exposed situations, &c. The slate used for these purposes is cut by the circular saw into pieces of from ¼ an inch to 2 inches thick. Many hundred tons have been used in the course of the last 2 years in paving, flooring, &c. at the London Docks; and, we believe, with much advantage to the company. Large *depôts* of slates are now formed in London and other great towns.

The principal slate quarries in Great Britain are in Caernarvonshire. Those belonging to Mr. Pennant (formerly Lord Penrhyn's), near Bangor, employ about 1,500 men and boys, and are the most extensive and valuable in the empire. The other quarries in the same county employ about 1,620 men and boys: and there are some in other parts of Wales. There are also extensive quarries at Ulverston, in Lancashire; and others, of inferior magnitude, in various parts of Westmoreland and Cumberland.

The principal slate quarries in Scotland are at Easdale and Balachulish, in Argyleshire. Speaking generally, the Scotch quarries do not afford slates of the size and smoothness of those obtained from the Welsh quarries; and the wood-work of the roofs covered with them requires to be stronger.

Roofing slates are of different sizes, and are denominated Imperials, Queens, Princesses, &c. Their prices, supposing their quality to be in other respects equal, depends partly on their size and partly on their weight. The subjoined account explains the mode in which it is determined.

Account of the Prices of the different Sorts of Slate on Shipboard at Bangor, in January, 1836.

	£. d.	
Imperials, 20, 24, 27, and 30 inches long, and various breadths	80 0	per ton.
Queens, 27, 30, 33, and 36 inches long, and proportionate breadths, assorted	41 0	—
Queens, 30 and 36 inches	48 0	—
Princesses, 24 by 14 inches	41 0	—
Ta-dies or rags	31 6	—
Doubles, 24 in. by 12, weighing per m. 66 cwt. of 112 lbs.	140 0	per m.
Countesses, 20 in. by 10, weighing 44 do.	90 0	—
Ladies, 16 — 8, — 27 do.	40 0	—
Duchess, 13 — 6 1-2, — 16 do.	18 0	—
Duchess, 11 — 5 1-2, — 13 do.	7 6	—
Ditto ditto, 11 to 15 by 6 to 15 in. 22 do.	13 6	—
Inferiors.		
Doubles, 24 in. by 12, weighing 66 cwt.	110 0	per m.
Countesses, 20 — 10, — 45 —	68 0	—
Ladies, 16 — 8, — 36 —	27 6	—
Duchess 13 — 6 1-2 — 22 —	13 6	—

of 1,200 slates.

	£.	
Slabs, sawn, per ton of 147 ft. superficial, in. thick,	60	per ton.
Do. if under 2 feet long, or 1 ft. 6 in. wide	70	—
Grave stones, not less than 6 ft. by 3 ft. 3 1-2 in. thick,	45	—
Ender blocks or slabs, sawn at the ends only	55	—
Unsawn do.	45	—

Shipping expenses, 6d. per ton; bills of lading, 3s. 6d.

An allowance made for breakage of 1 cwt. over in every ton, and 60 slates over in every 1,200.

	£.	
No. 1. plain jambs, mantel and turned blocking, with plain edge shelf	10	each.
2. moulded jambs, mantel with turned blocking, with plain edge shelf	18	—
3. moulded jambs, &c. with head mould	21	—
4. Grecian fret jambs and mantel	30	—
5. moulded truss jambs and mantel	30	—
6. panelled jambs and mantel	30	—
Cisterns, with sides and ends, inch thick, 1s. 10d.	per foot cubic contents.	
Do. do. 1 1-2 in. thick, 2s. 2d.		

The subjoined account shows a very material increase in the quantity of slates exported.

An Account of the Quantities of Slate exported from England to Foreign Parts in each of the Five Years ending with 1832.

Years.	Slate or Slates, rough.		Slates in Frames.	Years.	Slate or Slates, rough.		Slates in Frames.
	Tons.	*Number.*	*Number.*		*Tons.*	*Number.*	*Number.*
1828	2,741	3,250,929	37,034	1831	4,799	4,257,494	18,372
1829	3,925	4,768,953	32,105	1832	6,001	1,859,263	15,490
1830	2,536	3,099,594	35,160				

(Slate and chalk laden on board any ship or vessel bound for foreign parts shall be deemed ballast; and all such ships or vessels having on board only slate, or slate and chalk, shall be deemed to be departing in ballast; and if, on the return of any such ship or vessel, any slates or chalk be remaining on board, they shall be deemed to be her ballast.—(4 & 5 *Will.* 4. c. 89. § 3.)

New Uses of Slate.—Slate is now generally used in framing the tops of billiard tables. The size of each slate is 6 feet 1½ inch by 3 feet, and 1 inch thick; 4 of these make a table top, 12 feet by 6 feet clear of the cushions. The first slate billiard table was made in 1834, and 500 have been made in London down to December, 1836, many of which have been exported to the East Indies and America: the price of each table top is about 13*l.*

Slate is likely to be largely consumed in the shape of blocks for railways; a piece of slate 2½ inches thick being found to be as strong as a piece of stone 1 foot thick. A piece of slate 2 feet 6 inches by 2 feet and 2 inches thick, bore the pressure of 20 tons, and broke with 25 tons; and a piece of the same length and breadth, but 2½ inches thick, bore 35 tons, and broke with 40 tons. The experiments were made by placing the slate blocks against a bearing of 3 inches at each end, leaving a clear hollow space of 2 feet between the bearings, and applying the piston of a hydrostatic press, 0½ inches diameter, to the centre.—(Sup.)

SLAVES AND SLAVE TRADE. A slave, in the ordinary sense of the term, is an individual at the absolute disposal of another, who has a right to employ and treat him as he pleases. But the state of slavery is susceptible of innumerable modifications; and it has been usual, in most countries where it has been long established, to limit in various ways the power of the master over the slave. The *slave trade* is, of course, the business of those who deal in slaves.

Origin of Slavery.—A great deal of learning has been employed in tracing the history of slavery, though the subject is still far from being exhausted. It seems most probable that it originally grew out of a state of war. In rude uncivilised communities, where the passion of revenge acquires a strength unknown in more advanced states of society, captives taken in war are adjudged to belong to the victors, who may either put them to the sword, or reduce them to a state of servitude. In antiquity the ideas of war and slavery were inseparable. Probably, in very remote ages, prisoners were most commonly put to death; but the selfish gradually predominated over the more passionate feelings, and for many ages it was usual to reduce them to the condition of slaves; being either sold by their captors to others, or employed by them as they might think fit. "*Jure gentium*," says Justinian, "*servi nostri sunt, qui ab hostibus capiuntur.*"—(*Instit.* lib. i. 3.)

The practice of reducing men to a state of slavery, having once begun, was extended in various ways. The progeny of slaves, or of women in a state of slavery, were slaves; men born free might sell themselves as slaves; and parents had authority, in Judea and Rome, to dispose of their children for the same purpose.—(*Michaelis on the Laws of Moses*, vol. ii. p. 163. Eng. ed.) It was the law of Rome, and of most other ancient states, that the persons of debtors who had contracted obligations which they could not discharge, should become the property of their creditors.

Treatment of Slaves.—The treatment of slaves in antiquity, as in more modern times, differed very widely in different countries and periods, and among different classes of slaves in the same country and at the same time. A great deal also depended on the character of particular masters. Slaves bred up in the house or family of the masters were uniformly treated with greater indulgence than others, and became entitled, by custom, to several important privileges. At Athens, slaves appear to have been better treated than in any other ancient state; and Demosthenes mentions, in his second Philippic, that "a slave was better off at Athens than a free citizen in many other countries." In republican Rome, the masters had the power of life and death over their slaves, who were often treated with the most detestable barbarity. It was not an uncommon practice to expose old, useless, or sick slaves to starve in an island in the Tiber! We may, as Mr. Hume has justly remarked, "imagine what others would practise, when it was the professed maxim of the elder Cato, to sell his superannuated slaves at any price, rather than maintain what he esteemed a useless burden."—(*Plutarch, in Vitâ Catonis.*) *Ergastula*, or dungeons, where slaves were confined and chained at night, and where they were sometimes made to work in the day, were common all over Italy. Columella advises that they be always built under ground—(lib. i. c. 6.); and remains of them are still seen in the lower stories of ancient buildings in Italy and Sicily. Hundreds of slaves were sometimes put to death for the crime of one only; and they were exposed, when they committed any petty fault, to all the violence of the most capricious and unrestrained despotism.

It was not uncommon in the barbarous ages to immolate captives on the tomb of such chiefs as had fallen in battle; and magnificent games were celebrated on these occasions.* The gladiatorial exhibitions, so common at Rome after the Punic wars, seem to have grown out of this practice. These were contests between slaves, denominated gladiators, trained to fight in public for the amusement of a ferocious populace, who took the greatest delight in their sanguinary combats. Thousands of unfortunate wretches were annually sacrificed in this inhuman sport. After his triumph over the Dacians, Trajan exhibited spectacles, in which no fewer than 11,000 wild beasts of different kinds were killed, and 10,000 gladiators fought!—(*Adam's Roman Antiquities*, p. 317.)

The cruelties inflicted on the slaves occasioned frequent revolts, attended by the most dreadful excesses. Spartacus, a Thracian captive, destined for the profession of a gladiator, headed a rebellion of gladiators and slaves, which continued for 3 years, and required all the force of the republic to suppress. When finally defeated by Crassus, about 6,000 of his followers were nailed to the cross, in double rows, that extended almost from Capua to Rome.—(*Ferguson, Rom. Republic*, c. 16.) No one acquainted with the manners of the Romans can be surprised at the atrocities of so many of the emperors. The worst of them treated the citizens better than the latter treated the slaves. Humanity could not be looked for in the rulers of a state in which human life was held in contempt, and human suffering made the subject of popular sport.

In consequence partly of their ill usage, and partly of its being accounted cheaper to buy than to breed slaves, vast numbers were annually imported into Italy. Thrace, and the countries round the Black Sea furnished large supplies of the best slaves; and numbers were obtained from Egypt, Syria, Cappadocia, and other places. Delus in Cilicia was the greatest slave market of antiquity; as many as 10,000 slaves have been sold there in a single day.—(*Strabo*, lib. xiv.)

Besides its brutalising influence on the manners of the people, the institution of slavery was in other respects productive of the worst effects. The best Roman writers bear testimony to the negligence, waste, and bad conduct of slaves.—(*Columella*, lib. i. § 8.; *Plin Hist. Nat.* lib. xvii. § 3.) The inferiority of the ancients in most of the useful arts is principally to be ascribed to the prevalence of slavery, which not only extinguished all emulation and invention on the part of most of those engaged in industrious employments, but made the employments be considered in some measure disgraceful. In the ancient world agriculture and arms were the only occupations that were reckoned worthy of a freeman. The mechanical arts were carried on either wholly by slaves, or by the very dregs of the people; and remained for ages in the same stationary state.

The establishment of Christianity contributed more, perhaps, than any thing else, first to mitigate, and finally to suppress the abomination of slavery. But within no very long period after its abolition had been completely effected in every part of Europe, its horrors began to be inflicted on America.

* Achilles sacrificed 12 Trojan captives on the tomb of Patroclus.—(*Iliad*, lib. 23.)

African Slave Trade.—This infamous traffic was commenced by the Portuguese, in 1442. The trade, however, was but of trifling extent till the commencement of the sixteenth century. In consequence, however, of the rapid destruction of the Indians employed in the mines of St. Domingo or Hayti, Charles V. authorised, in 1517, the introduction into the island, of African slaves from the establishments of the Portuguese on the coast of Guinea. The concurrence of the emperor was obtained by the intercession of the celebrated Las Casas, bishop of Chiapa, who, contradictorily enough, laboured to protect the Indians by enslaving the Africans. The latter were certainly more vigorous and capable of bearing fatigue than the former. But this circumstance affords no real justification of the measure, which, at best, was nothing more than the substitution of one species of crime and misery in the place of another.—(*Robertson's Hist. America*, book iii.)

The importation of negroes into the West Indies and America, having once begun, gradually increased, until the extent and importance of the traffic rivalled its cruelty and guilt. Sir John Hawkins was the first Englishman who engaged in it: and such was the ardour with which our countrymen followed his example, that they exported from Africa more than 300,000 slaves between the years 1680 and 1700; and between 1700 and 1786, 610,000 Africans were imported into Jamaica only; to which adding the imports into the other islands and the continental colonies, and those who died on their passage, the number carried from Africa will appear immense.—(*Bryan Edwards, Hist. West Indies*, vol. ii. p. 44.) The importations by other nations, particularly the French and Portuguese, were also very great.

It is not easy to say whether this traffic has been more injurious to Africa or America. In the former it has perpetuated and multiplied every sort of enormity and abuse. The petty princes have been tempted to make war on each other, that they might obtain captives to sell to the European traders; and when these could not be found, have seized and sold their own subjects. Many, too, have been kidnapped by the crews of the slave ships, nor is there any sort of crime known among pirates and banditti, which, for more than 3 centuries, the civilized inhabitants of Europe have not perpetrated upon the unoffending natives of Central Africa. In the West Indies, and those parts of America into which slaves have been largely imported, its effect has been equally disastrous. It has led to the most violent antipathy between the whites and the blacks; and been the fruitful source of crimes, convulsions, and disorders, of which it is difficult to see the termination.—(There are some good remarks on slavery as it exists in America, and on the multiplied evils of which it is productive, in a volume entitled "Excursion of an English Gentleman through the United States and Canada," published in 1824.)

It would be to no purpose to enter into any examination of the sophisms by which it was formerly attempted to justify the slave trade. We shall not undertake to pronounce any opinion upon the question as to the inferiority of the blacks; though it does not appear to us that the statements of Mr. Jefferson on this subject, in his "Notes on Virginia," and similar statements made by others, have received any sufficient answer. But supposing the inferiority of the negroes were established beyond all question, that would be no justification of the infamous cruelties inflicted upon them. Did any one ever think of vindicating a robber, because he happened to be stronger or cleverer than his victim?

Abolition of the Slave Trade.—Notwithstanding the sanction it received from parliament, and the supineness of the public, the slave trade was frequently denounced by distinguished individuals, in this and other countries, as essentially cruel and unjust. Of these, Montesquieu is, perhaps, the most conspicuous. He successfully exposed the futility of the different pleas put forth by the advocates of slavery.—(*Esprit des Loix*, liv. xv.); and the extensive circulation of his great work, and the deference paid to the doctrines advanced in it, contributed powerfully to awaken the public to a just sense of the iniquity of the traffic. The Quakers early distinguished themselves by their hostility to the trade; of which they were always the consistent and uncompromising enemies.

The first motion on the subject in parliament was made in 1776; but without success. The subject was not taken up systematically till 1787, when a committee was formed, of which Mr. Granville Sharp and Mr. Clarkson, whose names are imperishably associated with the history of the abolition of the slave trade, were members. This committee collected evidence in proof of the enormities produced by the trade, procured its circulation throughout the country, and succeeded in making a very great impression on the public mind. After a number of witnesses on both sides had been examined before the privy council, Mr. Wilberforce, on the 12th of May, 1789, moved a series of resolutions condemnatory of the traffic. They were supported by Mr. Burke in one of his best speeches; and by Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox. But, notwithstanding the resolutions were carried, nothing was done to give them effect. The friends of the trade having obtained leave to produce evidence at the bar of the house, contrived to interpose so many delays that the session passed off without any thing being done. In the following sessions the great struggle was continued with various success, but without any definite result. At length the triumph of humanity and justice was finally consummated in 1807; a bill for the total and immediate abolition of the slave trade, having

been carried in both houses by immense majorities, received the royal assent on the 25th of March, being the last act of the administration of Mr. Fox and Lord Grenville. "Thus ended," says Mr. Clarkson, "one of the most glorious contests, after a continuance of 20 years, of any ever carried on in any age or country: a contest, not of brutal violence, but of reason; a contest between those who felt deeply for the happiness and the honour of their fellow creatures, and those who, through vicious custom, and the impulse of avarice, had trampled under foot the sacred rights of their nature, and had even attempted to efface all title of the divine image from their minds."

America abolished the slave trade at the same time as England.

But notwithstanding what had been done, further measures were soon discovered to be necessary. The Spaniards and the Portuguese continued to carry on the trade to a greater extent than ever; and British subjects did not hesitate, under cover of their flags, to become partners in their adventures. An effectual stop was put to this practice in 1811, by the enactment of a law introduced by Mr. (now Lord) Brougham, that made trading in slaves punishable by transportation for 14 years, or by confinement to hard labour for a term of not more than 5 years nor less than 3 years.

The British laws relative to the slave trade were consolidated by the act 5 Geo. 4. c. 113. But, as the greater part of this act has been superseded by the late statute for the extinction of slavery (3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 73.), we shall merely lay before our readers the clauses still in force relating to the dealing in slaves.

Dealing in Slaves in the High Seas, &c. to be deemed Piracy.—And if any subject or subjects of his Majesty, or any person or persons residing or being within any of the dominions, forts, settlements, factories, or territories, now or hereafter belonging to his Majesty, or being in his Majesty's occupation or possession, or under the government of the United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies, shall, except in such cases as are by this act permitted, after the 1st day of January, 1825, upon the high seas, or in any haven, river, creek, or place, where the admiral has jurisdiction, knowingly and wilfully carry away, convey, or remove, or aid or assist in carrying away, conveying, or removing, any person or persons as a slave or slaves, or for the purpose of his, her, or their being imported or brought as a slave or slaves into any island, colony, country, territory, or place whatsoever, or for the purpose of his, her, or their being sold, transferred, used or dealt with as a slave or slaves; or shall, after the said 1st day of January, 1825, except in such cases as are by this act permitted, upon the high seas, or within the jurisdiction aforesaid, knowingly and wilfully ship, embark, receive, detain, or confine, or assist in shipping, embarking, receiving, detaining, or confining, on board any ship, vessel, or boat, any person or persons for the purpose of his, her, or their being carried away, conveyed, or removed as a slave or slaves, or for the purpose of his, her, or their being imported, or brought as a slave or slaves into any island, colony, country, territory, or place whatsoever, or for the purpose of his, her, or their being sold, transferred, used, or dealt with as a slave or slaves; then, and in every such case the *persons so offending shall be deemed and adjudged guilty of piracy*, felony and robbery, *and being convicted thereof shall suffer death without benefit of clergy*,—and loss of lands, goods, and chattels, as pirates, felons, and robbers upon the seas ought to suffer.—§ 9.

Persons dealing in Slaves, or exporting or importing Slaves, &c. guilty of Felony.—And (except in such special cases as are by this act permitted) if any persons shall deal or trade in, purchase, sell, barter, or transfer, or contract for the dealing or trading in, purchase, sale, barter, or transfer of slaves, or persons intended to be dealt with as slaves; or shall, otherwise than as aforesaid, carry away or remove, or contract for the carrying away or removing of slaves or other persons, as or in order to their being dealt with as slaves; or shall import or bring, or contract for the importing or bringing into any place whatsoever, slaves, or other persons, as or in order to their being dealt with as slaves; or shall, otherwise than as aforesaid, ship, tranship, embark, receive, detain, or confine on board, or contract for the shipping, transhipping, embarking, receiving, detaining, or confining on board of any ship, vessel, or boat, slaves or other persons, for the purpose of their being carried away or removed, as or in order to their being dealt with as slaves; or shall ship, tranship, embark, receive, detain, or confine on board, or contract for the shipping, transhipping, embarking, receiving, detaining, or confining on board of any ship, vessel, or boat, slaves or other persons, for the purpose of their being imported or brought into any place whatsoever, as or in order to their being dealt with as slaves; or shall fit out, man, navigate, equip, despatch, use, employ, let or take to freight or on hire, or contract for the fitting out, manning, navigating, equipping, despatching, using, employing, letting, or taking to freight or on hire, any ship, vessel, or boat, in order to accomplish any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall knowingly and wilfully lend or advance, or become security for the loan or advance, or contract for the lending or advancing, or becoming security for the loan or advance of money, goods, or effects, employed or to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall knowingly and wilfully become guarantee or security, or contract for the becoming guarantee or security, for agents employed or to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful, or in any other manner to engage, or contract to engage, directly or indirectly therein, as a partner, agent, or otherwise; or shall knowingly and wilfully ship, tranship, lade, or receive or put on board, or contract for the shipping, transhipping, lading, receiving, or putting on board of any ship, vessel, or boat, money, goods or effects, to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall take the charge or command, or navigate, or enter and embark on board, or contract for the taking the charge or command, or for the navigating or entering and embarking on board of any ship, vessel, or boat, as captain, master, mate, surgeon, or supercargo, knowing that such ship, vessel, or boat, is actually employed, or is in the same voyage, or upon the same occasion, in respect of which they shall so take the charge or command, or navigate, or enter and embark, or contract so to do as aforesaid, intended to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall knowingly and wilfully insure, or contract for the insuring of any slaves, or any property or other subject matter engaged or employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; or shall wilfully and fraudulently forge or counterfeit any certificate, certificate of valuation, sentence, or decree of condemnation or restitution, copy of sentence or decree of condemnation or restitution, or any receipt (such receipts being required by this act), or any part of such certificate, certificate of valuation, sentence or decree of condemnation or restitution

copy of sentence or decree of condemnation or restitution, or receipt as aforesaid; or shall knowingly and wilfully utter or publish the same, knowing it to be forged or counterfeited, with intent to defraud his Majesty, or any other person or persons whatsoever, or any body politic or corporate; then, and in every such case the persons so offending, and their procurers, counsellors, aiders, and abettors, *shall be felons, and shall be transported* for a term not exceeding 14 years, or shall be confined and kept to hard labour for a term not exceeding 5 nor less than 3 years, at the discretion of the court before whom such offenders shall be tried.—§ 10.

Seamen, &c. serving on Board such Ships guilty of Misdemeanour.—And (except in such special cases, or for such special purposes as are by this act permitted) if any persons shall enter and embark on board, or contract for the entering and embarking on board of any ship, vessel, or boat, as petty officer, seaman, marine, or seryant, or in any other capacity not herein-before specifically mentioned, knowing that such ship, vessel, or boat is actually employed, or is in the same voyage, or upon the same occasion, in respect of which they shall so enter and embark on board, or contract so to do as aforesaid, intended to be employed in accomplishing any of the objects, or the contracts in relation to the objects, which objects and contracts have herein-before been declared unlawful; then, and in every such case, the persons so offending, and their procurers, counsellors, aiders, and abettors, shall be guilty of a misdemeanour only, and shall be punished by imprisonment for a term not exceeding 2 years.—§ 11.

Abolition of Slavery.—We have already alluded (vol. i. p. 413.) to the ever memorable act of 1833, for th ABOLITION OF SLAVERY throughout the British colonies. In enacting this celebrated statute, parliament endeavoured, and, we think, successfully, to reconcile the apparently conflicting claims of humanity and justice, by providing for the emancipation of the slaves, without prejudice to the just rights and claims of their proprietors. This was effected by assigning to the latter the sum of *twenty millions* sterling, which is to be distributed amongst them on their complying with the provisions of the act. This is the greatest sacrifice ever voluntarily made by any nation in vindication of the right of property. But it was not too great for the object in view; for had that right been violated in this instance, a precedent would have been set for its violation in others, and the consequences would have been most disastrous. The measure, in fact, reflects quite as much credit on the wisdom and honesty, as on the generosity, of the British nation.

We subjoin a full abstract of such parts of this important statute as seem to be of general interest.

Act 3 & 4 WILL. 4. c. 73., FOR THE ABOLITION OF SLAVERY THROUGHOUT THE BRITISH COLONIES; for promoting the Industry of the manumitted Slaves; and for compensating the Persons hitherto entitled to the Services of such Slaves.

Slaves to become apprenticed Labourers from 1st of August, 1834.—After reciting, that it is expedient that the slaves in the British colonies should be manumitted and set free on compensation being made to those entitled to their services, the act goes on to declare, that from and after the 1st day of August, 1834, all persons who, in conformity with the laws now in force in the said colonies, shall, on or before the 1st day of August, 1834, have been duly registered as slaves in any such colony, and who, on the said 1st day of August, 1834, shall be actually within any such colony, and who shall by such registries appear to be, on the said 1st day of August, 1834, of the full age of 6 years or upwards, shall by force and virtue of this act, and without the previous execution of any indenture of apprenticeship, or other deed or instrument for that purpose, become and be apprenticed labourers; provided that, for the purposes aforesaid, every slave engaged in his ordinary occupation on the seas shall be deemed and taken to be within the colony to which such slave shall belong.—§ 1.

Who entitled to Services of the Slave.—During the continuance of the apprenticeship of any such labourer, such person or persons shall be entitled to the services of such labourer as would for the time being have been entitled to his or her services as a slave if this act had not been made.—§ 2.

All Slaves brought into U. K. with Consent of Possessors, free.—All slaves who may at any time previous to the passing of this act have been brought with the consent of their possessors, and all apprenticed labourers who may hereafter with the like consent be brought, into any part of the United Kingdom, shall from and after the passing of this act be absolutely and entirely free to all intents and purposes whatsoever.—§ 3.

Apprenticed Labourers to be divided into prædial attached, prædial unattached, and non-prædial.—And whereas it is expedient that such apprenticed labourers should, for the purposes herein-after mentioned, be divided into 3 distinct classes; the first consisting of prædial apprenticed labourers attached to the soil, and comprising all persons who in their state of slavery were usually employed in agriculture, or in the manufacture of colonial produce or otherwise, upon lands belonging to their owners; the second consisting of prædial apprenticed labourers not attached to the soil, and comprising all persons who in their state of slavery were usually employed in agriculture, or in the manufacture of colonial produce or otherwise, upon lands not belonging to their owners; and the third consisting of non-prædial apprenticed labourers, and comprising all apprenticed labourers not included within either of the 2 preceding classes; be it therefore enacted, that such division shall be carried into effect in such manner and form, and subject to such rules and regulations, as shall for that purpose be established by such acts of assembly, ordinances, or orders in council as are herein-after mentioned: provided always, that no person of the age of 12 years and upwards shall be included in either of the said 2 classes of prædial apprenticed labourers, unless such person shall for 12 calendar months at the least next before the passing of this act have been habitually employed in agriculture or in the manufacture of colonial produce.—§ 4.

Apprenticeship of the prædial Labourers limited.—No person who, by virtue of this act, or of any act of assembly, ordinance, or order in council, shall become a prædial apprenticed labourer, whether attached or not to the soil, shall continue in such apprenticeship beyond the 1st day of August, 1840; and during such apprenticeship, no such prædial apprenticed labourer shall be bound or liable to perform any labour in the service of his or her employer or employers for more than 45 hours in one week.—§ 5.

Apprenticeship of the non-prædial Labourers.—No person who, by virtue of this act, or of any act of assembly, ordinance, or order in council, shall become a non-prædial apprenticed labourer, shall continue in such apprenticeship beyond the 1st day of August, 1838.—§ 6.

Labourer may be discharged by his Employer.—If before such apprenticeship shall have expired, the person or persons entitled during the remainder of any such term to the services of such apprenticed labourer shall be desirous to discharge him or her from such apprenticeship, it shall be lawful for such person or persons so to do by deed or instrument; which deed or instrument shall be in such form, and shall be executed and recorded in such manner and with such solemnities, as shall be prescribed under authority: provided that, if any person so discharged from apprenticeship by voluntary act as

aforesaid shall at that time be of the age of 50 years or upwards, or shall be then labouring under any such disease or mental or bodily infirmity as may render him or her incapable of earning his or her subsistence, the person or persons so discharging such apprenticed labourer shall continue and be liable to provide for his or her support and maintenance during the remaining term of the apprenticeship, as fully as if such labourer had not been discharged.—§ 7.

Apprenticed Labourer may purchase his Discharge.—It shall be lawful for any apprenticed labourer to purchase his or her discharge from such apprenticeship, even without the consent, or in opposition, if necessary, to the will of the person or persons entitled to his or her services, upon payment to such person or persons of the appraised value of such services; the appraisement being effected, the purchase money being paid and applied, and the discharge being given and executed, in such manner and form, and subject to such conditions, as shall be prescribed by competent authority.—§ 8.

Apprenticed Labourers not removable from the Colony.—No apprenticed labourer shall be subject or liable to be removed from the colony to which he may belong; and no prædial apprenticed labourer who may become attached to the soil shall be subject or liable to perform any labour in the service of his or her employer or employers except upon the works and business of the plantations or estates to which he or she had been attached, or on which he or she had been usually employed previously to the said 1st day of August, 1834; provided that, with the consent in writing of any 2 or more justices of peace holding such special commission as herein-after mentioned, it shall be lawful for those entitled to the services of any prædial apprenticed labourer or labourers to transfer his or their services to any other estate or plantation within the same colony belonging to them; which written consent shall in no case be given, or be of any validity, unless such justices of the peace shall first have ascertained that such transfer would not separate any such apprenticed labourer from his or her wife or husband, parent or child, or from any one reputed to bear such relation to him or her, and that such transfer would not probably be injurious to the health or welfare of such labourer; and such written consent to such removal shall be expressed in such terms, and be in each case given, attested, and recorded in the manner prescribed for that purpose.—§ 9.

Right to the Services of apprenticed Labourers to be transferable.—The right or interest of any employer or employers to the services of any apprenticed labourers shall be transferable by bargain and sale, contract, deed, &c., according to such rules and in such manner as shall for that purpose be provided as herein-after mentioned; provided that no apprenticed labourer shall, by virtue of any such bargain, sale, &c., be subject to separation from his or her wife or husband, parent or child, or from any one reputed to bear such relation to him or her.—§ 10.

Employer to supply the Labourer with Food, &c.—During the continuance of such apprenticeship, the person or persons entitled to the services of every apprenticed labourer shall be and is required to supply him or her with such food, clothing, lodging, medicine, medical attendance, and such other maintenance and allowance as, by any law now in force in the colony to which such apprenticed labourer may belong, an owner is required to supply to any slave of the age and sex as such apprenticed labourer; and in cases in which the food of such apprenticed labourer shall be supplied, not by the delivery to him or her of provisions, but by the cultivation by such labourer of ground set apart for the growth of provisions, those entitled to his or her services shall and are required to provide such apprenticed labourer with ground adequate, both in quantity and quality, for his or her support, and within a reasonable distance of his or her usual place of abode, and to allow such labourer, from and out of the time during which he or she may be required to labour, after the rate of 45 hours per week, in the service of his or her employers, such a portion of time as shall be adequate for the proper cultivation of such ground, and for the raising and securing the crops thereon grown; the actual extent of which ground, and the distance thereof from the place of residence of the apprenticed labourer for whose use it is allotted, and the length of time to be deducted for the cultivation of the said ground from the said annual time, shall, in each of the colonies aforesaid, be regulated as herein-after mentioned.—§ 11.

All Slaves in the British Colonies emancipated from the 1st of August, 1834.—Subject to the obligations imposed by this act, or to be imposed by any act of general assembly, ordinance, or order in council as herein-after mentioned, upon such apprenticed labourers, *all and every the persons who, on the* 1st *day of August,* 1834, *shall be holden in slavery within any British colony, shall, from and after the said* 1st *day of August,* 1834, *become and be to all intents and purposes free and discharged of and from all manner of slavery, and shall be absolutely and for ever manumitted; and the children thereafter to be born to any such persons, and the offspring of such children, shall in like manner be free from their birth; and from and after the said* 1st *day of August,* 1834, *slavery shall be and is hereby utterly and for ever abolished and declared unlawful throughout the British colonies, plantations, and possessions abroad.*—§ 12.

Children may be apprenticed.—Whereas it may happen that children who have not attained the age of 6 years on the 1st of August, 1834, or that children who after that day may be born to female apprenticed labourers, may not be properly supported by their parents, and that no other person may be disposed voluntarily to undertake their support, and it is necessary that provision should be made for the maintenance of such children; be it enacted, that if any child who, on the 1st of August, 1834, had not completed his or her 6th year, or if any child to which any female apprenticed labourer may give birth on or after the said 1st of August, 1834, shall be brought before any justice of the peace holding such special commission as herein-after mentioned, and if it be made to appear to the satisfaction of such justice that such child is unprovided with adequate maintenance, and that such child hath not completed his or her age of 12 years, it shall be lawful for such justice, and he is hereby required, to execute an indenture of apprenticeship, binding such child as an apprenticed labourer to the person or persons entitled to the services of its mother, or who had been last entitled to her services; but in case it be made to appear to such justice that such person or persons is or are unable or unfit to enter into such indenture, and properly to perform the conditions thereof, then such justice is required to bind such child to any other person or persons approved by him, who may be willing and able properly to perform such conditions; and every indenture of apprenticeship shall declare whether such child shall thenceforward belong to the class of attached prædial apprenticed labourers, or to the class of unattached prædial apprenticed labourers, or to the class of non-prædial apprenticed labourers; and the term of apprenticeship of such child shall be made to continue in force until such child shall have completed his or her 21st year, and no longer; and every child so apprenticed shall, during his or her apprenticeship, be subject to all rules and regulations respecting work or labour, and respecting food and other supplies, as any other apprenticed labourers: provided always, that the indenture of apprenticeship shall contain sufficient words of obligation upon the employer to allow reasonable time and opportunity for the education and religious instruction of such child.—§ 13.

His Majesty, or any Governor, may appoint Justices of the Peace.—This clause authorises his Majesty, or any governor of any colony, to appoint special justices of the peace for carrying this act into effect.—§ 14.

His Majesty may grant Salaries to special Justices.—This clause authorises his Majesty to grant salaries, not exceeding 300*l.* a year, to such special justices; providing that no person in the receipt of half-pay from his Majesty's land or naval forces shall forfeit or lose the same on being appointed a justice under this act. It also directs lists of such justices to be laid before parliament.—§ 15.

Recital of various Regulations necessary for giving Effect to this Act.—Whereas it is necessary that

various rules and regulations should be established for ascertaining, with reference to each apprenticed labourer, to what class he or she belongs, and for determining the manner in and the solemnities with which the voluntary discharge of any apprenticed labourer may be effected, and for prescribing the manner in and the solemnities with which the purchase by any apprenticed labourer of his or her discharge from such apprenticeship, without, or in opposition, if necessary, to, the consent of those entitled to his or her services, shall be effected, and how the necessary appraisement of the future value of such services shall be made, and how and to whom the amount of such appraisement shall be paid and applied, and in what manner and by whom the discharge shall be given, executed, and recorded: and it is also necessary, for the preservation of peace throughout the said colonies, that proper regulations should be established for the maintenance of order and good discipline amongst the said apprenticed labourers, and for insuring the punctual discharge of the services due by them to their employers, and for the prevention and punishment of indolence, or the neglect or improper performance of work by any apprenticed labourer, and for enforcing the due performance by such labourer of any contract into which he or she may voluntarily enter for any hired service during the time in which he or she may not be bound to labour for his or her employer, and for the prevention and punishment of insolence and insubordination on the part of such apprenticed labourers towards their employers, and for the prevention and punishment of vagrancy, or of any conduct on the part of any such apprenticed labourers injuring or tending to the injury of the property of any employer, and for the suppression and punishment of any riot or combined resistance of the laws on the part of such apprenticed labourers, and for preventing the escape of such apprenticed labourers, during their term of apprenticeship, from the colonies to which they may belong: and whereas it will also be necessary for the protection of such apprenticed labourers, that various regulations should be framed and established in the said colonies for securing punctuality and method in supplying them with food, clothing, lodging, medicines, medical attendance, and such other maintenance and allowances as they are entitled to receive, and for regulating the amount and quality of all such articles in cases where the laws at present existing may not have made any regulation or any adequate regulation for that purpose; and it is also necessary that proper rules should be established for the prevention and punishment of any frauds which might be practised, or of any omissions or neglects which might occur, respecting the quantity or the quality of the supplies so to be furnished, or respecting the periods for the delivery of the same: and whereas it is necessary, in those cases in which the food of any such prædial apprenticed labourers as aforesaid may either wholly or in part be raised by themselves by the cultivation of ground set apart and allotted for that purpose, that proper regulations should be made and established as to the extent of such grounds, and as to the distance at which such grounds may be so allotted from the ordinary place of abode of such prædial apprenticed labourers, and respecting the deductions to be made from the cultivation of such grounds from the annual time during which such prædial apprenticed labourers are declared liable to labour: and whereas it may also be necessary, by such regulations, to secure to apprenticed labourers the enjoyment for their own benefit of that portion of their time during which they are not required to labour in the service of their respective employers, and for securing exactness in the computation of the time during which such labourers are required to labour in the service of their employers; and it is also necessary that provision should be made for preventing the imposition of task-work on any apprenticed labourer without his or her free consent to undertake the same; but it may be necessary by such regulations in certain cases to require and provide for the acquiescence of the minority of the prædial apprenticed labourers attached to any plantation or estate in the distribution and apportionment amongst their whole body of any task-work which the majority of them shall be willing and desirous collectively to undertake; and it is also necessary that regulations should be made respecting any voluntary contracts into which any apprenticed labourers may enter with their respective employers or with any other person for hired service for any future period, and for limiting the greatest period of time to which such voluntary contract may extend, and for enforcing the punctual performance of such contracts on the part both of such labourers and of those engaging for their employment and hire; and it is also necessary that regulations should be made for the prevention or punishment of any cruelty, injustice, or other wrong or injury done to or inflicted upon any such apprenticed labourers by those entitled to their services; and it is also necessary that proper regulations should be made respecting the manner and form in which indentures of apprenticeship shall be made on behalf of children, and respecting the registering and preservation of such indentures: and whereas it is also necessary that provision should be made for insuring promptitude and despatch, and for preventing unnecessary expense, in the discharge by the justices of the peace of the jurisdiction and authorities committed to them, and for enabling such justices to decide in a summary way such questions as may be brought before them in that capacity, and for the division of the colonies into districts for the purposes of such jurisdiction, and for the frequent and punctual visitation by such justices of the apprenticed labourers within their respective districts; and it is also necessary that regulations should be made for indemnifying and protecting such justices of the peace in the upright execution and discharge of their duties: and whereas such regulations could not without great inconvenience be made except by the respective governors, councils, and assemblies, or other local legislatures of the said respective colonies, or by his Majesty, with the advice of his privy council, in reference to those colonies to which the legislative authority of his Majesty in council extends; be it therefore enacted and declared, that nothing in this act contained extends or shall be construed to extend to prevent the enactment by the respective governors, councils, and assemblies, or by such other local legislatures as aforesaid, or by his Majesty, with the advice of his privy council, of any such acts of general assembly, or ordinances, or orders in council as may be requisite for making and establishing such rules and regulations, or for carrying the same into full and complete effect: provided nevertheless, that it shall not be lawful for any such governor, council, and assembly, or for any local legislature, or for his Majesty in council, to make or establish any enactment, regulation, provision, rule, or order in anywise repugnant or contradictory to this present act, but that every such enactment, regulation, &c. shall be and is declared to be absolutely null and void.—§ 16.

Such Colonial Acts may not authorise the whipping or Punishment of the Labourer.—It shall not be lawful for any such governor, &c., or other colonial legislature, or for his Majesty in council, by any such act, ordinance, &c., to authorise any one entitled to the services of any apprenticed labourer, or any person or persons other than justices of the peace holding special commissions as aforesaid, to punish any apprenticed labourer for any offence committed or alleged to have been committed, by the whipping, beating, or imprisonment of his or her person, or by any other personal correction or punishment whatsoever, or by any addition to the hours of labour herein-before limited; nor to authorise any court, judge, or justice to punish any apprenticed labourer, being a female, for any offence by her committed, by whipping or beating her person; and that every enactment, regulation, &c. for any such purpose is hereby declared to be absolutely null and of no effect: provided always, that nothing in this act contained doth or shall extend to exempt any apprenticed labourer from the operation of any law or police regulation in force for the prevention or punishment of any offence, such law or police regulation being in force against and applicable to all persons of free condition.—§ 17.

The next 2 sections provide that none but special justices, holding commissions as aforesaid, shall act in execution of this act, or interfere between apprenticed labourers and their employers; but reserving to the supreme courts such powers in relation hereto as may now be vested in them.

Apprenticed Labourers not to be subject to Prolongation or Renewal of Apprenticeship.—No apprenticed labourer shall, by act of assembly, ordinance, or order in council, be rendered liable, in respect of any offence, or upon any pretext whatsoever, except as hereafter is mentioned, to any prolongation of his or her term of apprenticeship, or to any new or additional apprenticeship, or to any such additional labour as shall impose upon such apprenticed labourer the obligation of working in the service or for the benefit of those entitled to his or her services for more than 15 extra hours in the whole in any week, but every such enactment, regulation, provision, &c. shall be and is null and void and of no effect: provided nevertheless, that any act of assembly, ordinance, or order in council, may contain provisions for compelling any apprenticed labourer, who shall, during his or her apprenticeship, wilfully be absent from the service of his or her employer, either to serve such employer after the expiration of his or her apprenticeship for so long a time as he or she shall have so been absent from such service, or to make satisfaction to his or her employer for the loss sustained by such absence (except so far as he or she shall have made satisfaction for such absence, either out of such extra hours as aforesaid, or otherwise), but nevertheless so that such extra service or compensation shall not be compellable after the expiration of 7 years next after the termination of the apprenticeship of such apprentice.—§ 20.

Apprenticed Labourers not to be compelled to work on Sundays.—Neither under the provisions or obligations imposed by this act, or any act of general assembly, ordinance, or order in council, shall any apprenticed labourer be compelled to labour on Sundays, except in works of necessity, or in domestic services, or in the protection of property, or in tending of cattle, nor shall any apprenticed labourer be hindered from attending anywhere on Sundays for religious worship, at his or her free will or pleasure, but shall be at full liberty so to do without let, denial, or interruption whatsoever. —§ 21.

Nothing herein to interfere with certain Colonial Laws.—Nothing in this act extends or shall be construed to extend to interfere with or prevent the enactment by the governors, councils, and assemblies, or by such other local legislature of any colonies, or by his Majesty in council in reference to such colonies as are subject to the legislative authority of his Majesty in council, of any acts, ordinances, &c. for exempting any apprenticed labourers, during the continuance of their apprenticeship, from any civil or military service, or for disqualifying them during the continuance of any such apprenticeships from the enjoyment or discharge of any political franchise, or for exempting them during the continuance of such apprenticeships from being arrested or imprisoned for debt.—§ 22.

Acts passed by local Legislatures with similar but improved Enactments to this Act to supersede this Act. —In case the governor, council, and assembly of one or more colonies shall, by any act or acts of general assembly for that purpose, substitute for the several enactments herein contained, or any of them, any enactments accomplishing the several objects in such enactments respectively contemplated as fully and to the like effect, but in a manner and form better adapted to the local circumstances of such colonies or colony, and in case his Majesty shall, by any order in council, confirm and allow such act or acts of assembly, and shall in such order recite and set forth the provisions and enactments of this present act for which such other enactments shall have been substituted, then and in such case so much and such parts of this present act as shall be so recited and set forth in any such order in council shall be suspended and cease to be of any force in such colony from and after the arrival and proclamation therein of any such order or orders in council, and shall continue to be so suspended so long as any such substituted enactments shall continue in force, and no longer.—§ 23.

The Treasury may raise Loans, not exceeding 20,000,000*l.*—This section recites, that towards compensating the persons at present entitled to the services of the slaves to be manumitted and set free by virtue of this act for the loss of such services, the Commons of Great Britain and Ireland in parliament assembled have resolved to give and grant to his Majesty the sum of 20,000,000*l.* sterling. Authority is then given to raise such 20,000,000*l.*, and to grant annuities for the same. Directions are also given how the same is to be paid; and the interest and charges are made chargeable upon the consolidated fund.—§ § 24—32.

Commissioners to be appointed for distributing Compensation.—It shall be lawful for his Majesty from time to time, by a commission under the great seal, to constitute and appoint such persons, not being less than 5, as to his Majesty shall seem meet, to be commissioners of arbitration for inquiring into and deciding upon the claims to compensation which may be preferred to them under this act.—§ 33.

Sections 34. to 43. inclusive, regulate the appointment of, meetings, and manner of proceeding before, the commissioners.

No Part of Compensation to be applicable to any Colony unless his Majesty declare that adequate Provision has been made by the Legislature thereof.—No part of the said sum of 20,000,000*l.* sterling shall be applied for the benefit of any person now entitled to the services of any slave in any of the colonies, unless an order shall have been first made by his Majesty in council, declaring that adequate and satisfactory provision hath been made by law in such colony for giving effect to this present act by such further and supplementary enactments as aforesaid, nor unless a certified copy of such order in council shall have been transmitted to the commissioners of his Majesty's treasury for their guidance or information; and every such order shall be published 3 several times in the *London Gazette*, and shall be laid before both houses of parliament within 6 weeks next after the date thereof, if parliament shall be then in session, and if not, within 6 weeks from the next ensuing session.—§ 44.

The Commissioners to apportion the Compensation Fund.—The said commissioners shall proceed to apportion the said sum into 19 different shares, which shall be respectively assigned to the several British colonies or possessions, viz. the Bermuda Islands, the Bahama Islands, Jamaica, Honduras, the Virgin Islands, Antigua, Montserrat, Nevis, St. Christopher's, Dominica, Barbadoes, Grenada, St. Vincent's, Tobago, St. Lucia, Trinidad, British Guiana, the Cape of Good Hope, and Mauritius; and in making such apportionment of the said funds among the several colonies, the commissioners shall and are required to have regard to the number of slaves belonging to or settled in each of such colonies, as the same may appear and are stated according to the latest returns made in the office of the registrar of slaves in England, appointed under the authority of the act 59 Geo. 3. c. 120., intituled "An Act for establishing a Registry of Colonial Slaves in Great Britain, and for making further Provision with respect to the Removal of Slaves from British Colonies;" and the said commissioners are further required, in making such apportionment, to have regard to the prices for which, on an average of 5 years ending the 31st day of December, 1830, slaves have been sold in each colony, excluding from consideration any sales in which they shall have sufficient reason to suppose that slaves were sold or purchased under any reservation, or subject to any express or tacit condition affecting their price and the said commissioners shall then proceed to ascertain, in reference to each colony, what amount of sterling money will represent the average value of a slave therein for the said period of 5 years; and the total number of the slaves in each colony being multiplied into the amount of sterling money so representing such average value of a slave therein, the product of such multiplication shall be ascertained for each colony separately; and the said 20,000,000*l.* sterling shall then be assigned to and apportioned amongst the said several colonies rateably and in proportion to the product so ascertained for each respectively.—§ 45.

No Compensation to be allowed for Persons illegally held in Slavery.—In case it shall appear that any persons in respect of whom claims for compensation shall have been made have been registered and

held in slavery in any colony mentioned in this act contrary to law, in every such case the commissioners shall deduct from the sum to be appropriated as compensation to the proprietors in such colony, such sums as shall correspond with the estimated value and number of the persons so illegally registered and held in slavery; and all such sum or sums which may be deducted as herein-before provided shall be applied towards defraying the general expenses of the commission: provided always, that for the purpose of ascertaining in what cases such deductions shall be made, every question arising in any colony respecting the servile condition of any persons registered as slaves shall be inquired of and determined by the commissioners to be appointed under this act, according to such rules of legal presumption and evidence as are or shall be established by any law in force or which shall be in force in any such colony.—§ 46.

Commissioners to institute Inquiries, &c.—It shall be the duty of said commissioners, and they are hereby required, to institute a full and exact inquiry into all the circumstances connected with each of the said several colonies which in their judgment ought, in justice and equity, to regulate or affect the apportionment within the same of that part of the general compensation fund which shall be assigned to each of the said colonies; and especially such commissioners shall have regard to the relative value of predial slaves and of unattached slaves in every such colony; and they shall distinguish such slaves, whether prædial or unattached, into as many distinct classes as, regard being had to the circumstances of each colony, shall appear just; and such commissioners shall, with all practicable precision, ascertain and fix the average value of a slave in each of the classes into which the slaves in any such colony shall be divided; and the commissioners shall also inquire and consider of the principles according to which the compensation to be allotted in respect to any slave or body of slaves ought, according to the rules of law and equity, to be distributed amongst persons who, as owners or creditors, legatees or assignees, may have any joint or common interest in any such slave or slaves, or may be entitled to or interested in such slave or slaves, either in possession, remainder, reversion, or expectancy; and the commissioners shall also inquire and consider of the principles and manner in which provision might be most effectually made for the protection of any interest in any such compensation money which may belong to or be vested in any married women, infants, lunatics, or persons of insane or unsound mind, or persons beyond the seas, or labouring under any other legal or natural disability or incapacity, and according to what rules, and in what manner, and under what authority, trustees should, when necessary, be appointed for the safe custody, for the benefit of any person or persons, of such compensation fund, or of any part thereof, and for regulating the duties of such trustees, and providing them with a fair and reasonable indemnity; and the commissioners shall also inquire and consider upon what principles, according to the established rules of law and equity in similar cases, the succession to such funds should be regulated upon the death of any person entitled thereto who may die intestate; and the commissioners are also required to consider of any other question which it may be necessary to investigate in order to establish just and equitable rules for the apportionment of such compensation money amongst the persons seised of, or entitled to, or having any mortgage, charge, incumbrance, judgment, or lien upon, or any claim to, or right or interest in, any slave or slaves to be manumitted as aforesaid, at the time of such their manumission; and having made all such inquiries, and having taken all such matters and things as aforesaid into their consideration, the said commissioners shall draw up and frame such general rules, regard being had to the laws and usages in force in each colony respectively, as to them may seem best adapted in each colony for securing the just and equitable distribution of the said funds amongst or for the benefit of the several persons aforesaid, and for the protection of such funds, and for the appointment and indemnification of such trustees as aforesaid; and such general rules, when framed, and agreed upon by the commissioners, shall be subscribed with their respective hands and seals, and transmitted to the president of council, to be laid before his Majesty; and so from time to time as often as any further general rules should be so framed and agreed to for the purposes aforesaid, or any of them.—§ 47.

Rules to be published in the London Gazette.—The general rules to be transmitted as aforesaid to the said Lord President shall be forthwith published in the *London Gazette* on 3 several occasions at least, together with a notice that all persons interested in or affected by them may, by a time to be in such notice limited, appeal against any such rules to his Majesty in council; and it shall be lawful for the Lords of his Majesty's privy council, or for any 3 or more of them, by any further notice or notices published in the *London Gazette*, to enlarge the time for receiving any such appeals.—§ 48.

Section 49. enacts that his Majesty in council may hear such appeals, and thereupon confirm or disallow any general rule so appealed against.

Section 50. enacts that, in absence of appeal, his Majesty in council may confirm, rescind, or amend such rules.

The remaining sections respect the enrolment of rules, and the proceedings under appeal to his Majesty in council; the mode in which sums awarded by the commissioners are to be paid, &c.

Foreign Slave Trade.—At the congress of Vienna, in 1814, the plenipotentiaries of the great powers agreed to a declaration that the slave trade was "repugnant to the principles of humanity and of universal morality; and that it was the earnest desire of their sovereigns to put an end to a scourge which had so long desolated Africa, degraded Europe, and afflicted humanity."

But notwithstanding this memorable declaration, the immediate abolition of the trade was not agreed to. France was allowed to continue it for *five* years. It is, besides, abundantly certain that, though the trade nominally ceased in 1819, it has since been clandestinely carried on to a great extent in French ships, if not with the connivance, at least without much opposition, on the part of the late government of France. There is now, however, reason to hope that it will be effectually suppressed; for according to a recent arrangement (Nov. 30, 1831) made with his Majesty Louis-Philippe, the right of search is reciprocally conceded, within certain limits, by the French and English; so that French ships suspected of being engaged in the trade may be stopped by British cruisers.

Considering the efforts Great Britain made in behalf of Spain and Portugal, and the influence she might have been supposed to have acquired with the restored monarchs of those countries, it may well excite astonishment that our negotiators (whether from the intractability of those with whom they had to deal, or from want of address and firmness on their parts, we leave it to others to decide) were unable to prevail on these powers to renounce the trade till after the lapse of a considerable period. They succeeded, indeed, in inducing them to exempt that portion of the African coast north of the Equator from their piratical attacks; and for this concession, and damages alleged to have been sustained by their slave

ships from our cruisers, Great Britain has paid them no less than 1,230,000*l.*!—(See SIERRA LEONE.)

The Spanish slave trade was to have finally ceased, according to the stipulations in the treaty between Spain and this country of the 5th of July and 28th of August, 1814, in 1820. But within these 2 years, and, perhaps, at this very moment, slave ships have been publicly fitted out from Cuba, and immense numbers of slaves have been imported into that island, with the open connivance of authorities. A mixed commission court, consisting of British and Spanish commissioners, has been established at Havannah, for the condemnation of vessels proved to have been engaged in the slave trade. But we are officially informed by Mr. Macleay, one of the commissioners, that since the establishment of the court no seizure of a slave vessel has ever taken place, but on the interference and denunciation of the British commissioners; and even then *such seizure has only been made, to be instantly followed by a perfect acquittal in the Spanish tribunals!*"—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 120. Sess. 1831, p. 53.)

Slaves were freely imported in immense numbers into Brazil, till February, 1830, when the trade was to cease, conformably to the convention entered into with this country on the 23d of June, 1826.—(See RIO DE JANEIRO.) But whether the clandestine and illegal, as well as the open and legitimate importation of slaves, be at an end, is more than we can undertake to say.

On the whole, we are afraid that nothing short of a declaration by the great powers, making the slave trade piracy, will be sufficient entirely to rid humanity of its guilt and horrors.

(*Distribution of Slave Compensation.*—The Commissioners for the apportionment of the sum of 20,000,000*l.* granted by parliament as compensation to slave owners, under the act 3 & 4 Will 4. cap. 73., have issued the following table. It shows the average value of a slave in each colony; the number of slaves in each by the last registration; the total value of the slaves, supposing the annual values of each were realised; and the proportion of the 20,000,000*l.* to which each colony is entitled.

Colony.	Average Value of a Slave from 1823 to 1830.	Number of Slaves by the last Registration in this Country.	Relative Value of the Slaves.	Proportion of the 20,000,000*l.* to which each Colony is entitled.
	L. *s.* *d.*		*L.* *s.* *d.*	*L.* *s.* *d.*
Bermuda	27 4 11 3-4	4,203	114,527 7 5 1-4	80,584 7 0 1-2 11
Bahamas	28 18 9 3-4	9,705	280,573 15 3 3-4	128,340 7 8 3-4 17
Jamaica	44 15 2 1-4	311,692	15,911,129 2 9	6,161,527 5 10 3-4 18
Honduras	190 4 7 1-2	1,920	230,344 0 0	101,398 19 7 1-2 02
Virgin Islands	31 16 1 3-4	5,199	165,148 9 2	72,940 8 1 1-4 02
Antigua	32 12 10 1-2	29,537	964,198 0 10 1-2	425,866 7 0 1-4 13
Montserrat	30 17 10 3-4	6,355	234,456 8 0 1-4	103,558 19 5 03
Nevis	29 3 11 3-4	8,722	341,993 6 3 1-2	151,007 2 11 3-4 05
St. Christopher's	36 6 10 3-4	20,660	750,840 7 1	331,580 19 7 1-4 12
Dominica	43 8 7 1-2	14,384	624,718 2 0	275,923 18 3 1-4 09
Barbadoes	47 1 8 1-2	82,807	3,897,276 19 0 1-2	1,721,345 19 7 57
Grenada	50 6 0	23,136	1,240,854 16 0	616,444 17 7 03
St. Vincent's	50 6 8	22,997	1,241,491 13 4	582,558 18 3 1-4 03
Tobago	45 12 0 1-2	11,621	529,941 16 2 1-2	234,764 4 11 3-4 05
St. Lucia	56 18 7	15,348	759,980 10 4	335,627 15 11 3-4 10
Trinidad	105 4 5 1-4	22,359	2,352,635 18 0 3-4	1,039,119 1 3 1 11
British Guiana	114 11 5 1-4	84,815	9,729,047 12 5 1-4	4,297,117 10 6 1-2 30
Cape of Good Hope	73 9 11	36,427	2,824,264 7 9	1,247,401 2 7 1-4 08
Mauritius	69 14 8	69,613	4,795,188 15 5	2,118,092 10 11 3-4 16
				Deficient fractions 03
		780,983	45,231,798 15 10 1-4	20,000,000 0 0

&c.)

[It was by an act of Congress, passed on the 2d of March, 1807, that the importation of slaves into the United States was prohibited, under severe penalties, after the 1st of January, 1808; this being the earliest day on which the prohibition was allowed, by the constitution of the general government, to take effect. By the act of the 20th of April, 1818, those penalties were increased, and the citizens of the United States were prohibited from being in any way concerned in the slave trade. On the 3d of March, 1819, the president was authorized to employ the armed vessels of the United States to enforce the acts of Congress prohibiting the slave trade; and all vessels unlawfully engaged in the transportation of negroes, mulattoes, or persons of colour, were rendered liable to seizure. At length, by the act of May 15th, 1820, entitled "An act to continue in force 'An act to protect the commerce of the United States and punish the crime of piracy,' and also to make further provision for punishing the crime of piracy," it was enacted,

That if any citizen of the United States, being of the crew or ship's company of any foreign ship or vessel engaged in the slave trade, or any person whatever, being of the crew or ship's company of any ship or vessel, owned in whole or in part, or navigated for, or in behalf of, any citizen or citizens of the United States, shall land, from any such ship or vessel, and, on any foreign shore, seize any negro or mulatto, not held to service or labour by the laws of either of the states or territories of the United States, with intent to make such negro or mulatto a slave, or shall decoy, or forcibly bring or carry, or shall receive, such negro or mulatto on board any such ship or vessel, with intent as aforesaid, such citizen or person shall be adjudged a pirate; and, on conviction thereof, before the circuit court of the United States for the district wherein he may be brought or found, shall suffer death.

And also,

That if any citizen of the United States, being of the crew or ship's company of any foreign ship or vessel engaged in the slave trade, or any person whatever, being of the crew or ship's company of any ship or vessel, owned wholly or in part, or navigated for, or in behalf of, any citizen or citizens of the Unit[illegible] States, shall forcibly confine or detain, or aid and abet in forcibly confining or detaining, on board such ship or vessel, any negro or mulatto not held to service by the laws of either of the states or territories of the United States, with intent to make such negro or mulatto a slave, or shall, on board any such ship or vessel, offer or attempt to sell, as a slave, any negro or mulatto not held to service as aforesaid, or shall, on the high seas, or any where on tide water, transfer or deliver over,

to any other ship or vessel, any negro or mulatto, not held to service as aforesaid, with intent to make such negro or mulatto a slave, or shall land, or deliver on shore, from on board any such ship or vessel, any such negro or mulatto, with intent to make sale of, or having previously sold, such negro or mulatto, as a slave, such citizen or person shall be adjudged a pirate; and, on conviction thereof, before the circuit court of the United States for the district wherein he shall be brought or found, shall suffer death.

See *Kent's Commentaries on American Law*, Lecture 9th, and *Gordon's Digest of the Laws of the United States*, Book 9th, Chapter 9th.—*Am. Ed.*]

SMALTZ, OR SMALT (Ger. *Schmalz*; Du. *Smalt*; Fr. *Smalt*; It. *Smalto azzurro, Smaltino*; Sp. *Esmalte, Azul azur*; Rus. *Lasor*), an oxide of cobalt, melted with siliceous earth and potash. It is a sort of glass, of a beautiful deep blue colour; and being ground very fine, is known by the name of powder blue. The colour of smaltz is not affected by fire; and it is consequently in great demand in the painting of earthenware. It is also employed in the colouring of paper, and for other purposes in the arts. Beckmann has proved that the process used in the preparation of smaltz was invented about the end of the 15th or the beginning of the 16th century; and that the blue glass of the ancients owes its colour, not to the presence of cobalt or of smaltz, but to that of iron.—(*Hist. of Inventions*, vol. ii. art. *Cobalt*.)

Smaltz is principally manufactured in Germany and Norway. Of 391,523 lbs. imported into Great Britain in 1831, 206,840 lbs. came from Norway, 160,705 from Germany, and 23,958 from the Netherlands. At an average of 1831 and 1832, the entries of smaltz for home consumption amounted to 33,468 lbs. a year. The duty on smaltz has recently been reduced from 6*d.* to 4*d.* per lb.

SMUGGLING, the offence of defrauding the revenue by the introduction of articles into consumption, without paying the duties chargeable upon them. It may be committed indifferently either upon the excise or customs revenue.

Origin and Prevention of Smuggling.—This crime, which occupies so prominent a place in the criminal legislation of all modern states, is wholly the result of vicious commercial and financial legislation. It is the fruit either of prohibitions of importation, or of oppressively high duties. It does not originate in any depravity inherent in man; but in the folly and ignorance of legislators. A prohibition against importing a commodity does not take away the taste for it; and the imposition of a high duty on any article occasions a universal desire to escape or evade its payment. Hence the rise and occupation of the smuggler. The risk of being detected in the clandestine introduction of commodities under any system of fiscal regulations may always be valued at a certain average rate; and wherever the duties exceed this rate, smuggling immediately takes place. Now, there are plainly but two ways of checking this practice,—either the temptation to smuggle must be diminished by lowering the duties, or the difficulties in the way of smuggling must be increased. The first is obviously the more natural and efficient method of effecting the object in view; but the second has been most generally resorted to, even in cases where the duties were quite excessive. Governments have uniformly almost consulted the persons employed in the collection of the revenue with respect to the best mode of rendering taxes effectual; though it is clear that the interests, prejudices, and peculiar habits of such persons utterly disqualify them from forming a sound opinion on such a subject. They cannot recommend a reduction of duties as a means of repressing smuggling and increasing revenue, without acknowledging their own incapacity to detect and defeat illicit practices; and the result has been, that, instead of ascribing the prevalence of smuggling to its true causes, the officers of customs and excise have almost universally ascribed it to some defect in the laws, or in the mode of administering them, and have proposed repressing it by new regulations, and by increasing the number and severity of the penalties affecting the smuggler. As might have been expected, these attempts have, in the great majority of cases, proved signally unsuccessful. And it has been invariably found, that no vigilance on the part of the revenue officers, and no severity of punishment, can prevent the smuggling of such commodities as are either prohibited or loaded with oppressive duties. The smuggler is generally a popular character; and whatever the law may declare on the subject, it is quite ludicrous to expect that the bulk of society will ever be brought to think that those who furnish them with cheap brandy, geneva, tobacco, &c. are guilty of any very heinous offence.

"To pretend," says Dr. Smith, "to have any scruple about buying smuggled goods, though a manifest encouragement to the violation of the revenue laws, and to the perjury which almost always attends it, would, in most countries, be regarded as one of those pedantic pieces of hypocrisy, which, instead of gaining credit with any body, seems only to expose the person who affects to practise them to the suspicion of being a greater knave than most of his neighbours. By this indulgence of the public, the smuggler is often encouraged to continue a trade, which he is thus taught to consider as, in some measure, innocent; and when the severity of the revenue laws is ready to fall upon him, he is frequently disposed to defend with violence what he has been accustomed to regard as his just property; and from being at first rather imprudent than criminal, he, at last, too often becomes one of the most determined violaters of the laws of society."—(*Wealth of Nations*, vol. iii. p. 491.)

To create by means of high duties an overwhelming temptation to indulge in crime, and then to punish men for indulging in it, is a proceeding completely subversive of every prin

ciple of justice. It revolts the natural feelings of the people; and teaches them to feel a interest in the worst characters—for such smugglers generally are—to espouse their caus and avenge their wrongs. A punishment which is not proportioned to the offence, a which does not carry the sanction of public opinion along with it, can never be productiv of any good effect. The true way to put down smuggling is to render it unprofitable; diminish the temptation to engage in it; and this is not to be done by surrounding th coasts with cordons of troops, by the multiplication of oaths and penalties, and making th country the theatre of ferocious and bloody contests in the field, and of perjury and chicane in the courts of law; but by repealing prohibitions, and reducing duties, so that their colle tions may be enforced with a moderate degree of vigilance; and that the forfeiture of th article may be a sufficient penalty upon the smuggler. It is in this, and in this only, that w must seek for an effectual check to illicit trafficking. Whenever the profits of the fair trad become nearly equal to those of the smuggler, the latter is forced to abandon his hazardou profession. But so long as prohibitions or oppressively high duties are kept up, or, which i in fact, the same thing, so long as *high bounties* are held out to encourage the adventurou the needy, and the profligate, to enter on this career, we may be assured that armies of exci and custom-house officers, backed by the utmost severity of the revenue laws, will be insu ficient to hinder them.

Smuggling in France and England.—The recently printed *Report* of Messrs. Villier and Bowring, on the commercial relations between France and Great Britain, contains som very curious and instructive details as to the smuggling carried on between them. The afford the most satisfactory and convincing proofs of the incapacity of restrictions and prohi bitions to secure a real monopoly of any extensive market; and show that their principa effect is to promote illicit traffic; and to make that ingenuity and invention be exerted i devising means to defeat and elude the law, which, under a more liberal system, would b exerted to improve the methods of production. The introduction of prohibited goods i more easily effected by land than by sea; and smuggling into France is, in consequenc carried on principally through her north and east frontiers. Considerable quantities of pro hibited or overtaxed goods are, however, introduced by sea. A regular tariff of risks i established; and persons of undoubted solidity contract, for certain premiums, which for th most part are abundantly moderate, to deliver any prohibited article in any part of France

Owing to the system of *octrois*, or of the collection of duties at the gates of large towns where an inspection of the goods may also be made, the cost of smuggling into Paris an other populous places is considerably greater than that of smuggling into villages. At a average, however, most foreign goods may be delivered in Paris at a charge of from 25 to 3 per cent. *ad valorem* on their real value.

Notwithstanding the advantage of a sea frontier, a coast guard, and a most efficien Custom-house establishment, the facts embodied by Messrs. Villiers and Bowring in thei *Report* show that smuggling is in quite as flourishing a condition on the shores of Englan as on the land frontier of France. The premium on the illicit introduction amongst us o prohibited or overtaxed goods varies from 15 to 40 per cent. *ad valorem*, according to th description of the article. The parties employing the smugglers run no risk. The latter or their agents, attend regularly upon 'Change; and "it is their constant practice to depos the value of the goods confided to their care in a banker's acceptance, as a security to th owner!"—(*Report*, p. 54.) It could hardly, indeed, have been otherwise. Brandy, whic is the favourite article for smuggling speculations, may be bought for shipment in Franc at from 3*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* a gallon. It is highly popular amongst us; but instead of admitting i to consumption under a moderate duty, or even under the high duty of 8*s.* or 10*s.*, we loa it with the oppressive and exorbitant duty of 22*s.* 6*d.*; that is, with a duty varying fro 450 to 650 per cent. *ad valorem!* Had those, who originally imposed this duty, and thos by whom it has been kept up, been deeply interested in smuggling adventures, their conduc would have been intelligible; but, as no such excuse can be made for them, it has been i the last degree irrational and absurd. The temptation to the illicit introduction of brandy, occasioned by the exorbitancy of the duty, has roused all the energies of the smuggler, who has defeated the utmost vigilance of the revenue officers, and eluded or defied the multiplied pains and penalties of the customs laws! Messrs. Villiers and Bowring estimate, from a comparison of the shipments of different articles from France for England with the import into the latter, and other authentic data, that the total amount of duties evaded by the fraudulent importation of overtaxed French articles (exclusive of tobacco, whole cargoes of which are sometimes introduced into Ireland) into this country amounts to about 800,000*l.* a year.—(p. 54.) Of this sum, the loss on brandy makes by far the largest item; and is said to be "*considerably more than* 500,000*l.*!"—(p. 57.) It is plain, therefore, that, as a means of raising revenue, this system is signally unsuccessful; but it is so in a far greater degree than appears even from the above statements: for, in addition to the vast quantity of overtaxed articles clandestinely introduced, and on which a reasonable duty would be paid, it occasions the overloading of the market with spurious, counterfeit articles, by which the public health as well as the revenue is materially injured. Nor is this all. In

order to render oppressive duties productive of any revenue, it is necessary to organise and keep constantly on foot a very numerous and costly customs establishment. It is abundantly certain that we lose, by the clandestine importation of brandy, geneva, and tobacco, from France, Belgium, and Holland, above 1,500,000*l.* a year of revenue; and it is admitted, on all hands, that, but for the oppressive duties on these articles, a saving of 500,000*l.* a year might be effected in the customs department. Nothing, therefore, can be more futile than to attempt vindicating exorbitant duties on the pretence of their being required to keep up the revenue. In point of fact, such duties are about the most efficient engines that can be devised for its reduction. The revenue derived from coffee has been trebled by reducing the duty from 1*s.* 7*d.* to 6*d.* per lb.—(see COFFEE); the revenue derived from British spirits was materially increased by reducing the duty from 5*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* the wine gallon—(see SPIRITS); and Mr. Pitt increased the duty derived from brandy, geneva, &c. in 1786, not by adding to, but by taking 50 per cent. from, the duties with which they had previously been loaded! There cannot, indeed, be the shadow of a doubt that the revenue derived from brandy and geneva would be very largely increased by reducing the duties to 8*s.* or 10*s.* a gallon. A measure of this sort, coupled as it ought to be with a reduction of the duties on tobacco—(see TOBACCO),—would do what neither coast guards, preventive services, revenue cruisers, or customs acts will ever do,—it would go far to annihilate smuggling; and would enable the services of a large number of revenue officers to be dispensed with.

But the demoralising influence of an extensive smuggling system is the worst consequence of oppressive duties and prohibitions. They make the smuggler be regarded as a public benefactor, and procure for him the sympathy of all classes, and the strenuous support of those in the lower walks of life. No one acquainted with the state of the peasantry in extensive districts of Kent and Sussex, will believe that it is easy to exaggerate the evils that spring from this source. The whole body of labourers may be said to be in combination with the smugglers; and numbers of them are every now and then withdrawn from their usual employments to assist in their desperate adventures. Lawless, predatory, and ferocious habits are thus widely diffused; and thousands, who, but for this moral contamination, would have been sober and industrious, are trained to despise and trample on the law, and to regard its functionaries as enemies whom it is meritorious to waylay and assault.

Such being the operation and result of those oppressive duties and absolute prohibitions to which smuggling owes its origin, it is not surely too much to hope that the former may be modified, and the latter repealed. When this has been done, smuggling will cease; but not one moment sooner. Till then it will continue, in despite of all the impotent efforts that may be made for its suppression, to scatter its seeds, and spread its roots on all sides; impoverishing the fair and enriching the illicit dealer—emptying the public treasury of the state, and filling its gaols with criminals!

Smuggling by Dogs.—The following extract from the *Report* of Messrs. Villiers and Bowring developes one of those ingenious devices by which mischievous customs laws are sure to be defeated.

"The director of the Custom-house made, on the 30th of July, 1831, some very curious statements to the minister of finance on the subject of the fraudulent introduction of articles by means of dogs. He says, that since the suppression of smuggling by horses, in 1825, dogs have been employed; that the first attempts were made in the neighbourhood of Valenciennes, and that it afterwards spread to Dunkirk and Charleville; that it has since extended to Thronville and Strasburgh; and, last of all, in 1828, to Besançon.

"In 1823, it was estimated that 100,000 kilogrammes of goods were thus introduced into France; in 1825, 127,315; and in 1826, 2,100,000 kilogrammes; all these estimates being reported as rather under the mark: the calculation has been made at 3½ kilogrammes '*pro rata*' per dog. The dogs sometimes carry 10 kilogrammes, and sometimes even 12. The above estimate supposes that 1 dog in 10 in certain districts, and in others 1 in 20, is killed; but these calculations must necessarily be very vague. In the opinion of many of the Custom-house officers, not more than 1 dog in 75 is destroyed, even when notice has been given, and the dogs are expected.

"Tobacco and colonial produce are generally the objects of this illicit trade; sometimes cotton twist and manufactures. In the neighbourhood of Dunkirk dogs have been taken with burdens of the value of 600, or 800, and even 1,200 francs. Publications hostile to the government have not unfrequently been so introduced.

"The dogs which are trained to these 'dishonest habits' are conducted in packs to the foreign frontiers; they are kept without food for many hours; they are then beaten and laden, and at the beginning of the night started on their travels. They reach the abodes of their masters, which are generally selected at 2 or 3 leagues from the frontiers, as speedily as they can, where they are sure to be well treated and provided with a quantity of food. It is said they do much mischief by the destruction of agricultural property, inasmuch as they usually take the most direct course across the country. They are dogs of a large size for the most part.

"The *Report* states, that these carrier dogs, being so tormented by fatigue, hunger, and ill usage, and hunted by the Custom-house officers in all directions, are exceedingly subject to madness, and frequently bite the officers, one of whom died in consequence in 1829. They have also been trained to attack the Custom-house officers in case of interference."—(p. 47.)

Various efforts have been made to suppress this species of smuggling, but hitherto without success. It is ludicrous, indeed, to suppose, seeing the vast extent of the land frontier of France, that any means should ever be adopted capable of excluding cheap foreign products in extensive demand. Nothing short of surrounding the country by Bishop Berkley's wall of brass could accomplish such an object. The director general of the French customs says,

that smuggling is carried on to an extent that is *vraiment effrayante*; and he may truly say so, when it is estimated that English bobbinet, though prohibited, is introduced into France to the extent of 10,000,000 fr., or 400,000*l.* a year; cotton twist, and various other prohibited articles of British produce and manufacture, are also everywhere met with.

Thus it is that the two greatest and most civilised nations of Europe, by upholding vicious and destructive systems of commercial and financial legislation, mutually injure each other. France and England, by their proximity, and the difference and variety of their products, are fitted to carry on a far more extensive and beneficial commerce than is carried on by any other two nations. But owing to their jealousy of each other's advancement, and the prevalence of unfounded theories as to the causes of national wealth, their intercourse has been subjected to the most oppressive fetters, and confined within the narrowest limits; most part, too, of what is actually carried on, has been diverted into illegitimate channels; so that what would, if left to itself, have been the most prolific source of wealth, and the most powerful incentive to genius and invention, has been made principally productive of crime and demoralisation. This conduct is as much opposed to their duty as to their interest. *Homines hominum causâ sunt generati, ut ipsi inter se aliis prodesse possint. . . Sed ut magnam utilitatis adipiscimur conspiratione hominum ac consensu, sic nulla tam detestabilis pestis est, quæ non homini ab homine nascatur.*—(*Cic. De Officiis*, lib. ii. c. 5.)

Law as to Smuggling in England.—The penalties imposed on illicit dealing in commodities subject to duties of excise have been specified in the articles on such commodities. The following formidable statute, with its multiplied provisions and penalties, refers entirely to customs duties. The importance of the subject has induced us to give it nearly entire.

Act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 53., for the Prevention of Smuggling.

Vessels and Boats.

Commencement of the Act.—First of September, 1833.—§ 1.

Certain Vessels found within certain Distances of the U. K. to be forfeited.—If any vessel not being square-rigged, or any boat, belonging in the whole or in part to his Majesty's subjects, or having [illegible] persons on board subjects of his Majesty, shall be found or discovered to have been within 100 leagues of the coast of the United Kingdom; or if any vessel belonging in the whole or in part to his Majesty's subjects, or having [illegible] the persons on board subjects of his Majesty, or any foreign vessel not being square-rigged, or any foreign boat, in which there shall be 1 or more subjects of his Majesty, shall be found or discovered to have been within 4 leagues of that part of the United Kingdom which is between the North Foreland on the coast of Kent, and Beachy Head on the coast of Sussex, or within 4 leagues of any other part of the coast of the United Kingdom; or if any foreign vessel or boat shall be found or discovered to have been within 1 league of the coast of the United Kingdom; or if any vessel or boat shall be found or discovered to have been within 1 league of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man respectively, or within any bay, harbour, river, or creek of or belonging to any one of the said islands; any such vessel or boat so found or discovered, having on board or in any manner attached thereto, or having had on board or in any manner attached thereto, or conveying or having conveyed in any manner, any spirits not being in a cask or package containing 40 gallons at the least, or any tea exceeding 6 lbs. weight in the whole, or any tobacco or snuff not being in a cask or package containing 450 lbs. weight at least, or being packed separately in any manner within any cask or package, or any cordage or other articles adapted and prepared for slinging or sinking small casks, or any casks or other vessels whatsoever of less size or content than 40 gallons, of the description used for the smuggling of spirits, then and in every such case the said spirits, tea, tobacco, or snuff, together with the casks or packages containing the same, and the cordage or other articles, casks, and other vessels of the description aforesaid, and also the vessel or boat, shall be forfeited.—§ 2.

Any Vessel or Boat arriving within any Port of the U. K. having prohibited Goods on board, forfeited, unless there was no Want of Care in the Master or Owner.—If any vessel or boat whatever shall arrive or shall be found or discovered to have been within any port, harbour, river, or creek of the United Kingdom, not being driven thereinto by stress of weather or other unavoidable accident, having on board or in any manner attached thereto, or having had on board or in any manner attached thereto, or conveying or having conveyed in any manner, within any such port, harbour, river, or creek, any spirits not being in a cask or package containing 40 gallons at the least, or any tobacco or snuff not being in a cask or package containing 450 lbs. weight at least, or being packed separately in any manner within any cask or package, every such vessel or boat, together with such spirits or tobacco or snuff, shall be forfeited: provided always, that if it shall be made appear to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs that the said spirits, tobacco, or snuff were on board without the knowledge or privity of the owner or master of such vessel or boat, and without any wilful neglect or want of reasonable care on their or either of their behalves, that then and in such case the said commissioners shall and they are hereby authorised and required to deliver up the said vessel or boat to the owner or master of the same.—§ 3.

Certain Cases in which Vessels shall not be forfeited.—Nothing herein contained shall extend to render any vessel liable to forfeiture on account of any tobacco or snuff from the East Indies being in packages of 100 lbs. weight each at least, or on account of any segars being in packages of 100 lbs. weight each at least, or on account of any tobacco made up in rolls, being the produce of and imported from the State of Colombia, and in packages containing 320 lbs. weight each at least, or on account of any tobacco of the dominions of the Turkish empire which may be separated or divided in any manner within the outward package, provided such package be a hogshead, cask, chest, or case containing 450 lbs. weight nett at least, or on account of any rum of and from the British plantations in casks containing 20 gallons at the least, or on account of any spirits, tea, or tobacco really intended for the consumption of the seamen and passengers on board during their voyage, and not being more in quantity than is necessary for that purpose, or to render any square-rigged vessel liable to forfeiture on account of any tea, or of any spirits in glass bottles, being really part of the cargo of such ship, and included in the manifest of such ship, or to render any vessel liable to forfeiture if really bound from one foreign port to another foreign port, and pursuing such voyage, wind and weather permitting.—§ 4.

Vessels belonging to his Majesty's Subjects, &c. throwing overboard any Goods during Chase, forfeited.—When any vessel or boat belonging in the whole or in part to his Majesty's subjects, or having [illegible] the persons on board subjects of his Majesty, shall be found within 100 leagues of the coast of this Kingdom, and shall not bring to upon signal made by any vessel or boat in his Majesty's service, or in

...e service of the revenue, hoisting the proper pendant and ensign, in order to bring such vessel or ...oat to, and thereupon chase shall be given, if any person or persons on board such vessel or boat so chased shall, during the chase or before such vessel or boat shall bring to, throw overboard any part of the lading of such vessel or boat, or shall stave or destroy any part of such lading, to prevent seizure thereof, then and in such case the said vessel or boat shall be forfeited; and all persons escaping from such vessels or boats, or from any foreign vessel or boat, during any chase made thereof by any vessel or boat in his Majesty's service or in the service of the revenue, shall be deemed and taken to be subjects of his Majesty, unless it shall be proved to the contrary.—§ 5.

Vessels in Port with a Cargo, and afterwards found in Ballast, and Cargo unaccounted for, forfeited.—If any vessel or boat whatever shall be found within the limits of any port of the United Kingdom with a cargo on board, and such vessel or boat shall afterwards be found light or in ballast, and the master is unable to give a due account of the port or place within the United Kingdom where such vessel or boat shall have legally discharged her cargo, such vessel or boat shall be forfeited.—§ 6.

Regulations as to Vessels sailing from Guernsey, Jersey, &c.—No vessel or boat belonging wholly or in part to his Majesty's subjects shall sail from Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, without a clearance, whether in ballast or having a cargo; and if with a cargo, the master shall give bond to his Majesty, in double the value of the vessel or boat and of the cargo, for duly landing the same at the port for which the vessel clears; and every such vessel or boat not having such clearance, or which, having a clearance for a cargo, shall be found light or with any part of the cargo discharged before delivery thereof at the port specified in the clearance (unless through necessity or for preservation of the vessel or boat, to be proved to the satisfaction of the commissioners of his Majesty's customs), shall be forfeited.—§ 7.

Vessels to bring to on being chased by Vessels or Boats of the Navy or in Preventive Service.—In case any vessel or boat liable to seizure or examination under any act or law for the prevention of smuggling shall not bring to on being required so to do, on being chased by any vessel or boat in H. M. navy having the proper pendant and ensign of H. M. ships hoisted, or by any vessel or boat duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, having a proper pendant and ensign hoisted, it shall be lawful for the captain, master, or other person having charge or command of such vessel or boat in H. M. navy, or employed as aforesaid, (first causing a gun to be fired as a signal,) to *fire* at or into such vessel or boat; and such captain, master, or other person acting in his aid or assistance, or by his direction, shall be indemnified and discharged from any indictment, penalty, action, or other proceeding for so doing.—§ 8.

Vessels belonging to his Majesty's Subjects not to hoist any Pendant, Ensign, or Colours usually worn by his Majesty's Ships.—If any person or persons shall, from and after the passing of this act, wear, carry, or hoist in or on board any vessel or boat whatever belonging to any of his Majesty's subjects, whether the same be merchant or otherwise, without particular warrant for so doing from his Majesty, or the High Admiral of Great Britain, or the commissioners for executing the office of High Admiral of Great Britain, H. M. jack, commonly called the Union jack, or any pendant, ensign, or colours usually worn by H. M. ships, or any flag, jack, pendant, ensign, or colours resembling those of his Majesty, or those used on board H. M. ships, or any other ensign or colours than the ensign or colours by any proclamation of his Majesty now in force or hereafter to be issued prescribed to be worn, then and in every such case the master or other person having the charge or command thereof, or the owner or owners on board the same, and every other person so offending, shall forfeit and pay the sum of 50*l.*; and it shall be lawful for any officer or officers of H. M. navy on full pay, or for any officer or officers of customs or excise, to enter on board any such vessel or boat, and to seize any such flag, jack, pendant, ensign, or colours, and the same shall thereupon be forfeited.—§ 9.

Vessels and Boats used in Removal of run Goods to be forfeited.—All vessels and boats made use of in the removal, carriage, or conveyance of any goods liable to forfeiture under this or any other act relating to the revenue of customs, shall be forfeited.—§ 10.

Boats of Vessels to have thereon the Name of Vessel, Port, and Master.—The owner of every vessel belonging in the whole or in part to any of his Majesty's subjects shall paint or cause to be painted upon the outside of the stern of every boat belonging to such vessel, the name of such vessel, and the port or place to which she belongs, and the master's name withinside the transom, in white or yellow Roman letters, not less than 2 inches in length, on a black ground, on pain of the forfeiture of such boat not so marked, wherever the same shall be found.—§ 11.

Boats not belonging to Ships to have Name of Owner, &c. thereon.—The owner of every boat not belonging to any vessel shall paint or cause to be painted upon the stern of such boat, in white or yellow Roman letters of 2 inches in length, on a black ground, the name of the owner or owners of the boat, and the port or place to which she belongs, on pain of the forfeiture of such boat not so marked, wherever the same shall be found.—§ 12.

Vessels and Boats used in piloting or fishing to be painted Black.—The owner or owners of every vessel or boat employed on the coast of the United Kingdom in piloting or fishing shall paint or tar every such vessel or boat, or cause the same to be painted or tarred, entirely black, except the name or other description now required by law to be painted on such vessel or boat; and every such vessel or boat not so painted or tarred, and every boat so painted as to resemble any boat usually employed for the prevention of smuggling or in any other employment in H. M. service, shall be forfeited: provided always, that nothing herein contained shall extend to prevent any distinguishing mark being placed on any vessel or boat, or to be otherwise painted, if the commissioners of customs think proper to allow the same, expressing it so in the licence of said vessel or boat.—§ 13.

British Vessels having secret Places, &c. forfeited.—All vessels and boats belonging in the whole or in part to H. M. subjects, having false bulkheads, false bows, double sides or bottoms, or any secret or disguised place whatsoever in the construction of the said vessel or boat adapted for the purpose of concealing goods, or having any hole, pipe, or other device in or about the vessel or boat adapted for the purpose of running goods, shall be forfeited, with all the guns, furniture, ammunition, tackle, and apparel belonging to such vessel or boat; and all foreign vessels or boats, not being square-rigged, coming to any port of the United Kingdom, having on board any goods liable to the payment of duties, or prohibited to be imported, concealed in false bulkheads, false bows, double sides or bottoms, or any secret or disguised place in said vessel or boat, shall be forfeited.—§ 14.

Goods concealed on board forfeited, and all Goods packed therewith.—If any goods which are subject to any duty or restriction in respect of importation, or which are prohibited to be imported into the United Kingdom, shall be found concealed in any manner on board any vessel, or shall be found, either before or after landing, to have been concealed in any manner, in such case all such goods, and all other goods packed with them, shall be forfeited.—§ 15.

LICENCES.—*N. B.* The clauses of this act, with respect to the licensing of ships, from § 16. to § 27. both inclusive, are given under the word LICENCES.

VESSELS AND GOODS.

Goods unshipped without Payment of Duty, and prohibited Goods, liable to forfeiture.—If any goods liable to the payment of duties be unshipped from any vessel or boat in the United Kingdom or the Isle of Man (customs or other duties not being first paid or secured), or if any prohibited goods whatsoever

be imported into any part of the United Kingdom or of the Isle of Man, or if any goods warehoused or otherwise secured in the United Kingdom, for home consumption or exportation be clandestinely or illegally removed from any warehouse or place of security, then and in every such case all such goods shall be forfeited, together with all horses and other animals, and all carriages and other things, made use of in the removal of such goods.—§ 28.

Spirits and Tobacco found without a Permit to be deemed run.—All spirits or tobacco which shall be found removing without a legal permit for the same shall be deemed to be spirits or tobacco liable to and unshipped without payment of duty, unless the party in whose possession the same be found or seized prove to the contrary.—§ 29.

Restricted Goods to be deemed run.—All goods the importation of which is in any way restricted, which are of a description admissible to duty, and which shall be found and seized in the United Kingdom under any law relating to the customs or excise, shall, for the purpose of proceeding for the forfeiture of them, or for any penalty incurred in respect of them, be described in any information exhibited on account of such forfeiture or penalty as goods liable to and unshipped without payment of duties.—§ 30.

Prohibited Goods shipped or waterborne, with intent to be exported, &c. forfeited, &c.—If any goods prohibited to be exported be put on board any vessel or boat with intent to be laden or shipped for exportation, or be brought to any quay, wharf, or other place in the United Kingdom to be put on board any vessel or boat for the purpose of being exported, or if any goods prohibited to be exported, be found in any package produced to the officer or officers of the customs as containing goods not so prohibited, then and in every such case, not only all such prohibited goods, but also all other goods packed therewith, shall be forfeited.—§ 31.

Vessels, Boats, and Goods may be seized by Officers and Persons herein mentioned, &c.—All vessels and boats, and all goods whatsoever, liable to forfeiture under this or any other act relating to the revenue of customs, may be seized in any place, either upon land or water, by any officer or officers of the army, navy, or marines, duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or by any officer or officers of customs or excise, or by any person having authority to seize from the commissioners of customs or excise; and all vessels, boats, and goods so seized shall, as soon as conveniently may be, be delivered into the care of the proper officer appointed to receive the same.—§ 32.

Penalty on Officers, &c. making collusive Seizures or taking Bribes, and on Persons offering them.—If any officer or officers of the customs or excise, or of the army, navy, or marines, employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or any other person or persons whatsoever duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, make any collusive seizure, or deliver up, or make any agreement to deliver up or not to seize, any vessel or boat or any goods liable to forfeiture, or take any bribe, gratuity, recompence, or reward for the neglect or non-performance of his duty, every such officer or other person shall forfeit for every such offence 500*l.* and be rendered incapable of serving his Majesty in any office whatever, either civil or military; and every person who shall give or offer, or promise to give or procure to be given, any bribe, recompence, or reward to, or shall make any collusive agreement with, any such officer or person as aforesaid, to induce him in any way to neglect his duty, or to do, conceal, or connive at any act whereby any of the provisions of any act of parliament relating to the revenue of customs may be evaded, shall forfeit the sum of 200*l.*—§ 33.

Vessels and Persons may be searched within the Limits of the Ports.—It shall and may be lawful for any officer or officers of the army, navy, or marines, duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or for any officer or officers of customs, producing his or their warrant or deputation (if required), to go on board any vessel within the limits of any of the ports of this kingdom, and to rummage and search the cabin and all other parts of such vessel for prohibited and uncustomed goods, and to remain on board such vessel during the whole time that the same shall continue within the limits of such port, and also to search any person or persons either on board or who shall have landed from any vessel, provided such officer or officers have good reason to suppose that such person or persons hath or have any uncustomed or prohibited goods secreted about his, her, or their person or persons; and if any person obstruct any officer or officers in going or remaining on board, or in entering or searching such vessel or person, every such person shall forfeit and lose the sum of 100*l.*—§ 34.

Before Persons are searched, they may require to be taken before a Justice, &c.—Before any person shall be searched by any such officer or officers, it shall be lawful for such person to require the officer or officers to take him or her before a justice of the peace, or before the collector, comptroller, or other superior officer of the customs, who shall determine whether there is reasonable ground to suppose that such person has any uncustomed or prohibited goods about his or her person; and if it appear to such justice, collector, &c. that there is reasonable ground to suppose that such person has any uncustomed or prohibited goods about his or her person, such justice, collector, comptroller, or other superior officer of customs shall direct such person to be searched in such manner as he shall think fit; but if it shall appear to such justice, collector, comptroller, &c. that there is not reasonable ground to suppose that such person has any uncustomed or prohibited goods about his or her person, then such justice, collector, &c. shall forthwith discharge such person, who shall not in such case be liable to be searched; and every such officer or officers is and are authorized and required to take such person, upon demand, before any justice, collector, &c. detaining him or her in the meantime: provided always, that no person, being a female shall be searched except by a female duly authorised by the commissioners of customs.—§ 35.

Penalty on Officers for Misconduct with respect to Search.—If any such officer or officers shall not take such person with reasonable despatch before such justice, collector, comptroller, or other superior officer of customs, when so required, or shall require any person to be searched by him, not having reasonable grounds to suppose that such person has any uncustomed or prohibited goods about his or her person, such officer shall forfeit and pay the sum of 10*l.*—§ 36.

Penalty on Persons denying having Foreign Goods about them.—If any passenger or other person on board any vessel or boat shall, upon being questioned by any officer of customs, whether he or she has any foreign goods upon his or her person, or in his or her possession, deny the same, and any such goods shall, after such denial, be discovered upon his or her person, or in his or her possession, such goods shall be forfeited, and such person shall forfeit treble the value of such goods.—§ 37.

Officers, authorised by Writ of Assistance, may search Houses for prohibited Goods, &c.—It shall and may be lawful for any officer or officers of customs, or person acting under the direction of the commissioners of customs, having a writ of assistance under the seal of the Court of Exchequer, to take a constable, headborough, or other public officer inhabiting near the place, and in the daytime to enter into and search any house, shop, cellar, warehouse, room, or other place, and in case of resistance to break open doors, chests, trunks, and other packages, there to seize and from thence to bring any uncustomed or prohibited goods, and to put and secure the same in the Custom-house warehouse in the port next to the place whence such goods shall be taken: provided always, that for the purposes of this act any such constable, headborough, or other public officer, duly sworn as such, may act as well without the limits of any parish, ville, or other place for which he shall be so sworn as within such limits.—§ 38.

Duration of Writs.—All writs of assistance so issued from the Court of Exchequer shall continue

nd be in force during the whole of the reign in which such writs have been granted, and for 6 months from its conclusion.—§ 39.

Officers may, on probable Cause, stop Carts, &c., and search for Goods.—It shall be lawful for any officer of customs or excise, or other person acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, upon reasonable suspicion, to stop and examine any cart, wagon, or other means of conveyance, for the purpose of ascertaining whether any smuggled goods are contained therein; and if no such goods be found, the officer or other person stopping and examining such cart, wagon, &c. having had probable cause to suspect that smuggled goods were contained therein, shall not, on account of such stoppage and search, be liable to any action at law on account thereof; and all persons driving or conducting such cart, wagon, &c. refusing to stop when required so to do in the King's name, shall forfeit 100*l.*—§ 40.

Police Officers seizing Goods to carry them to Warehouse.—If any goods subject or liable to forfeiture under this or any other act relating to the customs be stopped or taken by any police officer or other person acting by virtue of any act of parliament, or otherwise duly authorised, such goods shall be carried to the Custom-house warehouse next to the place where the goods were stopped or taken, and there delivered to the proper officer appointed to receive the same, within 48 hours after the said goods were stopped and taken.—§ 41.

Goods stopped by Police Officers may be retained until Trial of Persons charged with stealing them.—If any goods be stopped or taken by a police officer on suspicion that the same have been feloniously stolen, it shall be lawful for the said officer to carry the same to the police office to which the offender is taken, there to remain to be produced at the trial of said offender; and in such case the officer is required to give notice in writing to the commissioners of customs of his having so detained the goods, with the particulars of the same; and immediately after the trial all such goods are to be deposited in the Custom-house warehouse, to be proceeded against according to law; and in case any police officer making detention of any such goods neglect to convey the same to such warehouse, or to give notice of having stopped the same as before described, he shall forfeit 20*l.*—§ 42.

Commissioners of Treasury, &c. may restore Seizures.—It shall and may be lawful for the commissioners of the treasury, or any 3 or more of them, or for the commissioners of customs or excise, by an order for that purpose, to direct any vessel, boat, goods, or commodities seized under this or any act relating to the customs or excise, or to the trade or navigation of the United Kingdom, or to any of his Majesty's possessions abroad, to be delivered to the proprietor or proprietors, whether condemnation have taken place or not, upon such terms and conditions as they may deem expedient, and which shall be mentioned in the said order: and it shall be also lawful for the said commissioners of the treasury, and of the customs and excise, to mitigate or remit any penalty or fine which shall have been incurred, or any part of such penalty or fine incurred under any such act: provided always, that no person shall be entitled to the benefit of any order for delivery or mitigation unless the terms and conditions expressed in the said order are fully and effectually complied with.—§ 43.

Penalties.

Persons unshipping, &c. any prohibited or uncustomed Goods, to forfeit Treble the Value, or 100*l.*—Every person who shall, either in the U. K. or the Isle of Man, assist or be concerned in the unshipping of any goods prohibited to be imported into the U. K. or into the Isle of Man, or the duties for which have not been paid or secured, or who shall knowingly harbour, keep, or conceal, or knowingly permit or suffer to be harboured, kept, or concealed, any goods which have been illegally unshipped without payment of duties, or which have been illegally removed, without payment of the same, from any warehouse or place of security in which they may have been deposited, or any goods prohibited to be imported, or to be used or consumed in the U. K. or in the Isle of Man, and every person, either in the U. K. or the Isle of Man, to whose possession any such uncustomed or prohibited goods shall knowingly come, or who shall assist or be in anywise concerned in the illegal removal of any goods from any warehouse or place of security in which they have been deposited, shall forfeit either the treble value thereof, or the penalty of 100*l.*, at the election of the commissioners of customs.—§ 44.

How Value is to be ascertained.—In all cases where any penalty, the amount of which is to be determined by the value of any goods, is directed to be sued for under any law now in force or to be made for the prevention of smuggling, or relating to the revenue of customs or excise, such value shall be taken to be according to the rate and price which goods of the like sort or denomination and of the best quality bear at such time, and upon which the duties due upon importation have been paid.—§ 45.

Persons insuring the Delivery of prohibited or uncustomed Goods to forfeit 500*l.*—Every person who by way of insurance or otherwise shall undertake or agree to deliver any goods to be imported from beyond the seas into any port or place in the U. K. without paying the duties due on such importation, or any prohibited goods, or who in pursuance of such insurance shall deliver or cause to be delivered any uncustomed or prohibited goods, and every aider or abettor of such person, shall for every such offence forfeit 500*l.* over and above any other penalty to which he may be liable; and every person who shall agree to pay any money for the insurance or conveyance of such goods, or shall receive or take them into his custody or possession, or suffer them to be so received or taken, shall also forfeit 500*l.* over and above any penalty to which he may be liable on account of such goods.—§ 46.

Penalty on Persons offering Goods for Sale under Pretence of being run or prohibited.—If any person or persons offer for sale any goods under pretence that the same are prohibited, or have been unshipped and run on shore without payment of duties, in such case all such goods (although not liable to any duties or prohibited) shall be forfeited, and the person or persons, and every of them, offering the same for sale, shall forfeit the treble value of such goods, or the penalty of 100*l.*, at the election of the commissioners of customs.—§ 47.

Persons found to have been on board Vessels liable to Forfeiture subject to a Penalty of 100*l.*—Every person, being a subject of his Majesty, who shall be found or discovered to have been on board any vessel or boat liable to forfeiture under this or any other act relating to the customs for being found or discovered to have been within any of the distances, ports, or places in this act mentioned, from or in the United Kingdom, or from or in the Isle of Man, having on board or in any manner attached thereto, or having had on board or in any manner attached thereto, or conveying or having conveyed in any manner, such goods or things as subject such vessel or boat to forfeiture, or who shall be found or discovered to have been, within any such distance as aforesaid, on board any vessel or boat from which any part of the cargo or lading of such vessel or boat shall have been thrown overboard, or staved or destroyed, to prevent seizure, shall forfeit 100*l.*; and every person, not being a subject of his Majesty, who shall have been on board any vessel or boat liable to forfeiture for any of the causes aforesaid, within 1 league of the coast of the United Kingdom or of the Isle of Man, or within any bay, harbour, river, or creek of the said island, shall forfeit for such offence 100*l.*; and it shall be lawful for any officer or officers of the army, navy, or marines, being duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or any officer or officers of customs or excise, or other person acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and he and they is and are hereby authorised, empowered, and required, to detain and to carry and convey every such person before any justice of the peace, to be dealt with as herein-after directed; provided always, that any such person

proving, to the satisfaction of any justice or justices before whom he may be brought, that he was only a passenger in such vessel or boat, and had no interest whatever either in the vessel or boat, or in the cargo or goods on board the same, shall be forthwith discharged by such justices.—§ 48.

Persons unshipping, &c. Spirits or Tobacco, to forfeit 100*l. &c.*—Every person whatsoever who shall unship, or be aiding or concerned in the unshipping, of any spirits or tobacco liable to forfeiture under this or any other act relating to the customs or excise, in the U. K. or the Isle of Man, or who shall carry, convey, or conceal, or be aiding, assisting, or concerned in the carrying, conveying, or concealing of any such spirits or tobacco, shall forfeit for such offence 100*l.*; and every such person may be detained by any officer of the army, navy, or marines duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or by any officer or officers of customs or excise, or other person acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and taken before any justice of the peace, to be dealt with as herein-after directed.—§ 49.

Persons carrying, &c. Tea or manufactured Silk to forfeit Treble the Value, &c.—Every person whatsoever who shall unship, or be aiding, assisting, or otherwise concerned in the unshipping, of any tea or foreign manufactured silk of the value of 20*l.*, liable to forfeiture under any act relating to the customs or excise, or who shall carry, convey, or conceal, or be aiding, assisting, or concerned in the carrying, conveying, or concealing of such tea or silk, shall forfeit for every such offence treble the value thereof; and every such person shall and may be detained by any officer of the army, navy, or marines, duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or by any officer of customs or excise, or by any other person acting in his aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and taken before any justice of the peace, to be dealt with as herein directed: provided always, that it shall be lawful for such detained person to give security in treble the amount of the goods seized, to the satisfaction of such justice, to appear at a time and place appointed; and that no such person shall be liable to serve his Majesty in his naval service.—§ 50.

A Justice may order Persons taken before him for Offences relating to the Customs to be detained a reasonable Time.—Where any person or persons shall have been detained by any officer of the army, navy, or marines, employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or by any officer of customs or excise, or any person or persons acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, for any offence under this or any other act relating to the customs, and shall have been taken and carried before any justice of the peace, if it shall appear to such justice that there is reasonable cause to detain such person or persons, he may and he is authorised and required to order such person or persons to be detained a reasonable time, and at the expiration of such time to be brought before any 2 justices, who are authorised and required finally to hear and determine the matter.—§ 51.

Any Person liable to Arrest making his Escape may be detained by any Officer of Customs.—If any person or persons liable to be detained under the provisions of this or any other act relating to the customs shall not be detained at the time of so committing the offence, or after detention shall make his or their escape, it shall be lawful for any officer or officers of the army, navy, or marines, employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or for any officer of customs or excise, or any other person acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, to detain such person at any time afterwards, and to carry him before any justice of the peace, to be dealt with as if detained at the time of committing the said offence.—§ 52.

Persons making Signals to Smuggling Vessels at Sea, on Conviction to forfeit 100*l., &c.*—No person shall, after sunset and before sunrise between the 21st day of September and the 1st day of April, or after the hour of 8 in the evening and before the hour of 6 in the morning at any other time in the year, make, aid or assist in making, any signal in or on board or from any vessel or boat, or on or from any part of the coast or shore of the United Kingdom, or within 6 miles of any part of such coasts or shores, for the purpose of giving any notice to any person on board any smuggling vessel or boat, whether any person so on board such vessel or boat be or be not within distance to notice such signal; and if any person, contrary to the intent and meaning of this act, make or cause to be made, or aid or assist in making, any such signal, such person shall be guilty of a misdemeanour; and it shall be lawful for any person to stop, arrest, and detain the person or persons who shall so offend, and to carry and convey such person or persons before any 1 or more justices of the peace residing near the place where such offence shall be committed, who, if he sees cause, shall commit the offender to the next county gaol, there to remain until the next court of oyer or terminer, great session, or gaol delivery, or until such person or persons shall be delivered by due course of law; and it shall not be necessary to prove on any indictment or information that any vessel or boat was actually on the coast; and the offender or offenders being duly convicted thereof shall, by order of the court before whom they are convicted, either forfeit and pay the penalty of 100*l.*, or, at the discretion of such court, be committed to the common gaol or house of correction, there to be kept to hard labour for any term not exceeding 1 year.—§ 53.

Proof of a Signal not being intended, to lie on the Defendant.—In case any person be charged with or indicted for having made or caused to be made, or been aiding or assisting in making, any such signal, the burden of proof that such signal so charged as having been made with intent and for the purpose of giving such notice as aforesaid was not made with such intent and for such purpose shall be upon the defendant.—§ 54.

Any Persons may prevent Signals.—It shall be lawful for any person whatsoever to prevent any signal as aforesaid being made, and to enter upon any lands for that purpose, without being liable to any indictment, suit, or action for the same.—§ 55.

Persons resisting Officers, or rescuing or destroying Goods to prevent Seizure, forfeit 100*l.*—If any person whatsoever shall obstruct any officer or officers of the army, navy, or marines, employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or any officer or officers of customs or excise, or any person acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, in the execution of his or their duty, or in the due seizing of any goods liable to forfeiture, or shall rescue or cause to be rescued any goods which have been seized, or shall attempt or endeavour to do so, or shall before or at or after any seizure, stave, break, or otherwise destroy any goods, to prevent the seizure thereof or the securing the same, then and in such case the party or parties offending shall forfeit for every such offence 100*l.*—§ 56.

Penalty on Persons procuring others to assist in unshipping prohibited Goods.—Any person or persons who shall by any means procure or hire any person or persons, who shall depute, authorise, or direct any person or persons to procure or hire any person or persons, to assemble for the purpose of being concerned in the landing or unshipping or carrying or conveying any goods prohibited to be imported, or the duties for which have not been paid or secured, shall for every person so procured or hired forfeit 100*l.*—§ 57.

Felonies.

Three or more armed Persons assembled to assist in the illegal Landing of Goods, &c. deemed guilty of Felony.—If any persons to the number of 3 or more, armed with fire-arms or other offensive weapons, shall, within the U. K., or within any port, harbour, or creek, thereof, be assembled in order to aid and assist in the illegal landing, running, or carrying away of any prohibited goods, or any goods liable to

any duties which have not been paid or secured, or in rescuing or taking away any goods, after seizure, from the officer of the customs or other officer authorised to seize the same, or from any person or persons employed by or assisting them, or from the place where the same have been lodged by them, or in rescuing any person who shall have been apprehended for any of the offences made felony by this or any act relating to the customs, or in the preventing the apprehension of any person guilty of such offence, or in case any persons to the number of 3 or more, so armed, shall, within the U. K., or within any port, harbour, or creek thereof, be so aiding or assisting, every person so offending, and every person aiding, abetting, or assisting therein, shall, being thereof convicted, be adjudged guilty of felony, and suffer death as a felon.—§ 58.

Persons shooting at any Boat belonging to the Navy, &c. deemed guilty of Felony.—If any person shall maliciously shoot at any vessel or boat belonging to H. M. navy, or in the service of the revenue, within 100 leagues of any part of the coast of the U. K., or shall maliciously shoot at, maim, or dangerously wound any officer of the army, navy, or marines, employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or any officer of customs or excise, or any person acting in his aid, or assistance, or employed for the prevention of smuggling, in the due execution of his office or duty, every person so offending, and every person aiding, abetting, or assisting therein, shall, being lawfully convicted, be adjudged guilty of felony, and suffer death as a felon.—§ 59.

Any Person in company with 4 others having prohibited Goods, or with 1 other armed or disguised, guilty of Felony.—If any person being in company with more than 4 other persons be found with any goods liable to forfeiture, or in company with 1 other person, within 5 miles of the sea coast or of any navigable river leading therefrom, with such goods, and carrying offensive arms or weapons, or disguised in any way, every such person shall be adjudged guilty of felony, and shall, on conviction of such offence, be transported as a felon for the space of 7 years.—§ 60.

Officers.

Persons assaulting Officers by Force or Violence may be transported.—If any person shall by force or violence assault, resist, oppose, molest, hinder, or obstruct any officer of the army, navy, or marines, employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or any officer of customs or excise, or other person acting in his or their aid or assistance, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, in the due execution of his or their office or duty, such person, being thereof convicted, shall be transported for 7 years, or sentenced to be imprisoned in any house of correction or common gaol, and kept to hard labour, for any term not exceeding 3 years, at the discretion of the court before whom the offender shall be tried and convicted as aforesaid.—§ 61.

Commanding Officers of Vessels in the Service may haul their Vessels on Shore without being liable to any Action for so doing.—It shall be lawful for the commanding officer of any vessel or boat employed for the prevention of smuggling to haul any such vessel or boat upon any part of the coast of the United Kingdom, or the shores, banks, or beaches of any river, creek, or inlet of the same (not being a garden or pleasure ground, or place ordinarily used for any bathing machine or machines), which shall be deemed most convenient for that purpose, and to moor any such vessel or boat on such part of the aforesaid coasts, shores, &c. below high water mark, and over which the tide flows on ordinary occasions, and to continue such vessel or boat so moored for such time as said commanding officer shall deem proper; and such officer, or person or persons acting under his direction, shall not be liable to any indictment, action, or suit for so doing, any law, statute, custom, or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.—§ 62.

Officer, if wounded in the Service of the Customs, to be provided for, &c.—In all cases where any officer or seaman employed in the service of the customs or excise shall be killed, maimed, wounded, or in any way injured in the due execution of his office, or if any person acting in his aid, or duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, shall be so killed, maimed, wounded, or in any way injured while so aiding such officer or seaman, or so employed, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs and excise to make such provision for the officer or person, so maimed, wounded, or injured as aforesaid, or for the widows and families of such as shall be killed, as they shall be authorised and empowered to do by warrant from the Lord High Treasurer or commissioners of the treasury.—§ 63.

Vessels and Goods seized to be disposed of as the Commissioners direct.—All vessels and boats, and all goods whatsoever, seized and condemned for breach of any law relating to the customs, shall be disposed of as soon as conveniently may be after the condemnation thereof, in such manner as the commissioners of customs shall direct.—§ 64.

Rewards.

Rewards to Officers for detaining Smugglers.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs, and they are hereby authorised and empowered, to award, to any officer or other person detaining any person liable to detention under this or any other act relating to the revenue of customs, to be paid upon the conviction of such person, any reward they may think fit to direct, not exceeding the sum of 20*l.* for each person.—§ 65.

Rewards to Officers where pecuniary Penalties are recovered.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs, and they are hereby authorised, to order the following reward to be paid to any officer or officers or persons by whose means any pecuniary penalty or composition is recovered; (that is to say,) part of the penalty or sum recovered, except in seizures of silk goods, in which case the officers may receive ½ the penalty or sum recovered.—§ 66.

Rewards to Officers making Seizures.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs, and they are hereby authorised, to order to be paid, in respect of any seizure made under this or any act relating to the customs or to trade and navigation, to the person or persons making the same, the following rewards; (that is to say,)

In the case of seizures of spirits or tobacco:—
If all the parties concerned in the act which occasions the seizure, being above the age of 16 years, are detained and convicted, the whole value thereof, such value to be fixed and settled by the Lords of the Treasury, or by the commissioners of his Majesty's customs, as herein-after directed:
If 3 or more of such parties, not being the whole, are so detained and convicted, 7 8ths of such value:
If 1 such party, not being the whole of them, but being a seafaring man, is so detained and convicted, 3 4ths of such value:
If 1 such party, not being the whole of them, is detained and convicted, and the vessel or means of conveyance is or are seized and condemned, 3-4ths of such value:
If 1 such party, not being the whole of them, nor being a seafaring man, is so detained and convicted, 5 8ths of such value:
If the vessel or means of conveyance is seized and condemned without any person being detained, 1-3d of such value:
If all the goods are seized, and all the parties concerned as aforesaid are subsequently convicted in consequence of such seizure, and by the exertion of the seizors, 1-2 of such value:
If the goods only are seized, 1-8th, or such other part as the commissioners of the customs shall think proper, not exceeding 1-4th of such value:
In the case of seizures of other goods, not silks:—
If the vessel or other means of conveyance is or are seized and condemned, or if any person is prosecuted to conviction on account of the same, 1-3 of the produce, exclusive of the duties:
If the goods only, 1-4th of such produce:
In the case of damaged tobacco, snuff, or other goods destroyed, such reward as the Lords of the Treasury or the commissioners of his Majesty's customs may think proper to direct, not exceeding a moiety of the duty payable on such goods in case the same had been sold for home consumption:
In the case of seizures of silk goods, the whole value of such goods, exclusive of the duty thereon:
In the case of seizures of vessels and boats:—
If sold, a moiety of the produce:
If taken into the public service or broken up, a moiety of the value:
In the case of seizures of cattle and carriages in all cases 3-4ths of the produce of the sale.—Sect. 67

The Treasury, &c. to fix the Value of Spirits & Tobacco.—The value of spirits and tobacco seized as aforesaid shall in all cases be deemed and taken to be such as the Lords of the Treasury or the commissioners of customs may think fit to fix the same at per gallon or per pound weight, for the purpose of rewarding the officer; and all the before-mentioned rewards shall be paid, subject to a deduction of 10*l.* per cent. on account of law charges and other expenses.—§ 68.

All Rewards, &c. payable to Officers of Army, &c. to be regulated by H. M. Orders in Council.—Every such reward, or part or share of any such seizure or of the value thereof, as shall be payable to any officer or officers, non-commissioned officers, petty officers, seamen, or privates of the army, navy, or marines, or acting under the orders of the Lord High Admiral or commissioners of the admiralty, shall be divided and distributed in such proportions, and according to such rules, regulations, and orders, as his Majesty shall be pleased to direct and appoint.—§ 69.

Commissioners may distribute Shares of Seizures so as to reward Persons not actually present.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs or excise respectively, in case of any seizure of vessels, boats, or goods, or of the apprehension of any parties, under this or any other act relating to the customs, to direct the distribution of the seizor's share of such vessels, boats, or goods, or of any penalties or rewards that may be recovered on account of any seizure, in such manner as to enable any officer or officers, or other person or persons through whose information or means such seizure shall have been made, or penalty recovered, or party apprehended, and who may by them be deemed to be so entitled, to participate in such proportion as the said commissioners shall respectively deem expedient.—§ 70

In case Officers act negligently or collusively.—Upon proof being made to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs or excise that any officer or officers or person or persons as aforesaid have acted collusively or negligently in the making of any seizure, the said commissioners may direct that the whole or any part of the proportion of such seizure be applied to the use of his Majesty.—§ 71.

None except Officers to take up Spirits in small Casks sunk or floating upon the Sea.—No person or persons whatsoever, being a subject or subjects of his Majesty, other than an officer or officers of the navy, customs, or excise, or some person or persons authorised in that behalf, shall intermeddle with or take up any spirits, being in casks of less content than 40 gallons, found floating upon or sunk in the sea within 100 leagues of the United Kingdom; and if any spirits shall be so intermeddled with or taken up, the same shall be forfeited, together with any vessel or boat in which they are found.—§ 72.

Rewards to Persons giving Information of Goods floating or sunk in the Sea.—If any person or persons shall discover any spirits, being in casks of less content than 40 gallons, floating upon or sunk in the sea, and give information to any officer of the customs, or other person or persons authorised to make seizure of such spirits, so that seizure be made of the same, the person or persons giving such information shall be entitled to and shall receive such reward as the commissioners of customs may deem expedient to direct.—§ 73.

Allowances to poor Persons confined for Offences against Laws of Customs and Excise.—For the necessary subsistence of any poor person confined in the United Kingdom or in the Isle of Man, under or by virtue of any exchequer or other process for the recovery of any duties or penalties, upon bond or otherwise, sued for, under or by virtue of any order of the commissioners of customs or excise, it shall be lawful for said commissioners respectively to cause an allowance, not exceeding the sum of 7½*d.* and not less than 4½*d.* per day, to be made to any such poor person, out of any money in their hands arising from the duties of customs or excise, as the case may require.—§ 74.

JURISDICTION.

Penalties and Forfeitures how to be sued for.—All penalties and forfeitures incurred or imposed by this or any other act relating to the customs, or to trade or navigation, shall and may be sued for, prosecuted, and recovered by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information in any court of record at Westminster, or at Dublin, or at Edinburgh, or in the royal courts of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, in the name or names of the attorney-general or of the lord advocate of Scotland, or in the name of some officer or officers of customs, or by information before any 2 or more justices of the peace in the U. K., or before any governor, deputy governor, or deemster in the Isle of Man.—Sect. 76.

Vessels, Boats, and Goods seized, shall be deemed to be condemned, unless the Owner gives Notice that he intends to claim.—All vessels, boats, and goods which have been or shall be hereafter seized as forfeited under any law relating to the customs, and which have been or shall hereafter be ordered to be prosecuted by the commissioners of customs, shall be deemed and taken to be condemned, and may be sold in the manner directed by law in respect to vessels, boats, and goods seized and condemned for breach of any law relating to the customs, unless the person from whom such vessels, boats, and goods have been seized, or the owner of them, or some person authorised by him, shall, within 1 calendar month from the day of seizing the same, give notice in writing, if in London, to the person seizing the same or to the secretary or solicitor for the customs, and if elsewhere, to the person seizing the same or to the collector and comptroller or other chief officer of the customs at the nearest port, that he claims the vessel, boat, or goods, or intends to claim them.—Sect. 76.

Offences on the High Seas deemed to have been committed at the Place into which the Offender is brought, or in which he is found.—In case any offence be committed upon the high seas against this or any other act relating to the customs, or any penalty or forfeiture be incurred upon the high seas for any breach of such acts, such offence shall, for the purpose of prosecution, be deemed and taken to have been committed, and such penalties and forfeitures to have been incurred, at the place on land in the U. K. or the Isle of Man into which the person committing such offence or incurring such penalty or forfeiture shall be taken, brought, or carried, or in which such person shall be found; and in case such place on land is situated within any city, borough, liberty, division, franchise, or town corporate, as well any justice of the peace for such city, borough, liberty, division, franchise, or town corporate, as any justice of the peace of the county within which such city, borough, liberty, division, franchise, or town corporate is situated, shall have jurisdiction to hear and determine all cases of offences against such act so committed upon the high seas, any charter or act of parliament to the contrary notwithstanding; provided always, that where any offence shall be committed in any place upon the water not being within any county of the U. K., or where any doubt exists as to the same being within any county, such offence shall, for the purposes of this act, be deemed and taken to be committed upon the high seas.—Sect. 77.

Justices may summon Offender, and the Summons may be left at his last Place of Residence, or on board any ship to which he belongs.—Upon the exhibiting any information before any justice of the peace for any offence against this or any act relating to the customs or to trade or navigation, for which the party charged is not liable to be detained in manner hereinbefore mentioned, such justice is hereby required to issue a summons for the appearance of the party against whom such information is exhibited before 2 justices of the peace; and such summons, directed to such party, being left either at his or her last known place of residence, or on board any ship or vessel to which such party may belong, shall be deemed to have been sufficiently served.—Sect. 78.

Two Justices may, upon Appearance or Default of the Party, proceed to the Hearing.—Upon the appearance or default of any party so summoned, it shall be lawful for any 2 justices of the peace to proceed to the examination of the matter contained in such information, and upon due proof thereof, either upon the confession of party or upon the oath of 1 or more credible witness or witnesses, to convict such party in the penalty or penalties sued for by such information; and in case of nonpayment thereof, such justices, or 1 of them, or some other justices or justice of the peace, are hereby authorised and required, by warrant under hand and seal, to commit such party to any of his Majesty's gaols within their or his jurisdiction, there to remain until the penalty or penalties shall be paid.—Sect. 79.

Warrants shall and may be executed in any part of the United Kingdom.—Sect. 80.

Justices empowered to mitigate Penalty.—Where any party shall or may be convicted before any 2 or more of his Majesty's justices of the peace in any penalty or penalties incurred as aforesaid, except as is herein-after provided, it shall and may be lawful for the said justices, in cases where upon consideration of the circumstances they shall deem it expedient so to do, to mitigate the payment of the said penalty or penalties, so as the sum to be paid by such party be not less than 1-4th of the amount of the penalty in which such party shall have been convicted.—Sect. 81.

As to Persons committed for Penalties under 100l.—Where any person shall have been so committed by any justices or justice of the peace to any prison for nonpayment of any penalty less than 100*l.*, the gaoler or keeper of such prison is hereby authorised and required to discharge such person at the end of 6 calendar months from the commencement of such imprisonment.—Sect. 82.

Married Women may be committed to Prison.—Where any party so convicted before 2 justices of the peace shall be a married woman, such party shall be liable to be committed to prison in manner hereinbefore mentioned, notwithstanding her coverture.—Sect. 83.

Mode of Proceeding before Justices.—When any information shall have been exhibited before any justice of the peace for the forfeiture of any goods seized under this or any act relating to the customs, it shall be lawful for the said justice, and he is hereby authorised and required, to summon the party to whom such goods belonged, or from whom they were seized, to appear before any 2 justices of the peace; and such summons, directed to such party, being left either at his or her last known place of residence or on board any ship to which such party may belong, shall be deemed to have been sufficiently served; and upon his, her, or their appearance or default, any 2 justices may proceed to the examination of the matter, and, upon due proof that the said goods are liable to forfeiture under this or any act relating to the customs, may condemn the said goods.—Sect. 84.

Persons on Commotion to forfeit 100l. or if seafaring Men to be sent into the Navy for 5 years.—It shall be lawful for any 2 or more justices of the peace before whom any person liable to be detained, and who shall have been detained, for any offence against any act relating to the customs, shall be brought, either on the evidence of such person of such offence, or on proof thereof upon the oaths of 1 or

more credible witness or witnesses, to convict such person of any such offence: and every such person so convicted shall, immediately upon such conviction, pay into the hands of such justices, for the use of His Majesty, the penalty of 100*l.* without any mitigation whatever, for any such offence of which he shall be so convicted as aforesaid; and in default thereof the said justices shall be authorised and required, by warrant under their hands and seals, to commit such person so convicted, and making such default to any gaol or prison, there to remain until such penalty be paid: provided, that if the person convicted of such offence or offences be a seafaring man, and fit and able to serve in His Majesty's naval service, and shall not prove that he is not a subject of his Majesty, it shall be lawful for any such justices, and they are hereby required, in lieu of such penalty, to order any officer of the army, navy, or marine, employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full pay, or any officer of customs or excise, to carry or convey, or cause to be carried or conveyed, such person on board any of his Majesty's ships, in order to his serving in the naval service for the term of 5 years; and if such person shall at any time within that period escape or desert from such custody or service, he shall be liable at any time afterwards to be again arrested and detained, and delivered over to complete his service of 5 years; provided also, that if it shall be made to appear to any such justices that no convenient arrangement cannot be made at the time of the conviction of the said party for immediately carrying or conveying such seafaring man so convicted on board any of his Majesty's ships, it shall be lawful for such justices to commit such convicted seafaring man to any prison or gaol, there to remain in safe custody for any period not exceeding 1 month, that time may be given to make arrangements for conveying him to one of H. M. ships; provided also, that the commissioners of the treasury, or any 3 or more of them, shall have full power to remit or mitigate any such penalty, punishment, or service, whether the parties be seafaring men or otherwise. —Sect. 85.

Justices may amend Informations.—If any person shall be prosecuted against under this or any other act relating to the customs or excise, and the information exhibited against such person shall charge him as being a seafaring man, and fit and able to serve his Majesty in his naval service, and it shall appear to the justices before whom such person is brought that he is guilty of the offence with which he is charged, but that he is not fit for the naval service, then and in such case it shall be lawful for such justices, and they are hereby required, to amend such information accordingly, and to convict such person in the penalty of 100*l.* as if proceeded against as not being a seafaring man or fit for the naval service.—Sect. 86.

If Persons convicted, and sent on board H. M. Ships, be found such, they may be again conveyed before Magistrates, and convicted in the Penalty of 100l. If any person so convicted as a seafaring man, and carried on board any ship of war, shall, on examination by any surgeon or surgeons of H. M. navy, within 1 month after being so carried on board, be found to be unfit, and shall be refused on that account to be entered into H. M. service, such person shall, as soon as conveniently may be, be brought before any justice of the peace, and upon proof that he was so refused to be received on board any of H. M. ships as unfit for service, such justice shall, and he is hereby authorised and required to call upon the said person to pay the penalty of 100*l.* without hearing any evidence other than such proof as last aforesaid; and in default of immediate payment of the same to the said justice, for the use of his Majesty, to commit the said person to any gaol or prison till such penalty be paid: provided always, that no person so convicted, and ordered to serve on board any of H. M. ships, shall be sent away from the U. K. on board such ship in less than 1 month from the date of such conviction.—Sect. 87.

As to Jurisdiction in Boroughs.—Where any offence against this or any other customs act shall be committed in any city, borough, liberty, division, franchise, or town corporate, any justice of such city, borough, &c. and any justices of any county in which such city, borough, &c. is situated, shall have jurisdiction to hear and determine upon the same.—Sect. 88.

Magistrate of an adjoining County may act with One of the County where Offence committed.—Where the attendance of 2 magistrates having jurisdiction in the county where the offence is committed cannot be conveniently obtained, a magistrate of any adjoining county, with 1 magistrate of the county in which the offence was committed, may hear and determine any information exhibited before them, and have the same powers and authorities in all respects as to any proceeding had under any act relating to the customs, as if they were both magistrates for the county in which the offence was committed.—Sect. 89.

Writs of Certiorari and Habeas Corpus not to be issued except on Affidavit.—No writ of *certiorari* shall issue from the Court of King's Bench to remove any proceedings before any justice or justices of the peace under any act for the prevention of smuggling or relating to the customs, nor shall any writ of *habeas corpus* issue to bring up the body of any person convicted before any justice or justices of the peace under any such act, unless the party against whom such proceeding shall have been directed, or who shall have been so convicted, or his attorney or agent, shall state in an affidavit in writing, to be duly sworn, the grounds of objection to such proceedings or conviction, and that upon the return to such writ of *certiorari* or *habeas corpus* no objection shall be taken or considered other than such as shall have been stated in such affidavit; and it shall be lawful for any justice or justices of the peace to amend any information, conviction, or warrant of commitment for any offence under any such act at any time, whether before or after conviction.—Sect. 90.

Informations, &c. to be in the Form given in the Schedule.—All information before justices of the peace for any offences committed against this or any other act relating to the customs, and all convictions for such offences, and warrants of justices of the peace founded upon such convictions, shall be in the form or to the effect in the schedule to this act annexed.—Sect. 91.

Informations, &c. deemed valid if Offence is set forth in the Words of this Act.—Every information for any penalty or forfeiture, and every conviction or warrant of commitment for any penalty, shall be deemed valid and sufficient, in which the offence for which such penalty shall have been inflicted, or the cause of such forfeiture, is set forth in the words of this act.—Sect. 92.

Powers of Justices to be exercised by Governors or Deemsters of the Isle of Man.—All the powers vested in any justices or justice of the peace by virtue of this act are hereby vested in and may be exercised, in the Isle of Man, by any governor, deputy governor, or deemster of the Isle of Man, so far as regards offences committed against or penalties or forfeitures incurred by this or any other act relating to the customs.—Sect. 93.

Penalties, &c. to be paid to Commissioners of Customs, &c.—All penalties and forfeitures which may be recovered before any justices of the peace under this or any other act relating to the customs or excise, or any prosecution by order of the commissioners of customs, shall be paid to said commissioners of customs, and so any prosecution by order of the commissioners of excise shall be paid to said commissioners of excise, or to the person appointed by them respectively to receive the same; and such penalties and forfeitures shall be applied by the said commissioners respectively in such manner as the law directs, any thing contained in an act passed in the 3 Geo. 4. c. 53, intituled "An Act for the more effectual Administration of the Office of a Justice of the Peace in and near the Metropolis, and for the more effectual Prevention of Depredations on the River Thames and its Vicinity, for Seven Years," or any other act now in force or hereafter to be made, to the contrary in any wise notwithstanding.—Sect. 94.

Capias may issue against Persons sued under this Act, who are to give Bail.—Whenever penalty shall be sued for as aforesaid by information against any person in any court of record at Westminster, Dublin, or Edinburgh, a *capias* may thereupon issue as the first process, specifying the amount of the penalty sued for; and such person against whom such *capias* shall issue shall be obliged to give sufficient bail or security by natural born subjects or denizens, to the person or persons to whom such *capias* shall be directed, to appear in the court out of which such *capias* shall issue, at the day of the return of such writ, to answer such suit and prosecution, and shall likewise at the time of such appearing give sufficient bail or security, by such persons as aforesaid, in the said court, to answer and pay all the forfeitures and penalties incurred for such offence or offences in case he, she, or they shall be convicted thereof, or to yield his, her, or their body or bodies to prison.—Sect. 95.

Persons in Gaol not appearing or pleading to the Information, Judgment may be entered by Default.—If any person against whom a capias shall issue out of any court of record shall be arrested upon such capias, and taken to prison for want of sufficient bail, a copy of the information exhibited against such person shall be served upon him or her in gaol, or delivered to the gaoler, keeper, or turnkey of the prison in which such person shall be confined; and if such person shall neglect or refuse to appear or plead to the said information for the space of 20 days, judgment shall be entered by default; and in case judgment shall be obtained against any such person or persons by default, verdict, or otherwise, and he or they shall not pay the sum recovered for his or their offence, execution shall be issued, not only against the body or bodies of the person or persons, but against all their real and personal estates, for the sum, or sums recovered against him, her, or them.—Sect. 96.

Persons not worth 5l. may defend Suits in forma pauperis.—In case any person arrested and imprisoned by virtue of any writ of *capias* shall make affidavit before the court where the information is brought, or before any other person commissioned to take affidavits in such court, that he or she is not worth, over and above his or her wearing apparel, the sum of 5*l.* (which affidavit the judge or judges of such court, and such person so commissioned, is authorised and required to take,) and such person shall petition such court to defend himself or herself *in forma pauperis*, then the judge or judges of such court shall, according to their discretion, admit such person to defend himself or herself against such information in the same manner and with the same privileges as they are by law directed and authorised to admit poor subjects to commence actions for the recovery of their rights; and for that end and purpose the judges of such courts shall assign counsel learned in the law, and appoint an attorney and clerk, to advise and carry on any legal defence that such person can make against such action or information, and which said counsel, attorney, and clerk, is and are hereby required to give his and their advice and assistance to such person, and to do their duties without fee or reward.—Sect. 97.

Sheriff to grant special Warrant on Writ of Capias.—Where any writ of *capias* or other process shall issue out of any court, directed to any sheriff, mayor, bailiff, or other person having the execution of process in any county, city, or liberty, against any person guilty of any offence against this or any act relating to the customs, every such sheriff, mayor, or bailiff, and other persons having execution of process as aforesaid, and their under sheriffs, deputies, and other persons acting for them, shall and are hereby enjoined and required, upon the request or application of the solicitor for the customs, (such request to be in writing, and indorsed upon the back of the said process, and signed by such solicitor or his name of office,) or solicitor for the customs,) to grant a special warrant or warrants to the person or persons named to them by such solicitor, for apprehending such offender or offenders; or in default thereof every such sheriff, mayor, &c. acting in said office or offices shall be subject to such process of contempt, fines, &c. as they or any of them are now by any law, custom, or usage liable to in case of refusing or neglecting to execute the like process where the defendant might have been taken in the common and usual method of proceeding.—Sect. 98.

Sheriff indemnified from Escapes.—All and every such sheriff, mayor, bailiff, under-sheriff, and other persons so granting or making out such special warrant as aforesaid, are hereby indemnified against his Majesty, his heirs and successors, and against all and every other person whomsoever, of and from all escapes of any person or persons taken by virtue of any such warrant as aforesaid, which shall happen from the time of taking such offender or offenders till he, she, or they be committed to the proper gaol or prison, or offered and tendered to the gaol-keeper, or other person having charge of such gaol or prison, (who is hereby enjoined and required to receive every such person or persons, and give a receipt for his, her, or their body or bodies,) and of and from all actions, prosecutions, process of contempt, and other proceedings for or by reason of such escape, any law, custom, or usage to the contrary notwithstanding.—Sect. 99.

No Claim or Appearance to be entered unless in the Name of the Owner.—No claim shall be permitted to be entered to, and no appearance shall be permitted to be entered to, any information filed for the forfeiture of any vessel, boat, or goods seized for any cause of forfeiture, and returned into any court of record, unless such claim or appearance is entered in the true and real name or names of the owner or owners, proprietor or proprietors of such vessel, boat, or goods, describing the place of residence and the business or profession of such person or persons, and if such person or persons shall reside at London, Edinburgh, or Dublin, or within the liberties thereof, oath shall be made by him, her, or them before 1 of the judges of the court into which the said vessel, boat, or goods are returned, or in which such information is filed, that the said vessel, boat, or goods was or were really and truly the property of him, her, or them at the time of such seizure; but if such person or persons shall not be resident in London, Edinburgh, or Dublin, or the liberties thereof, then and in such case oath shall be made in like manner by the agent

attorney or solicitor by whom such claim or appearance shall be entered, that he has full power and legal authority and directions from such owners or proprietor to enter such claim or appearance, and that to the best of his knowledge and belief such vessel, boat, or goods were, at the time of the seizure thereof, *bona fide* and truly the real property of the person or persons in whose name or names such claim or appearance is entered; and on failure thereof, the vessel, boat, or goods shall be absolutely condemned, and judgment shall be entered thereon by default, in the same manner as if no claim or appearance had been entered thereto; and every person who shall be convicted of making or taking a false oath to any of the facts hereinbefore directed or required to be sworn shall be deemed guilty of perjury, and shall be liable to the pains and penalties to which persons are liable for wilful and corrupt perjury.—Sect. 100.

Owners to give Security for Costs.—Upon the entry of any claim to any boat or vessel, or to any goods, seized for any cause of forfeiture, or of any appearance to any information filed for such forfeiture, the person or persons who enter the claim or appearance as the owner or proprietor thereof, (in case such claimant shall reside in the U. K.) shall be bound, with 2 other sufficient sureties, in the penalty of 100*l.* to answer and pay the costs occasioned by such claim or appearance; and if such owner or proprietor shall not reside in the U. K., then the attorney or solicitor by whose direction such claim shall be entered, shall be bound, with two other sufficient sureties, in the like penalty, to answer and pay the costs occasioned by such claim or appearance.—Sect. 101.

If Suit brought on account of Seizure, and Judge certify there was probable Cause, Plaintiff to have 2d. Damages, without Costs.—In case any information or suit be commenced or brought to trial on account of the seizure of any vessel, boat, or goods, merchandise, or commodities whatsoever, or any horses or other animals, or any carriage, seized as forfeited by this or any act relating to the customs, wherein a verdict shall be found for the claimant thereof, and it shall appear to the judge or court before whom the same is tried, that there was a probable cause of seizure, such judge or court shall certify in the record that there was such probable cause, and in such case the person who made such seizure shall not be liable to any action, indictment, or other suit or prosecution on account of such seizure; and in case any action, indictment, or other suit or prosecution shall be commenced, and brought to trial against any person or persons whatsoever, on account of any such seizure as aforesaid, wherein a verdict shall be given against the defendant or defendants, if the court or judge before whom such information or suit be tried shall have certified that there was a probable cause for such seizure, then the plaintiff, besides the things seized, or the value thereof, shall not be entitled to above 2*d.* damages, nor to any costs of suit, nor shall the defendant in such prosecution be fined above 1*s.*—Sect. 102.

No Process to be sued out against any Officer, until 1 Calendar Month after Notice.—No writ shall be sued out against, nor a copy of any process served upon, any officer of the army, navy, marines, customs, or excise, or against any person acting under the direction of the commissioners of customs, for any thing done in the execution of or by reason of his office, until 1 calendar month next after notice in writing has been delivered to him, or left at his usual place of abode, by the attorney or agent for the party who intends to sue out such writ or process, in which notice shall be clearly and explicitly contained the cause of action, the name and place of abode of the person who is to bring such action, and the name and place of abode of the attorney or agent; and a fee of 20*s.* shall be paid for preparing or serving every such notice, and no more.—Sect. 103.

No evidence to be adduced but what is contained in the Notice.—No plaintiff in any case where an action shall be grounded on any act done by the defendant shall be permitted to produce any evidence of the cause of such action, except such as shall be contained in the notice to be given as aforesaid, or shall receive any verdict against such officer or person, unless he prove on the trial of such action that such notice was given; and in default of such proof, the defendant shall receive a verdict and costs.—Sect. 104.

Officer may tender Amends.—It shall be lawful for any officer or other person to whom such notice has been given, at any time within 1 calendar month after such notice, to tender amends to the party complaining, or to his, her, or their agent or attorney, and in case the same is not accepted, to plead such tender in bar to any action brought against him, grounded on such writ or process, together with the plea of Not Guilty, and other pleas, with leave of the court; and if, upon issue joined thereon, the jury shall find the amends so tendered to have been sufficient, then they shall give a verdict for the defendant; and in such case, or in case the plaintiff shall become nonsuited, or discontinue his, her, or their action, or in case judgment shall be given for such defendant upon demurrer, then such defendant shall be entitled to the like costs as he would have been entitled to in case he had pleaded the general issue only; but if, upon issue joined, the jury shall find that no amends were tendered, or that the same were not sufficient, or shall find against the defendant in such other plea or pleas, then they shall give a verdict for the plaintiff, and such damages as they shall think proper, together with his, her, or their costs of suit.—Sect. 105.

Neglecting to tender Amends, may pay Money into Court.—In case such officer or other person shall neglect to tender any amends, or shall have tendered insufficient amends, before the action brought, it shall be lawful for him, by leave of the court at any time before the trial of the said action, to pay into court such sum of money as he shall see fit, whereupon such proceedings, orders, and judgments shall be had, made, and given in and by such court as in other actions where the defendant is allowed to pay money into court.—Sect. 106.

Action to be commenced within 6 Months after Cause of Action has arisen.—If any action or suit be brought or commenced as aforesaid, such action or suit shall be brought or commenced within 6 months next after the cause of action shall have arisen, and not afterwards, and shall be laid and tried in the county or place where the facts were committed, and not in any other county or place; and the defendant or defendants shall and may plead the general issue, and give the special matter in evidence, at any trial had thereupon; and if the plaintiff or plaintiffs be nonsuited, or discontinue his, her, or their action or suit, or if, upon a verdict or demurrer, judgment be given against them, the defendant or defendants shall or may receive treble costs, and have such remedy for the same as any defendant or defendants in other cases where costs are given by law.—Sect. 107.

Judges of the King's Bench may issue Warrants for apprehending Offenders.—Whenever any person shall be charged with any offence against this or any act relating to the customs, or for which he or she may be prosecuted by indictment or information in the Court of King's Bench, and the same shall be made appear to any judge of the same court, by affidavit or by certificate of an information or indictment being filed against such person in the said court for such offence, it shall and may be lawful for such judge to issue his warrant under his hand and seal, and thereby to cause such person to be apprehended, and brought before him, or some other judge of the same court, or before some 1 justice of the peace, in order to his or her being bound, with 2 sufficient sureties, in such sum as in the said warrant shall be expressed, with condition to appear in the said court at the time mentioned in such warrant, and to answer to all and singular indictments or informations for any such offence; and in case any such person shall neglect or refuse to become bound as aforesaid, it shall be lawful for such judge or justice to commit such person to the common gaol of the county, city, or place where the offence has been committed, or where he or she shall have been apprehended, to remain until he or she shall become bound, or be discharged by order of the court in term time, or of 1 of the judges of the court in vacation; and the recognizance to be taken shall be returned and filed in the said court, and shall continue in force until such person shall be acquitted of such offence, or in case of conviction shall have received judgment for the same, unless sooner ordered by the court to be discharged; and where any person, either by virtue of such warrant of commitment aforesaid, or by virtue of any writ of *capias ad respondendum* issued out of the said court, is now detained, or shall be committed to and detained in any gaol for want of bail, it shall be lawful for the prosecutor of such indictment or information to cause a copy thereof to be delivered to such person, or to the gaoler, keeper, or turnkey of the gaol wherein such person is detained, with a notice thereon indorsed, that unless such person shall, within 8 days from the time of such delivery of said copy, cause an appearance and also a plea or demurrer to be entered in court to such indictment or information, an appearance and the plea of Not Guilty will be entered thereto in the name of such person; and in case he or she shall, for the space of 8 days after the delivery of a copy of such indictment or information, neglect to cause an appearance, and also a plea or demurrer, to be entered in the said court to such indictment or information, it shall be lawful for the prosecutor, upon affidavit being made and filed in the court of the delivery of a copy of such indictment or information, with such notice indorsed thereon as aforesaid, to such person or to such gaoler, keeper, or turnkey, as the case may be, which affidavit may be made before any judge or commissioner of the court authorised to take affidavits, to cause an appearance and the plea of Not Guilty to be entered to such indictment or information for such person; and such proceedings shall be had thereupon as if the defendant appeared and pleaded Not Guilty, according to the usual course of the court; and if, upon trial, any defendant so committed and detained be acquitted of all the offences therein charged upon him or her, it shall be lawful for the judge before whom such trial shall be had, although he may not be one of the judges of the King's Bench, to order that such defendant be discharged out of custody, as to his or her commitment as aforesaid, and such defendant shall be thereupon discharged accordingly.—Sect. 108.

When Recognizance is given, and the Party shall not plead, a Copy of the Information or Indictment may be delivered to his Attorney or Agent.—Where any person arrested by virtue of a warrant issued as aforesaid, enters into a recognizance, and appears in court at the return of the said recognizance, but does not afterwards plead to the information or indictment, it shall be lawful for the prosecutor to cause a copy thereof to be delivered to such person, or to his or her attorney or agent, or to be left at his or her last place of abode, with a notice thereon indorsed, that unless such person shall, within 8 days from the time of such delivery, cause a plea to be entered in court to such information or indictment, the prosecutor will enter a plea of Not Guilty on his or her behalf; and upon affidavit being made and filed in the court of the delivery of a copy of such information or indictment, with notice indorsed thereon as aforesaid, to such person, or to his or her attorney or agent, or at his or her last place of abode, as the case may be, it shall be lawful for the prosecutor to cause the plea of Not Guilty to be entered to such information or indictment for such person, and such proceedings shall be had thereupon as if the defendant had pleaded according to the usual course of the said court.—Sect. 109.

Certain Articles not to be landed until the Dues of the City of London are paid.—If all or any of the goods of the description hereinafter mentioned, (that is to say,) firkins of butter, tons of cheese, fish, eggs, salt, fruit, roots eatable, and onions, brought coastwise into the port of the said city, and which are liable to the said dues, shall be landed or unshipped at or in the said port before a proper certificate of the payment of the said duties shall have been obtained, such goods shall be forfeited, and may be seized by any officer of customs empowered to seize goods landed without due entry; and such forfeiture may be sued for, prosecuted, and recovered by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information in any court of record, at Westminster, in the name of the chamberlain of the said city, on behalf of the mayor, commonalty, and citizens.—Sect. 110.

When Offenders are arrested and give Bail, the Bail Bond to be assigned to his Majesty.—If any person shall be arrested by a writ of *capias ad respondendum* issuing out of any court of record, or out of any of the superior courts of record of either of the counties palatine, at the suit of his Majesty, and the sheriff or other officer shall take bail from such person, he shall, at the request and charge of the prosecutor, assign to his Majesty, his heirs and successors, the bail bond taken from such person, by indorsing the same, and attesting it under his hand and seal, in the presence of 2 or more credible witnesses, which may be done without any stamp, provided the assignment so indorsed be duly stamped before any suit be commenced thereupon; and if such bail bond be forfeited, such process shall thereupon issue as on bonds originally made to his Majesty, his heirs and successors; and the court in which such bail bond is put in suit may give such relief to the defendant or defendants as is agreeable to justice and reason.—Sect. 111.

Indictments to be preferred by Order of the Commissioners.—No indictment shall be preferred or suit commenced for the recovery of any penalty or forfeiture under this or any other act relating to the customs or excise (except in the cases of persons detained and carried before 1 or more justices in pursuance of this act) unless such suit be commenced in the name of the attorney general, or of the lord advocate of Scotland, or unless such indictment be preferred under the direction of the commissioners of customs or excise, or unless such suit be commenced in the name of some officer of customs or excise, under the direction of the said commissioners respectively.—Sect. 112.

The Attorney-general or Lord Advocate may sign a Nolle prosequi.—If any prosecution whatever be commenced for the recovery of any fine, penalty, or forfeiture incurred under this or any other act relating to the customs or excise, it shall be lawful for the attorney-

...ground, or for the lord advocate of Scotland, if he is satisfied that ... &c. was incurred without any intention of fraud, or that ... suspicient to proceed in the said prosecution, to stop all further ... proceedings by entering a *nolle prosequi*, or otherwise, on such infor... mation, to wit: with respect to the share of one fine, penalty, or ... forfeiture to which any officer or officers may be entitled, as to the ... whole share thereof.—Sect. 113.

Proof of Payment of Duties, or of the lawful Importation of Goods to lie on the Owner.—If any goods be seized for nonpayment of duties, or other cause of forfeiture, and any dispute arise whether the customs, excise, or inland duties have been paid for the same, or ... the same have been lawfully imported, or concerning the place ... whence such goods were brought, the proof thereof shall be on the ... owner or claimer of such goods, and not on the officer seizing and ... prosecuting the same.—Sect. 114.

No Justice connected with the Collection of the Revenue to interfere in such Matters; Convictions.—No justice of the peace being a collector or comptroller, or otherwise connected with the customs or excise, shall take cognizance of any matter relating to summary convictions of persons offending against this or any other customs act.—Sect. 115.

Approval of certain Matters to be sufficient.—In case of any information or proceedings had under any act relating to the customs, ... be averred that the commissioners of customs or excise have directed or elected such information or proceedings to be instituted, or ... that any vessel is foreign, or belonging wholly or in part to H. M. ... subjects, or that any person detained or found on board any vessel or ... boat liable to seizure, is or is not a subject of his Majesty, or that any ... person detained is or is not a seafaring man, or fit or able to serve in ... the naval service, or that any person is an officer of customs, and ... where the offence is committed in any part of the U. K., the naming ... of such part in any information or proceedings, shall be sufficient ... without proof as to such fact or facts, unless defendant prove to the ... contrary.—Sect. 116.

Persons prosecuting Smuggling to be deemed duly employed.—All persons employed for the prevention of smuggling under the commissioners of customs, or of any officer or officers in the service of the customs, shall be deemed and taken to be duly employed for the prevention of smuggling; and the averment, in any information or suit, that such party was so duly employed, shall be sufficient proof thereof, unless the defendant prove to the contrary.—Sect. 117.

Vote was Evidence may be given.—If upon any trial a question shall arise whether any person is an officer of the army, navy, or marines, duly employed for the prevention of smuggling, and on full proof of an officer of customs or excise, evidence of his having acted as such shall be deemed sufficient, and such person shall not be required to produce his commission or deputation, unless sufficient proof be given to the contrary; and every such officer, and any person acting in his aid or assistance, shall be a competent witness upon the trial of any suit or information on account of any seizure or penalty, notwithstanding such officer or person may be entitled to the whole or any part of such seizure or penalty, or to any reward upon conviction of the party charged in such suit or information.—Sect. 118.

What deemed sufficient Evidence of an Order of Commissioners of Customs or Excise.—Upon the trial of any issue, or upon any judicial hearing or investigation touching any penalty or forfeiture under any law or laws relating to the customs or excise, or to the law of navigation, where it may be necessary to give proof of any order issued by the commissioners of the treasury, or by the commissioners of customs or excise, the letter or instructions officially received by the officer of customs or excise at the place or district where such penalty or forfeiture was incurred, or shall be alleged to have been incurred, for his government, and in which such order is mentioned or referred to, and under which instructions he shall have acted, shall be admitted and taken as sufficient evidence and proof of such order to all intents and purposes whatsoever.—Sect. 119.

Within what Time Suits, &c., are to be exhibited.—All suits, indictments, or informations exhibited for any offence against this or any other act relating to the customs in any court of record at Westminster, or in Dublin, or in Edinburgh, or in the royal courts of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, or Man, shall and may be had, brought, sued, or exhibited within three years next after the date of the offence committed, and shall and may be exhibited before 1 or more justices of the peace within 6 months next after the date of the offence committed.—Sect. 120.

Information may be exhibited any Time after 6 Months.—Where any person shall have been detained for any offence against this or any other customs act, and shall have made his escape from custody, an information may be exhibited before 1 or more justices of the peace against such person, for such offence, at any time afterwards, although more than 6 months have expired.—Sect. 121.

Indictments or Informations may be tried in any County.—Any indictment or information for any offence against this or any other customs act shall be inquired of, examined tried, and determined in any county of England where the offence is committed in England, and in any county in Scotland where the offence is committed in Scotland, and in any county in Ireland where the offence is committed in Ireland, in such manner and form as if the offence had been committed in the said county where the said indictment or information shall be tried.—Sect. 122.

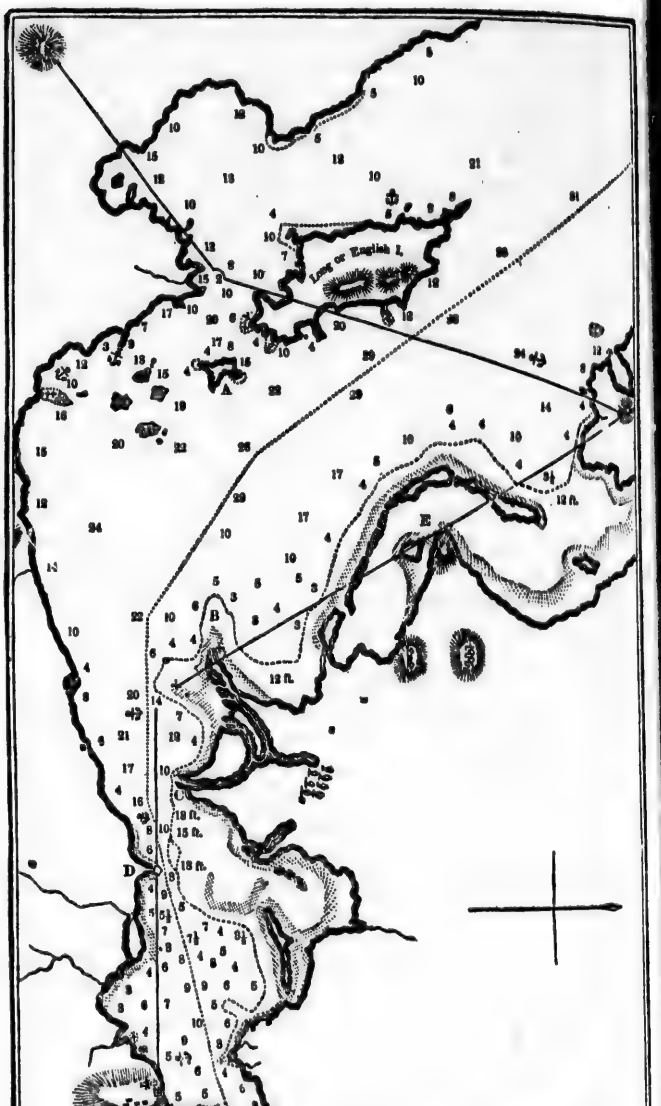
(The 85th clause in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 53., for the prevention of smuggling (*ante*, p. 524.), authorising justices to sentence seafaring men, convicted of smuggling, to serve in the navy for 5 years, has been repealed. Persons convicted of such offences are now to be committed to the house of correction, to hard labour, for not less than 6 months for the first offence, 9 for the second, and 12 for the third.—(4 & 5 *Will.* 4. c. 13. § 2.)

Boats used in fishing on the coasts of Scotland are not required to have licences.—(6 & 7 *Will.* 4. c. 60. § 8.)

Magistrates are authorised to commit offenders convicted of offences against the customs' laws to the nearest house of correction.—(§ 9.)—*Sup.*)

[Concerning frauds on the customs, and penalties for breach of the revenue laws of the United States, see *Gordon's Digest of the Laws of the United States*, book 9th, chapter 16th, section 4th.—*Am. Ed.*]

SMYRNA, a large city and sea-port of Asiatic Turkey, on the western side of Asia Minor, lat. 38° 25′ 36″ N., lon. 27° 6′ 45″ E. Population, probably, about 120,000; of whom 60,000 may be Turks, 40,000 Greeks, and the remainder Armenians, Franks, Jews, &c. Smyrna is situated at the bottom of a deep gulf; the entrance to which lies between the island of Mytilene on the north, and Cape Carabourun, in lat. 38° 41′ 30″ N., lon. 26° 21′ E., on the south. The woodcut on the next page gives a better idea of the gulf of Smyrna than could be derived from any description. The dotted line shows the course inwards. The passage between James's Castle (D) on the south and the opposite sand bank is narrow; but there is from 9 to 10 fathoms water, with a blue clay bottom. Merchant ships anchor abreast of the city in from 7 to 8 fathoms; but the water is so deep that they may come close to the quays. The *inbat* or sea breeze blows from morning till evening, and is always waited for by ships going up to the city. There is excellent anchorage in most parts of the gulf, merely avoiding the shoals on the ... side. Smyrna is a place of great antiquity. The excellence of its port, and its admirable situation, have made it be several times rebuilt, after being destroyed by earthquakes. On approaching it from the sea, it has the appearance of an amphitheatre: the castle is at the back of the town, which it commands, on the top of the hill; but it is in a state of decay, and could oppose no resistance to an invading force. The interior of the city does not correspond to its external appearance; the streets being, for the most part, narrow, dirty, and ill paved. Owing to the want of cleanliness, and of all sorts of precautions, on the part of the Turks, Smyrna is frequently visited by the plague. So late as 1814, from 50,000 to 60,000 of the inhabitants are said to have been cut off by this dreadful scourge. The trade of this city is more extensive than that of any other in the Turkish empire. The caravans from Persia are chiefly composed of Armenians. They arrive and depart at fixed periods, which are nearly identical with those of the arrival and departure of most of the foreign ships frequenting the port. Bargains are principally effected by Jew brokers, many of whom have amassed considerable fortunes. The principal articles of import consist of grain, furs, iron, butter, &c. from Odessa and Taganrog and of cotton stuffs and twist, silk and woollen goods, coffee, sugar, cochineal, and dye



References to Plan.—A, Partridge Island, on the south side of which there is excellent anchorage in from 15 to 7 fathoms, muddy bottom. B, a mud point. C, Pelican Point. D, James's Castle. E, Low narrow islands. Soundings, except where otherwise marked, in fathoms.

goods, iron, tin, and tin plates, rum, brandy, paper, cheese, glass, wine, &c. from Great Britain, France, Italy, the United States, &c. The exports consist principally of raw silk and cotton, fruits—particularly raisins; opium, rhubarb, and a variety of drugs and gums; olive oil, madder roots, Turkey carpets, valonia, sponge, galls, wax, copper, hare skins, goats' wool, safflower, &c.—(For further details, see *Tournefort, Voyage du Levant*, tome ii. pp. 485–507. 4to edit.; and *Macgill's Travels in Turkey*, vol. i. Letters 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9.)

Monies, Weights, and Measures, same as at Constantinople; which see. Accounts are kept in piastres of 40 paras, or medini. The value of the piastre fluctuates according to the exchange. It has been very much degraded; and is at present worth about 4d. The oke is the principal weight used. It is equivalent to 2 lbs. 13 oz. 5 dr. avoirdupois; 45 okes = 1 kinta = 100 rottolos = 127·48 lbs. avoirdupois. The kintal of Constantinople is only 44 okes. A teffee of silk = 4½ lbs. avoirdupois. A chequee of opium = 1½ lb.; a chequee of goats' wool = 5½ lbs. Corn is measured by the killow = 1·05 Winch. bushel. The pic, or long measure, = 27 Eng. inches.—(*Kelly's Cambist, &c.*)

Commerce of Smyrna.—The following details with respect to the commerce of Smyrna with Western Europe are copied from a letter addressed by an intelligent English merchant, established in Smyrna, to his correspondent in London, to whom we are indebted for it. Nothing so complete or satisfactory has ever been published as to the trade of this emporium. It is right, however, to mention, that since [illegible] when this paper was drawn up, the commerce of Smyrna has lost some of its importance. Syria, the islands of the Archipelago, the eastern parts of Greece, &c. used formerly to derive a considerable part of their supplies of foreign produce at second hand from Smyrna; but they now, for the most part, are either supplied direct from England, Marseilles, &c., or indirectly from Syria, which is become a considerable *depôt*.

Charges on Selling and Buying.—As we conceive that a correct list of selling and buying charges is an essential piece of information for those interested in the commerce of the Levant, we annex the same, including every item of expense, namely:—

On Selling.

	Per cent.
Freight (according to the rate agreed upon in England) say	2
Custom duty (on general goods)	3
Portorage from 1 to 2 piastres per package (according to the size).	
Brokerage	0 1-2
House and street brokerage	2
Commission for effecting sale	3
Disc. if proceeds are remitted by bill or specie	1 1-2
Do. ditto (when required to be charged)	2
Warehouse rent	0 1-2

On Buying.

	Per cent.
Custom duty (according to the quality of the article)	1 to 3
Portorage (included in the cost of packages, which vary according to the quality of the goods packed).	
House and street brokerage	1 1-2
Commission (except on figs, which is 6 per cent.)	3
Warehouse rent	0 1-2

With regard to the cost of packages, those for silk are about 24 piastres each; for galls, 18 do.; gums mastic, tragacanth, &c., 20 do.; scammony, 18 do.; opium, 30 to 36 do.; raisins, 12 to 14 do.; figs, 25 to 30 paras; cotton wool, from 12 to 20 piastres, &c.

We learn from ——, that your firm deals largely in skins and furs, but he does not state the quality of either; the latter article is, however, of a very limited and ordinary nature wth us, and chiefly consists of hare skins, which are abundant and shipped in considerable quantities for the German and French markets. They are most plentiful during the winter season, when they are also cheaper and keep better than in the hot months of the year. Sheep, goat, lamb, and kid skins are plentiful, and are often in request for America; particularly the 2 latter when in season, which is, for lamb skins from the middle of March to the beginning of June, and for goat skins from November until April. We have no want of ox and cow hides, both dried and salted, the leather of which is said to be more pliable than those of Europe. They are now and then sent to Marseilles in small parcels; but as it would be difficult to convey, by a written description, the exact quality of those skins, we intend making up a little bale of such kinds as may for the moment be met with, and to forward it by an early vessel to London, when it shall be submitted to your inspection, with an invoice, and remain, if you think proper, at your disposal.

We now proceed to make you acquainted with the manner in which our sales, purchases, and barters are effected, together with the nature of sales made on credit or for cash, &c.

Sales are effected in this country between our house's brokers, and what is termed a street or outdoor broker; the former receiving their instructions from us, and the latter acting on behalf of the buyer. When the terms are mutually agreed upon, the real buyer and seller personally meet; and a bond or obligatory note stating the terms and amount of the transaction is drawn out and signed by the buyer, and when not much approved of, one or more signatures are required to the bond, who individually and collectively become responsible for the fulfilment of it.

Purchases are similarly made, except that the purchaser or agent himself, in the first instance, and his brokers, inspect the goods he is about to treat for: cash down is generally expected; and it is but seldom that a short credit of 1 or 2 couriers is obtained: it not unfrequently happens, also, that ¼ or even ½ of the purchase amount is advanced to the seller, when an insufficient quantity of the article wanted by the buyer is in the place, and which must then be procured from the interior or place of growth. The money advanced (which is to be returned if the quality does not suit) is sent by a confidential person on the part of the purchaser, accompanied either by the seller in person, or by some one representing him.

Barters are generally attended with delay, impediments, and sacrifices to the European agent who exchanges his constituents' goods for native produce, and are never completed without his paying a large portion in cash, which is mostly ½, sometimes even ¾, but never less than ¼ of the full amount; besides always paying a higher price for the produce than if it were bought for ready money. On the other hand, so far as the agent's transaction goes in goods, the price of which he also advances, it is equal to an advantageous cash sale, deducting a discount; but still he loses, as we have just stated, on that part of the operation which subjects him to the necessity of giving ready money for such part of the produce as remains above the counter-value given in goods, at a higher rate than it is worth in the open market. Thus the advantage is all in favour of this country, and against the agent. Indeed, barters are seldom undertaken unless when a profitable result is anticipated, when European goods are difficult to be placed upon saving conditions, either from the want of demand or a glutted market, or when (which is mostly the case) the holder of such goods has orders from the owners of them to remit them in produce, and thus realise their property, if not upon profitable terms, at least without the risk arising from bad debts; sometimes, also, outstanding bonds are taken in part payment, to the extent occasionally of ⅓; another ⅓ is taken in goods at an advance of from 5 to 10 or 12 per cent. above

current prices; and the remaining ½ in cash against produce, at from 5 to 10 per cent. more than it fetches in the bazaars. However, it is by barter alone that any extensive transaction ever takes place, or that it can be either readily or safely effected.

Sales on Credit.—The terms of credit vary considerably, and depend entirely upon the quality of the goods which the agent sells: for current or demanded merchandise, 2 couriers (or 2 periods of 15 days) and two and three 31 days, are the present terms; which are extended to four, five, and six 31 days for articles not much in request. Couriers mean post days; of which we have 2 in each month: at each courier, and 31 days, a proportionate payment becomes payable; for instance, on a credit of six 31 days, 1-6th falls due at the expiration of the first month; and if paid, is noted accordingly on the bond, and so on until the remaining 5 periods are expired; it must, however, be observed, that payments are by no means punctually made, except by a few of our more wealthy bazaar buyers, although for the first 3 or 4 periods of a long credit some regularity is observed; but as the time begins to shorten, payments are proportionably retarded, so that two 31 days on a bond of credit for 6 months may be considered as a fair average of time in addition to the limited term.

Sales for Cash.—Those very seldom occur, indeed, and then only when money is abundant, or the article sold scarce and in great demand; in fact, not 1 sale in 100 is made on these terms; and in about the same ratio is a discount taken off from a bazaar bond at even an exorbitant rate, however short the period may be that it has to run: occasionally a sale is, however, effected for ½ cash, and the other ½ short credit, for some very current goods.

Character of Dealers.—Before entering upon the articles of commerce, we are desirous of making you acquainted with the character and customs of our bazaar dealers. The Greek dealers are in general petty shopkeepers, very cunning, and very bad payers. The Jews have similar defects, but are well supported by their brethren, who generally become guarantee for each other. The Armenians are by far the largest traffickers both for buying and selling; and though hard bargainers, are mostly all solvent, and honourable as well as honest. The Turks are, however, as far superior to the foregoing races in all moral qualities, as they are inferior to them in means and commercial abilities; yet they sometimes deal largely, and their bond is as punctually discharged, in general, as the day comes when it falls due. The laws in this country mostly favour the debtor at the expense of the creditor; and so far they encourage dishonesty. The number of insolvent native dealers was at one time excessive; but of late the means of each individual buyer have been so carefully investigated, that at present we are not aware that there is one bazaar dealer who is not able to meet the demands of those from whom he has purchased. The European consuls, who enjoy much consideration by the Turks, protect the interests of their countrymen in disputed points; and, in general, questions of a commercial nature are submitted to the decision of a Turkish tribunal, where very little pleading but a good deal of plain straight-forward justice, goes forward; except that, *perhaps*, the European is, if any thing, rather less favoured than the native.

We now proceed to offer some observations on the leading articles of our imports and exports for your government, the correctness of which may be relied upon.

Imports.

Coffee.—This is by far the most current article received here, and is sent from England, France, Holland, Trieste, Marseilles, Leghorn, Genoa, and America; but first, and principally of late years, from the latter country; the vessels of which are frequently laden with coffee, and always partly so; the next in point of quantity comes from England; but is shipped mostly in small parcels at a time, of from 300 to 600 sacks, although occasionally that amount is doubled. France follows, but on a less extensive scale; and Austria, Holland, and the small ports in the south of Europe, do not together export more than what is received from England alone. We have 4 different qualities of coffee in our markets; namely, Mocha, St. Domingo, Havannah, and Brazil: the first is sent from Alexandria, and by American vessels, and but seldom from Europe; the consumption is, however, limited, and does not exceed 60,000 okes annually. At Constantinople, about 3 times that quantity is sold yearly. We never remember to have known such heavy importations of West India coffee as within these last 9 months (written in November, 1827); the consequence of which has been such an excess beyond the wants of the place, that not only buyers are fully supplied for some time to come, but also the heavy stock in first hands can only be diminished either by forced or ruinous sales, or must wait for 2 or 3 months, until the demand again comes round; which is, however, certain to take place, as coffee forms one of the necessaries of life in this country: in short, an Asiatic cannot do without his coffee; and it is well known that in Smyrna alone not less than perhaps 400,000 cups of it are daily drunk, which, computed at the cost price of 2 paras each, amount to 20,000 piastres! The St. Domingo and Havannah coffee are preferred to the Brazil, although, when the latter is of a fair round quality, there is not more than 5 per cent. difference in price; the small green West India berry certainly commands a ready sale; but, for the finest sort, not more than 6 or 8 per cent. can be obtained above the middling and sound quality. Coffee is amongst the very few articles which occasionally meet with a partial and entire cash sale and short credit; and is, moreover, from the means and character of the dealers in it, the least liable to risk from insolvency. It is also the easiest through which an advantageous barter can be effected, as a much larger quantity of coffee will be taken in exchange for produce than almost any other item of European merchandise. Annual consumption, about 3,000,000 okes.

Sugar is the next in consequence. This article is supplied from the same sources as coffee, and is attended in its disposal with similar results. We receive the following qualities:—White crushed, white Havannah, brown do., white East India, refined in small loaves of 4 lbs. and in large of 8 lbs. each: the 2 latter are mostly shipped from America and England. The brown and ordinary sorts are not so current. Annual consumption, 10,000 kintals.

Indigo follows the 2 preceding articles, not so much in extent as meeting a ready sale always, and not unfrequently a profitable one: it is attended likewise with all the advantages and facilities attached to coffee and sugar, and is furnished by Europe and America, but principally by England. The qualities we receive consist of East India purple and copper, ditto common, and Guatemala. The first of the 3 is the kind best adapted for our markets, and is placed sooner and better than the other 2; but, as is the case with coffee, the *very fine* will not pay cost price, and ought therefore never to be sent. The pieces suited for our buyers ought to be good sized, with about an equal proportion of purple and copper in each piece. The few chests on sale are all ordinary, and consequently dull; and the first arrival of 15 or 20 chests (and not more ought ever to be shipped at one time) of fair East India will meet with a ready and favourable sale at 20 piastres per oke. Annual consumption, 80 chests.

Manufactures.—This is, in point of amount, the most extensive branch of trade carried on in Turkey. We have, as you will perceive from our price current, a numerous assortment of British and East India cotton goods and English shalloons. The white or unprinted cotton goods are most in demand during the warm weather, and the coloured or printed stuffs during winter, although a considerable quantity of all sorts is regularly and largely sold throughout the whole year. The East India manufactures are supplied by America and England exclusively; the latter country also sends fair imitations of the East India loom, in long cloths, seersuckers, &c. The native consumers are exceedingly fastidious in their choice of designs and colours, which ought very frequently to be altered, in order to meet their capricious taste. Manufactured goods are always sold at long credits, but large barters are

...ders effected through them. A person desirous of entering into this item of our commerce is almost certain ultimately to reap an advantage; but he must have patience, a large capital, and must not be ...ntened at the first or second result of his enterprise, should it disappoint his hopes of profit. He must also enter into the thing with spirit, and keep his agent always supplied with the goods he may recommend; and he is to remember that many months must elapse before he can expect a return by bills of exchange, but sooner if he order a barter. The capital employed must also at least be to the amount of 20,000*l.* to do any good; and further, this sum ought to be disbursed by him without any pecuniary embarrassment or inconvenience. For a person willing to undertake such a step, he would require to be regularly furnished with patterns, and advices of the manner in which they ought to be ...ured and varied; and we again repeat, that with *competent means*, a real desire to follow the branch ...ly, and full information hence of what is required, a most extensive and finally lucrative busi... would be done: and we recommend the matter strongly to your best consideration. Annual con...ption of all kinds (British), about 367,300 pieces.

Cotton Twist forms no inconsiderable article in our trade, and is supplied exclusively from England. ...ite twist has, however, superseded, in some degree, the demand which formerly existed for water ...ist, and is consequently more in request. Water twist is nevertheless saleable, and both qualities ...ght to be of rather high numbers. This article is often given in barter, but mostly sold at rather long ...dits, and hardly ever for cash. Annual consumption of water twist, 10,000 okes; ditto of mule ...ist, 90,000 okes.

Iron in Bars, English, was formerly largely consumed; but from the buyers being plentifully sup...ied, it is at present but little demanded, even at the losing price of the day. Barters are very fre...ently effected through irons of all descriptions, and command a short credit, and sometimes a cash ...le. Annual consumption, 16,000 to 18,000 kintals.

Iron Plates are generally employed for building purposes, and store doors.

Iron Rods are always saleable.

Iron Hoops are most saleable in August, September, and October, for fruit and other export barrels.

Iron, Russia, and Swedish Bars.—These kinds are sent in rather large parcels, particularly the ...mer, and fetch a higher price than the English, owing to their malleable qualities, which render ...bour easier, and by that advantage command a preference: though the high price, beyond the Eng...h make, puts the two qualities upon a level, and commands a larger consumption of the latter. An...al consumption, 3,500 kintals.

Tutia Bars is a good, steady, saleable article; is often given on fair terms in barter, always disposed ...f on short credit, and now and then placed for cash. It comes from England exclusively. Annual ...nsumption, 830 to 1,000 barrels of 4 cwt. each.

Tutia Plates is attended with the foregoing advantages, and is also supplied by England alone. ...nual consumption, 1,200 double boxes.

Lead in Sheets, Pigs, and Shot.—These 3 items have lately, particularly shot, been sent from Ger...any, and prove dangerous competitors with the English; in consequence of which the thing is over...one, and we have more in market than meets the demand at losing prices.

Lead, Red and White.—These 2 articles have lately been much in request for the formation of paint. ...me large parcels of red have lately arrived, and sell well and currently, but we are altogether with...t white. The consumption of all sorts of lead has, however, considerably decreased of late years, ...nd is no longer forms an item of any great consequence in our trade.

Rum and Brandy.—Leeward Island and Jamaica are furnished by America and England; the former ...rticularly in the lower qualities, of which we have a full market at low prices. The better kind and ...andy are supplied from England, but do not obtain a proportionate advance compared with the com...on sorts. Brandy is but of limited demand, and 2 or 3 puncheons are sufficient at a time. It ought, ...s well as rum, to be deeply coloured. Annual consumption of rum, 300 puncheons.

Spices are all saleable in small parcels at a time, particularly pepper and pimento; the latter of ...hich, in small sound berries, is demanded at good prices. Nutmegs are very abundant, and offering ...ery low without finding purchasers. France, America, and England supply us with spices, but ...France more so in cloves than in other kinds; and it may be remarked that the qualities received from ...England are preferred. Credit on selling is generally short.

Cochineal is a fair article now and then in small qualities; and, when in demand, at times fetches ...good prices, occasionally a cash sale, and always one of the shortest credits. Annual consumption, ...4,500 okes.

In concluding our observations on imports, we could wish to impress the conviction, that a poor ...man's purpose cannot be answered in speculating *to* this country; for, should his circumstances re...quire a speedy remittance in bills, he must submit to a heavy sacrifice, in order to meet his wants, by ...selling his property for whatever it may fetch in cash; and such a measure cannot but be attended ...with very heavy loss. On the contrary, when an opulent person finds that his property cannot be ...realised at saving prices, he can afford to wait until a more favourable moment presents itself; and ...such a moment, in less than 12 months, is almost certain to arrive, when he retires his money with ...an advantage more than equal to any interest he could obtain for it in Europe.

That the rate of exchange has regularly advanced, and will continue to advance, is the natural re...sult of the continual deterioration of the Turkish specie. We remember when the piece of money ...denominated 'Mahmoudia,' passed at about its value, or nearly so, of 10 piastres: it rose to 95 soon ...afterwards; and the few which remain are at present worth 38 each. At the period we allude to (1812), ...the exchange on London was at 25 piastres the pound sterling; and until lately (owing to the great ...stagnation of trade, and to political events, which have lowered it), the rate has been up to 60. It ...cannot, however, increase beyond that rate more than 5 per cent., as it then will nearly be on a par ...with the value of the gold and silver current coin of the realm, when it will be better to remit in specie ...than by a bill at 63 piastres for 61 days' sight.* The rates of exchange fluctuate considerably, and a ...difference of ½ to 1 per cent. often occurs between one post day and another, and are attributable to the ...quantity or scarcity of paper in market: it is for this reason that the rate always decreases during the ...fruit season, which takes place at the latter end of August, and continues until the middle of October; ...when it rises again to meet the limited wants of drawers, and the larger demands of those remitters ...who did not ship fruit, and invest the funds of their employers in that article. These observations ...lead us to submit the question of the advantage which a person in Europe has in receiving *from* this ...country, instead of sending *to* it. Late extensive barters have proved to us, and which we have en...deavoured to show you, the unprofitable terms upon which they are conducted, were it only in pay...ment, and that in cash too, for at least ¼ of the amount, at a higher rate than was current; now this ...higher rate is, in itself, supposing the produce taken in barter to meet with a saving sale in Europe, ...of no small consideration;—then you have the advantage of drawing at a high exchange in making a ...purchase; and again you have the choice of selecting the good part of the produce, and of rejecting

* The exchange, partly from the further degradation of the coin, and partly from the balance of ...payments being against Smyrna, is now (February, 1834) 98 piastres to the pound sterling! This ...fluctuation of the exchange renders the holding of property upon a speculation for an advance very ...hazardous.

the inferior,—a choice which is not allowed in taking it in barter; lastly, the principal advantage i buying over bartering is, that you can avail yourself of a depression in the produce market, and effec your purchase upon easy terms; whereas, when a barter is proposed, it has the immediate effect o producing a general rise in the whole market, and also of engendering the most absurd pretensions o the part of produce holders, who are too conversant with commerce not to see that either the European house, wishing to barter, is in want of procuring returns for his principal, or else that the articles o produce wanted are in great demand in Europe—without which, the European agent would neve submit to take produce at so much higher a price than he could procure it for with cash! The onl time in which the person sending to this country can calculate upon a profitable return, is during the fruit season; and for that reason he ought to forward his shipments from Europe so as to meet the demand, and to be cashed by the beginning of August. A vessel from England hence is in genera from 40 to 50 days in performing her voyage; sometimes much less, and but seldom longer: good ought, if possible, always to be shipped in a fast and first class ship.

We now continue our remarks on the articles of our trade, and the following are some of them sen hence, and deserving of serious attention.

Exports.

Silk.—This is the richest raw article in our export trade with Europe in general, but almost exclu sively with England, which consumes nearly our entire produce. There are 3 different qualities, viz fine, middling, and coarse. Bales, adapted for the English market, are composed of the 3 qualities but the lesser quantity is of the coarse kind; at one time, all coarse was in request in London, but a present an assortment of the 3 qualities is preferred. When an order is given, it ought to be accom panied by a description of the quality required; and it is necessary to state that, for *all* of the finer without being mixed, a higher price is demanded. A bale contains 40 teffees; and, before bein packed, is carefully examined and approved of by competent native judges. Silk is produced a Brussa, a large city about 200 miles distant from Smyrna, whence it is forwarded by caravans to th different places of consumption, which are Constantinople and this town. Until very lately, almos the entire crop of silk came for sale to Smyrna, but at present the most considerable part is sent t Constantinople, where the price is higher; we have therefore here an advantage, not only in price but also in our manner of packing, which fetches 5 or 6 per cent. more in England than if packed i the capital. Silk is mostly a ready money article, though it sometimes may be had in small quantities at a short credit; or half cash and half 1 or 2 couriers: it is also now and then given in barter. An nual average produce, 2,500 bales, or about 480,000 lbs.*

Opium, in point of value, and as an article of speculation, hardly gives way to silk: but as it i largely shipped by Americans, and sent in smaller quantities to Holland, and the south of Europe, it i subject to much competition and variation of price, although we have invariably observed that th opening price of the new crop is always the lowest, which, however, is in some measure counterba lanced by the decrease in weight which occurs by keeping. This is also a cash article, and indeed sub ject to the same conditions as purchasing or bartering for silk; it nevertheless has one inferiority which the silk is not liable to—namely, a difference in the quality of the crops: last year, for instance opium was of a very bad kind, and hardly saleable in England; this year, though small, it is fine. O the Continent and in America, the small sort is preferred to the larger sized. We observe that, i England, the prices of opium fluctuate considerably; but we are not aware that, by holding it, any loss has ever happened,—another reason why a wealthy man only should embark in the Turkey trade It would be impossible, or at least difficult, and attended with much expense, to obtain a monopoly o the opium crop, as it is produced through some thousands of individuals, each one (and they are al poor) adding his produce; and when collected in sufficient quantities, it is brought to market by th natives, having each of them 1 or 2 baskets for sale. What might be done is this:—Send a person t the place of growth with ready money to purchase a certain but limited quantity, and which he ca do easily, if not hurried, to the extent of 50, or even 100 baskets, and upon terms of advantage, fro the simple fact that the collectors of it prefer to receive a remunerating price on the spot of growth rather than perform a long and expensive journey, with the chance of not finding purchasers imme diately. Opium is produced at sundry places in the interior, of from 10 to 30 days' distance hence but that grown at Caissar, about 600 miles from Smyrna, is the most esteemed, from its cleanness an good quality; it comes to market in June, and finishes about December or January. Annual averag produce, 3,000 baskets, or about 400,000 lbs.*

Drugs and Gums form one of our principal branches of commerce, and is almost entirely in the hand of the Jews. At present, gum Arabic and mastic are exceedingly scarce; and it is only when that i the case, or the demand for exportation is very brisk, that much variation exists in the price of drugs Trieste, and occasionally America, consume a considerable portion of gums, but the largest quanti goes to the English markets. Barters are often effected through this medium; but it is not attende with much advantage, as they are conducted by a race who never lose in any transaction they under take. It is impossible to ascertain the quantities of drugs received in Smyrna, and equally so to know the quantity remaining, as they are dispersed all over the city, and consumed so irregularly in Europe as bids defiance to all regular calculation.

Sponges have been, and still are, an article of considerable moment, particularly for the English mar kets, and are found about the islands in the Grecian Archipelago, brought here, and cleaned for export ation. They vary in price from 6 to 90 piastres per oke, according to fineness and quality: the bette sort alone answers for speculation, and which, it would appear, from the considerable quantity sen to London, turns to good account. The produce depends so entirely on chance, that no correct esti mate of the yearly quantity can be formed; however, we are seldom in want of a moderate supply.

Galls are shipped in considerable quantities for the English, German, and French markets; the in former, however, being the largest consumers: for England, the blue galls are those principally sen though the market there for their sale being dull and low, prices with us, moderate as they are com pared to last year, will still further decline, should a demand not spring up, of which there is no appear ance. Annual produce of all sorts, 5,300 kintals.

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* Since the period when this paper was drawn up, a considerable change has taken place in the sil and opium trade of Smyrna. A few years ago, the Turkish government so far receded from the free principles which pervade its commercial policy—(see Constantinople),—as to attempt the establish ment of monopolies of silk and opium; by compelling the producers of these articles to sell them at fixed and low price to the government agents, by whom they were afterwards disposed of at an ad vanced rate. But a plan of this sort could not be carried into effect in such a country as Turkey; an had, consequently, to be abandoned. A duty of nearly 10 per cent. has, however, been imposed o the silk and opium exported to foreign parts. And in order to facilitate the collection of this duty, th whole of these articles intended for exportation are required to be brought to Constantinople. Th regulation has done considerable injury to Smyrna; but it seems so very absurd, and its enforcement is so obviously impossible, that it is not likely it will be maintained for any considerable period.—(Ur *quhart on Turkey and its Resources*, p. 189.)

Cotton Wool, of which we have several qualities, is chiefly exported to Trieste and Marseilles. The demand at present for all kinds of this produce is extremely limited, and we expect that prices will go lower with us before long, when perhaps something good might be done in Soubougeas to England, which generally receives only that quality. Barters are made to a large extent in cottons. Annual average produce of all sorts, 60,000 kintals.

Galoons employs more British shipping for full cargoes of only one article, than any other species of produce, if we except, perhaps, fruit: it is also sent to Dublin and to the German markets in considerable quantities. Almost any supply can be obtained, and it is shipped generally near the places of growth, which are numerous, although there is never any want of it in the Smyrna market. It is much resorted to as a means of making barters, which perhaps are as easily effected, upon pretty fair terms, as with any other article of produce. The annual produce is sufficient to meet the wants of all Europe. It can be had to any extent, and at all periods.

Fruit.—This is an article which occupies the attention of all Smyrna, more or less, and produces, during the season, great interest and activity. Figs come to market early in September, and raisins are ready for shipping early in October: the former are procurable only at Smyrna, where the latter in all their qualities may be procured; but the shipments are generally made at Cesmé, Vouria, Curaboorna, Usbeek, &c., from which ports the name of the raisin takes its origin. Large sums are frequently gained in fruit speculations; and when the demand in England is brisk, and the prices and quality fair with us, it very seldom happens, indeed, that any loss is sustained: it is, however, attended with risk; must be shipped dry; and ought only to go in a very fast, sound vessel, as much depends upon a first, or at least an early arrival, which obtains in general a higher price than the later arrivals. The quantity produced is always uncertain.

For the remaining articles of exports hence, we refer you to our price current. Carpets are produced to the extent of about 80,000 to 100,000 pikes a year. Oil (olive), to the amount of 10 to 15 middling sized cargoes, from the islands of Mytilene, Candia, &c., is generally shipped for America and France: seldom for England; the season commences in September, but the crops of olives fluctuate exceedingly in point of quantity; hence arise dear and cheap years: last year was a high one, and it is expected to be lower this. Copper, old and new, may be computed at 30,000 okes, which are generally bought up as soon as offered, for Europe. Hare skins are computed at from 350,000 to 400,000 annually. Madder roots at 12,000 kintals. Pelettons, at 12,000 to 15,000 chequees. Goats' wool of all kinds may be calculated per year at 45,000 to 50,000 chequees; sheep's wool at 23,000 kintals. Wax (yellow), 1,600 kintals.

We have now finished our general remarks on the exports and imports of the place; and in concluding them, we beg to state that, upon an average of all of them,) with the exception of fruit from, and of iron to, Turkey,) the selling charges may (excluding del credere commission) be calculated at about 13 per cent., and on purchasing at about 8 per cent.

SNUFF (Ger. *Schnupftaback*; Fr. *Tabac en poudre*; It. *Tabacco da naso*; Sp. *Tabaco de polvo*; Rus. *Nosowoi tabak*), a powder in very general use as an errhine. Tobacco is the usual basis of snuff; but small quantities of other articles are frequently added to it, to vary its pungency, flavour, scent, &c. Though substantially the same, the kinds and names of snuff are infinite, and are perpetually changing. There are, however, 3 principal sorts: the first, granulated; the second, an impalpable powder; and the third, the bran, or coarse part remaining after sifting the second sort. Unless taken in excess, no bad consequences result from its use.

Dealers in tobacco and snuff are obliged to take out a licence, renewable annually, which costs 5*s*. They are also obliged to enter their premises, and have their names written in large legible characters over their door, or on some conspicuous part of their house, under a penalty of 50*l*. The dyeing of snuff with ochre, amber, or any other colouring matter except water tinged with colour, is prohibited under a penalty of 100*l*.; and its intermixture with fustic, yellow ebony, touchwood, sand, dirt, leaves, &c. is prohibited under a penalty of 100*l*. and the forfeiture of the article.—(1 & 2 *Geo*. 4. c. 109.) If snuff be found to contain 4 per cent. of any substance, not being tobacco, and other than water only, or water tinged with colour, or flavoured only, such snuff shall be deemed adulterated, and shall be forfeited, and the parties subjected to a penalty of 100*l*. over and above all other penalties and forfeitures.—(*Ib.*) No quantity of snuff weighing above 2 lbs. shall be removed by land or water without a permit.—(39 *Geo*. 3. c. 68.)—(See TOBACCO.)

SNUFF-BOXES are made of every variety of pattern, and of an endless variety of materials. We only mention them here for the purpose of giving the following details, not to be met with in any other publication, with respect to the manufacture of Laurencekirk or Cumnock boxes. These are made of wood, admirably jointed, painted, and varnished.

These beautiful boxes were first manufactured at the village of Laurencekirk, in Kincardineshire, about 40 years since. The original inventor was a cripple hardly possessed of the power of locomotion. In place of curtains, his bed (rather a curious workshop) was surrounded with benches and receptacles for tools, in the contrivance and use of which he discovered the utmost ingenuity. The inventor, instead of taking out a patent, confided his secret to a joiner in the same village, who in a few years amassed a considerable property; while the other died, as he had lived in the greatest poverty. The great difficulty of the manufacture lies in the formation of the hinge, which, in a genuine box, is so delicately made as hardly to be visible. Peculiar, or as they are called, secret tools, are required in its formation; and though they must have been improved by time and experience, the mystery attached to their preparation is still so studiously kept up, that the workmen employed in one shop are rigorously debarred from having any communication with those employed in another.

About the beginning of this century, an ingenious individual belonging to the village of Cumnock, in Ayrshire, of the name of Crawford, having seen one of the Laurencekirk snuff-boxes, succeeded after various attempts, by the assistance of a watchmaker of the same village, who made the tools, in producing a similar box; and by his success, not only laid the foundation of his own fortune, but greatly enriched his native parish and province. For a while, the Laurencekirk boxes were most in demand; but Mr. Crawford and his neighbours in Cumnock not only copied the art, but so improved and perfected it, that, in a very few years, for every box made in the north there were, probably, 20 made in the south. In 1826, the Cumnock trade was divided amongst 8 master manufacturers, who employed considerably more than 100 persons. The demand at that time equalled the supply, and it was calculated that the trade yielded from 7,000*l*. to 8,000*l*. annually,—a large product for a manufacture seemingly so insignificant, and consisting almost exclusively of the wages of labour. Plane is the wood in common use, and the cost of the wood in an ordinary sized box does not exceed 1*d*.; the paints and varnish are rated at 2*d*.; and though something is lost by selecting timber of the finest colour, the whole expense of the raw material falls considerably short of ½ per cent. on the return it yields!

Snuff-box, like pin making, admits of subdivision of labour; and in all workshops of any size classes of persons are employed,—painters, polishers, and joiners. At the period alluded to, an industrious joiner earned from 30*s.* to 40*s.* weekly, a painter from 45*s.* to 3*l.*, and a polisher considerably less than either. When Mr. Crawford first commenced business, he obtained almost any price he chose to ask; and many instances occurred, in which ordinary sized snuff-boxes sold at 2*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.*, and ladies' work-boxes at 25*l.* But as the trade increased, it became necessary to employ apprentices, who first became journeymen and then masters; and such have been the effects of improvement and competition, that articles such as are specified above may now be obtained at the respective prices of *six* and *twenty-five shillings*. While the joiner's part of the art has remained pretty stationary, that of the painter has been gradually improving. By means of the *Pentagraph*, which is much employed, the largest engravings are reduced to the size most convenient for the workman, without injuring the prints in the slightest degree: and hence a snuff-box manufacturer, like a Dunfermline weaver, can work to order by exhibiting on wood his employer's coat of arms, or, in short, any object he may fancy within the range of the pictorial art. Some of the painters display considerable talent, and as often as they choose to put forth their strength, produce box-lids, which are really worthy of being preserved as pictures. At first, nearly the whole subjects chosen as ornaments, were taken from Burns' poems; and there can be no doubt, that the "Cotter's Saturday Night," "Tam O'Shanter," "Willie brewed a peck o' maut," &c. &c., have penetrated in this form into every quarter of the habitable globe. Now, however, the artists of Cumnock take a wider range; the studies of Wilkie, and other artists, have been laid under contribution; landscapes are as often met with as figures; and there is scarcely a celebrated scene in the country that is not pictured forth more or less perfectly on the lid of a Cumnock snuff-box. A few years ago, the art in question was much affected by the long-continued depression of the weaving business; so much so, that many left it for some other employment; and some of those who emigrated, having made a good deal of money, instead of being cooped up in a workshop, are now thriving proprietors in Upper Canada. But after a brief interval the trade rallied; and though prices are low, it is now more flourishing than ever. In Cumnock, the number of hands has increased considerably, and in Mauchline there is one workshop so extensive that it may almost be compared to a cotton mill or factory. In other quarters the trade is extending, such as Helensburg near Greenock, Catrine, Maxwelltown, Dumfries, &c. The principal markets for the snuff-boxes are London, Liverpool, Glasgow, and Edinburgh. At one time, large lots of boxes were exported to South America, and probably are so at present. Cumnock, in a word, in regard to its staple manufacture, is in that palmy state so well described by a modern writer:—"The condition most favourable to population is that of a laborious frugal people ministering to the demands of opulent neighbours; because this situation, while it leaves them every advantage of luxury, exempts them from the evils which accompany its admission into a country. Of the different kinds of luxury, those are the most innocent which afford employment to the greatest number of artists and manufacturers; or those in which the price of the work bears the greatest proportion to that of the raw material." Some very wretched imitations of Cumnock boxes have been produced in different parts of England; but they can deceive no one who ever saw a genuine box. The hinge, as well as the finishing, is clumsy in the extreme.

*** We are indebted for this curious and instructive article to our esteemed friend, John M'Diarmid, Esq., Editor of the *Dumfries Courier*, one of the best provincial papers in the empire.

SOAP (Ger. *Seife*; Fr. *Savon*; It. *Sapone*; Sp. *Jabon*; Rus. *Mülo*; Lat. *Sapo*). The soap met with in commerce is generally divided into 2 sorts, *hard* and *soft*: the former is made of soda and tallow or oil, and the latter of potash and similar oily matters. Soap made of tallow and soda has a whitish colour, and is, therefore, sometimes denominated *white* soap: but it is usual for soap makers, in order to lower the price of the article, to mix a considerable portion of rosin with the tallow; this mixture forms the common *yellow* soap of this country. Soap made of tallow, &c. and potash does not assume a solid form; its consistence is never greater than that of hog's lard. The properties of soft soap as a detergent do not differ materially from those of hard soap, but it is not nearly so convenient for use. The alkali employed by the ancient Gauls and Germans in the formation of soap was potash; hence we see why it was described by the Romans as an unguent. The oil employed for making soft soap in this country is whale oil. A little tallow is also added, which, by a peculiar management, is dispersed through the soap in fine white spots. The soap made in countries which produce olive oil, as the south of France, Italy, and Spain, is preferable to the soap of this country, which is usually manufactured from grease, tallow, &c.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

London, Liverpool, Newcastle, Bristol, Brentford, Frodsham, and Glasgow, are the great seats of the British soap manufacture. Thus, of 119,379,037 lbs. of hard soap made in Great Britain in 1832, London furnished 20,027,735 lbs.; Liverpool, 28,878,466 lbs.; Newcastle, 6,962,049 lbs.; Bristol, 6,661,407 lbs.; Brentford, 5,573,074 lbs.; Frodsham, 4,933,335 lbs.; and Glasgow, 4,607,354 lbs. Of 40,350,703 lbs. of soft soap, made during the same year, Liverpool furnished above ½; the rest being supplied by Glasgow, London, Bristol, Hull, &c.

The use of soap as a detergent is well known: it may, in fact, be considered as a necessary of life. Its consumption in most civilised countries is immense. Pliny informs us, that soap was invented by the Gauls; that it was composed of tallow and ashes; and that the German soap was reckoned the best.—(Lib. xviii. c. 51.)

Regulations as to the Manufacture.—Soap is charged with a duty of excise, and its manufacture is consequently regulated by several provisions intended for the protection of the revenue. No person is permitted to make soap within the limits of the head office of excise in London, unless he occupy a tenement of 10*l.* a year, and is assessed to and pays the parish rates; nor elsewhere, unless he is assessed and pays to church and poor; and every soap-maker is required to take out a licence to be renewed annually, for which he is to pay 4*l.*; but persons in partnership require only 1 licence for 1 house. They are also required to provide sufficient wooden covers for all coppers and other utensils wherein they boil hard soap: which covers are to be locked and sealed down by the officer whosever any soap is left in the same; and the furnace door, cover, and the ash hole door is also to be locked and sealed at all times except when the same is at work. Regulations are also made for preventing the use of any private conveyance or pipes; empowering officers to break up the ground to search for the same, and cut them up if found; if not, the officers must make compensation for the injury done. On cleansing or taking soap out of the coppers, the makers are required to give notice; and certain spaces of time are limited for completing the cleansing and taking out of the soap, according to the kind of soap, and the number of frames into which the same is put. Coppers and other vessels must be cleaned once in every month. The frames used in making hard soap, for cleansing and putting the same into when taken out of the vessel when boiled and prepared, must be either square or oblong, and the bottom, sides, and end of such frames are to be 3 inches thick and not more than 45 inches long, and 15 inches broad: the same being marked and numbered at the expense of the soap maker. The making of yellow or mottled soap is regulated by 59 Geo. 3. c. 9, by which every maker is required, as soon as the same is cleansed or taken out of the vessel in which it has been made, to add and put into the copper or vessel all the feh and skimmings taken out of the same, and also grease, in the proportion of at least 10 cwt. of grease for every ton of yellow or mottled soap which the copper or vessel shall be by the officer computed to boil or make, and immediately pour such grease in the presence of the officer of excise. No less fit for making of soap may be manufactured for sale; nor may any soap be ground or pounded for sale; nor when ground or pounded be sold

exceeding the weight of 28 lbs. of such barilla at one time. In the case of soap exceeding the quantity of 28 lbs., the word "soap" must be painted or marked in large letters of at least 2 inches long on every chest, basket, box, cask, or package containing the same; and the same word must be painted or marked in letters of at least 3 inches in length on every wagon, cart, or other carriage carrying more than 28 lbs. in some conspicuous and open part of the same, when it is carried by a person being a known and public or common carrier of goods and merchandise from one part to another; officers may inspect the soap and the accompanying certificate. Soap-makers are also to keep books, and enter therein all quantities of soap sold exceeding 28 lbs. Every barrel of soap must contain 2 cwt. 6 lbs. avoirdupois; every 1-2 barrel 1 cwt. 3 lbs.; every firkin 64 lbs.; and every 1-2 firkin 34 lbs.; besides the weight and tare of the cask. Soap-makers must keep scales and weights, and assist the excise officers in the use of them, and must weigh their materials for making soap before the officer, on penalty of 50*l.*—(*Chitty's Com. Law*, vol. ii. pp. 418—420.)

Exports of Soap and Candles.—We annually export from 10,000,000 to 12,000,000 lbs. of soap and candles, worth from 250,000*l.* to 300,000*l.* Nearly ⅓ are exported to the British West Indian and American colonies. A very large quantity is also exported to Brazil.

Oppressiveness of the Duty.—The direct duty charged on hard soap, which is by far the most extensively used, amounted, till June, 1833, to 3*d.* per lb., or 28*s.* per cwt., while the price of soap rarely exceeded 6*d.* per lb., or 56*s.* per cwt., so that the direct duty was fully 100 per cent.! But besides this enormous duty, the substances of which soap is made, viz. tallow, barilla, and turpentine, or rosin, were respectively charged with duties of 3*s.* 4*d.*, 2*s.*, and 4*s.* 4*d.* a cwt.; and taking these indirect taxes into account, it may be truly stated that soap was taxed from 120 to 130 per cent. *ad valorem!* The imposition of so exorbitant a duty on an article that is indispensable to the prosecution of many branches of manufacture, and to the comfort and cleanliness of all orders of persons, was in the last degree inexpedient. There were good reasons, too, for thinking that in consequence of the encouragement which this excessive duty gave to smuggling and fraud, the revenue derived from it was not much greater than it will be now that it is reduced to ⅓ its former amount. During the 5 years ending with 1831, the consumption of duty-paid soap was nearly stationary; though there can be no doubt, from the increase of manufactures and population during that period, that it would have been very considerably extended, but for the increase of smuggling. This baneful practice is facilitated by the total exemption which Ireland enjoys from this duty; for it not unfrequently happens that the soap made in this country, and sent to Ireland under a drawback, is again clandestinely introduced into Great Britain. It is, perhaps, needless to say, that nothing but the effectual reduction of the duty could put a stop to the smuggling and fraud that has been so generally practised. So long as the profit to be made by breaking the law was so high as 120 or 130 per cent., so long was it sure to be broken, in despite of the multiplication of penalties and the utmost activity and vigilance of the officers. But now that the duty has been reduced ⅔, the temptation to smuggle will be most materially diminished. And it may be fairly concluded that the increased consumption that will, no doubt, follow this reduction of duty, will go far to render the low duty as productive as the higher one; so that the advantages resulting from the diminished temptation to smuggling and fraud, and the influence of the reduced price of the article in facilitating manufacturing industry, and in promoting habits of cleanliness, will, most probably, be obtained, without any considerable loss of revenue.

The entire repeal of the soap duty would be a popular measure; but, seeing that a large amount of revenue must be raised, and that those taxes only are productive which affect all classes of the community, we should not be disposed to recommend such a measure. It is not the tax itself, but the oppressive extent to which it was carried that made it objectionable. Instead of proposing its repeal, we think it ought to be extended to Ireland. The exemption of one part of the empire from a duty of this sort imposed on another part, is contrary to all principle, and is fraught with the most pernicious results. It will be impossible to get rid of smuggling so long as this unjust distinction is suffered to exist. Were the duty extended to Ireland, the necessity for granting drawbacks on the soap exported to it, and of laying countervailing duties on that imported from it, would, of course, fall to the ground. And we feel confident that, though a still further deduction were made from the rate of duty, its productiveness would not, under such circumstances, be impaired even in England.

I. Account of the Quantity of *Hard* and *Soft Soap* charged with Excise Duty in Great Britain, in each of the Eleven Years ending 5th January, 1833; the Rates of Duty; and the *Gross* and *Nett* Produce of the Duties.—(Compiled from different *Parliamentary Papers.*)

Years.	Pounds' Weight of Soap.		Rates of Duty.		Gross Produce of the Duties.	Nett Produce of the Duties.
	Hard.	Soft.	Hard, per lb.	Soft, per lb.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*d.*	*d.*		
1822	89,168,934	7,583,938	3	1½		
1823	92,901,382	8,073,803	—	—		
1824	97,071,456	8,226,922	—	—		
1825	100,261,353	9,397,485	—	—		
1826	102,623,165	8,910,504	—	—	1,347,761 19 10	1,179,612 2 4
1827	96,859,694	7,278,446	—	—	1,263,818 3 8	1,[illegible]7,060 7 10½
1828	101,372,807	9,646,477	—	—	1,374,998 19 7	1,[illegible]90,409 18 0½
1829	108,110,198	10,024,665	—	—	1,425,516 11 9	1,210,754 11 1½
1830	103,041,961	9,068,918	—	—	1,354,152 0 9	1,151,909 15 4½
1831	117,324,320	10,209,519	—	—	1,513,149 19 9½	1,249,684 13 10½
1832	119,379,037	10,350,703	—	—	1,550,344 15 4½	1,186,219 11 11½

II. Account of all Soap exported to Ireland and Foreign Countries, on which a Drawback was allowed, during the Nine Years ending with 5th of January, 1833.—(*Parl Paper*, No. 23. Sess. 1831.)

Years.	Ireland.			Foreign Countries.		
	Pounds' Weight of Soap exported.		Drawback allowed thereon.	Pounds' Weight of Soap exported.		Drawback allowed thereon.
	Hard.	Soft.		Hard.	Soft.	
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*	£ s. d.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	£ s. d.
1824	116,401	72,814	1,985 18 11½	4,993,694	3,729	62,448 7 3¾
1825	146,855	83,011	2,141 3 10½	5,764,070	3,526	72,076 11 8½
1826	210,912	86,890	3,284 11 1½	4,073,973	2,773	50,944 17 7¾
1827	301,642	89,280	4,421 10 6	7,445,467	6,491	93,115 13 4½
1828	947,326	90,875	12,504 4 1½	7,936,569	12,734	99,299 19 3½
1829	2,751,558	140,673	35,420 4 3¾	6,884,061	4,167	86,083 6 8½
1830	6,559,461	120,992	82,875 9 11	8,098,205	10,324	101,302 16 10
1831						
1832	10,714,263	120,256	134,805 3 1			

SODA. See ALKALI.

(SOUND.

Return of the Number of Vessels which passed the Sound and cleared at Elsinore, in 1833, 1834, 1835, 1836, and 1837; distinguishing the Countries to which they belonged, and stating their Tonnage for 1837.

Flags.	Ships, 1833.	Ships, 1834.	Ships, 1835.	Ships, 1836.	Ships, 1837.	Tonnage in 1837.
British - -	3,102	2,756	2,472	3,104	3,417	655,447
Hanoverian -	314	386	386	416	477	60,572
Danish - -	826	759	752	920	1,113	110,256
Swedish - -	1,069	936	991	963	1,038	111,090
Norwegian -	1,461	1,496	1,357	1,447	1,813	186,113
Prussian - -	2,089	1,927	1,938	2,392	2,210	475,395
Russian - -	530	551	625	664	721	156,457
Dutch - -	370	681	654	663	847	104,640
Belgian - -	3	13	16	6	43	5,920
Mecklenburg -	554	585	583	740	760	90,930
Hamburg - -	44	26	21	27	38	5,168
Bremen - -	53	49	43	49	40	4,865
American - -	166	158	126	133	104	26,240
Portuguese -	4			3	4	624
French - -	124	115	146	105	130	20,981
Italian States -	10	32	21	29	26	3,276
Spanish - -	19	18	7	19	14	2,580
Oldenburg - -	66	35	46	60	55	6,770
Lubeck - -	91	83	71	94	93	9,052
Totals -	10,985	10,605	10,255	11,921	13,102	2,033,706

Sup.)

SOUTH SEA DUTIES. The act of the 9 Ann. c. 21., establishing the South Sea Company, conveyed to them the exclusive privilege of trading to the Pacific Ocean, and along the east coast of America, from the Orinoco to Cape Horn.

This privilege was taken away by the 47 Geo. 3. c. 23.; and in order to raise a guarantee fund for the indemnification of the Company, a duty of 2 per cent. *ad valorem* was imposed by the 55 Geo. 3. c. 57. on all goods (with the exception of those from Brazil and Dutch Surinam*; and with the exception of blubber, oil, &c. of whales, or fish caught by the crews of British or Irish ships) imported from within the aforesaid limits. A duty of 1*s.* 6*d.* per ton was also imposed on all vessels (except in ballast or importing the produce of the fishery of British subjects) entering inwards or clearing outwards from or to places within the said limits. The duties are to cease when the guarantee fund is completed.

SOY, a species of sauce prepared in China and Japan from a small bean, the produce of the *Dolichos soja*. It is eaten with fish and other articles. It should be chosen of a good flavour, not too salt nor too sweet, of a good thick consistence, a brown colour, and clear; when shaken in a glass, it should leave a coat on the surface, of a bright yellowish brown colour; if it do not, it is of an inferior kind, and should be rejected. Japan soy is deemed superior to the Chinese. It is worth, in bond, from 6*s.* to 7*s.* a gallon. It is believed to be extensively counterfeited.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

SPELTER, a name frequently given to ZINC; which see.

(The exportation of spelter or zinc from Europe to India, which began in 1821, produced an extent of speculation, and a fluctuation of price, that could hardly have been conceived possible.—Subjoined is an account of the

Quantity, Value, and Selling Price of the Spelter imported into Calcutta, from all Parts, from the year 1820—21.

Years.	Quantity imported.	Value.	Average Price per Fy. M.d.	Years.	Quantity imported.	Value.	Average Price per Fy. Md.
	Baz. Mds.	*Sa. Rs.*	*Cur. Rs.*		*Baz. Mds.*	*Sa. Rs.*	*Cur. Rs.*
1820-21	Nil.			1827-28	185,634	1,173,614	9 3
1821-22	22,636	224,360	23 7	1828-29	103,471	711,217	7 2
1822-23	46,032	510,467	20 10	1829-30	99,795	487,427	4 1
1823-24	94 873	1,414,336	15 10	1830-31	74,416	383,209	5 10
1824-25	180,940	1,986,790	13 8	1831-32	64,334	299,383	5 8
1825-26	120 380	1,195,956	12 13	1832-33	20,710	130,945	
1826-27	148,670	1,549,738	10 13	1833-34	21,941	96,312	

This table shows the extraordinary extent to which speculation had operated on this article. The excess of imports from 1824-25 to 1828-29 was such, that recently the trade may be said to have been altogether extinct; the supplies that were carried out during the 3 years ending with 1831-35 being intended rather to serve as dead weight than as a merchantable article. The stock in the India market has now, however, been so much reduced, that a considerable rise of prices may, at no distant period, be fairly anticipated. (*Bell's Comparative View of the Commerce of Bengal* for 1830-31, and 1831-32, p. 5.; and for 1832-33, and 1833-34, p. 24.)—*Sup.*)

SPERMACETI (Ger. *Wallrath*; Fr. *Blanc de Baleine, Sperme de Baleine*; It. *Spermaceti*; Sp. *Esperma de Ballena*; Rus. *Spermazet*), a product obtained from the brain of the *physeter macrocephalus*, a species of whale inhabiting the Southern Ocean. The brain being dug out from the cavity of the head, the oil is separated from it by dripping. The residue is crude spermaceti, of which an ordinary sized whale will yield 12 barrels. After being brought to England, it is purified. It then concretes into a white, crystallised, brittle, semitransparent, unctuous substance, nearly inodorous and insipid. On being cut into small

* The provinces of the Rio de la Plata have since been added.—(*Treas. Order*, 12th of March, 1823.)

pices it assumes a flaky aspect. It is very heavy; its specific gravity being 9·433. It is used in the manufacture of candles, in medicine, &c.

SPICES (Ger. *Spezereyen*; Du. *Speceryen*; Fr. *Epiceries, Epices*; It. *Spezj, Spezierie*; Sp. *Especias, Especerias*; Port. *Especiaria*; Rus. *Pränüe korenja*). Under this denomination are included all those vegetable productions which are fragrant to the smell and pungent to the palate; such as cloves, ginger, nutmegs, allspice, &c. These will be found under their proper heads.

SPIRIT OF WINE. See ALCOHOL.

SPIRITS. All inflammable liquors obtained by distillation, as brandy, rum, geneva, whisky, gin, &c., are comprised under this designation. The term *British spirits* is applied indiscriminately to the various sorts of spirits manufactured in Great Britain and Ireland. Of these, gin and whisky are by far the most important.

The manufacture of spirits is placed under the *surveillance* of the excise, and a very large revenue is obtained from it. The act 6 Geo. 4. c. 80. lays down the regulations to be followed by the distillers in the manufacture, and by the officers in charging the duties. This act is of great length, having no fewer than 151 clauses; it is, besides, exceedingly complicated, and the penalties in it amount to many thousand pounds. It would, therefore, be to no purpose to attempt giving any abstract of it in this place. Every one carrying on the business of distillation must have the act in his possession, and must be practically acquainted with its operation.

1. *Spirit Duties. Consumption of British Spirits in Great Britain and Ireland.*—There are, perhaps, no better subjects for taxation than spirituous and fermented liquors. They are essentially luxuries; and while moderate duties on them are, in consequence of their being very generally used, exceedingly productive, the increase of price which they occasion has a tendency to lessen their consumption by the poor, to whom, when taken in excess, they are exceedingly pernicious. Few governments, however, have been satisfied with imposing moderate duties on spirits; but partly in the view of increasing the revenue, and partly in the view of placing them beyond the reach of the lower classes, have almost invariably loaded them with such oppressively high duties as have entirely defeated both objects. The imposition of such duties does not take away the appetite for spirits; and as no vigilance of the officers or severity of the laws has been found sufficient to secure a monopoly of the market to the legal distillers, the real effect of the high duties has been to throw the supply of a large proportion of the demand into the hands of the illicit distiller, and to superadd the atrocities of the smuggler to the idleness and dissipation of the drunkard.

During the latter part of the reign of George I., and the earlier part of that of George II., gin-drinking was exceedingly prevalent; and the cheapness of ardent spirits, and the multiplication of public houses, were denounced from the pulpit, and in the presentments of grand juries, as pregnant with the most destructive consequences to the health and morals of the community. At length, ministers determined to make a vigorous effort to put a stop to the further use of spirituous liquors, except as a cordial or medicine. For this purpose an act was passed in 1736, the history and effects of which deserve to be studied by all who are clamorous for an increase of the duties on spirits. Its preamble is to this effect:—"Whereas the drinking of spirituous liquors, or strong water, is become very common, especially among people of lower and inferior rank, the constant and excessive use of which tends greatly to the destruction of their health, rendering them unfit for useful labour and business, debauching their morals, and inciting them to perpetrate all vices; and the ill consequences of the excessive use of such liquors are not confined to the present generation, but extend to future ages, and tend to the destruction and ruin of this kingdom." The enactments were such as might be expected to follow a preamble of this sort. They were not intended to repress the vice of gin-drinking, but to root it out altogether. To accomplish this, a duty of *twenty shillings* a gallon was laid on spirits, exclusive of a heavy licence duty on retailers. Extraordinary encouragements were at the same time held out to informers, and a fine of 100*l.* was ordered to be rigorously exacted from those who, were it even through inadvertency, should vend the smallest quantity of spirits which had not paid the full duty. Here was an act which might, one should think, have satisfied the bitterest enemy of gin. But instead of the anticipated effects, it produced those directly opposite. The respectable dealers withdrew from a trade proscribed by the legislature; so that the spirit business fell almost entirely into the hands of the lowest and most profligate characters, who, as they had nothing to lose, were not deterred by penalties from breaking through all its provisions. The populace having in this, as in all similar cases, espoused the cause of the smugglers and unlicensed dealers, the officers of the revenue were openly assaulted in the streets of London and other great towns; informers were hunted down like wild beasts; and drunkenness, disorders, and crimes, increased with a frightful rapidity. "Within 2 years of the passing of the act," says Tindal, "it had become *odious and contemptible*, and policy as well as humanity forced the commissioners of excise to mitigate its penalties."—(*Continuation of Rapin*, vol. viii. p. 358. ed. 1759.) The same historian mentions (vol. viii. p. 390.), that during

the 2 years in question, no fewer than 12,000 persons were convicted of offences connected with the sale of spirits. But no exertion on the part of the revenue officers and magistrates could stem the torrent of smuggling. According to a statement made by the Earl of Cholmondeley, in the House of Lords—(*Timberland's Debates in the House of Lords*, vol. viii. p. 388.), it appears, that at the very moment when the sale of spirits was declared to be illegal, and every possible exertion made to suppress it, upwards of SEVEN MILLIONS of gallons were annually consumed in London, and other parts immediately adjacent! Under such circumstances, government had but one course to follow—to give up the unequal struggle. In 1742, the high prohibitory duties were accordingly repealed, and such moderate duties imposed, as were calculated to increase the revenue, by increasing the consumption of legally distilled spirits. The bill for this purpose was vehemently opposed in the House of Lords by most of the Bishops, and many other peers, who exhausted all their rhetoric in depicting the mischievous consequences that would result from a toleration of the practice of gin-drinking. To these declamations it was unanswerably replied, that whatever the evils of the practice might be, it was impossible to repress them by prohibitory enactments; and that the attempts to do so had been productive of far more mischief than had ever resulted, or could be expected to result, from the greatest abuse of spirits. The consequences of the change were highly beneficial. An instant stop was put to smuggling; and if the vice of drunkenness was not materially diminished, it has never been stated that it was increased.

But it is unnecessary to go back to the reign of George II. for proofs of the impotency of high duties to take away the taste for such an article, or to lessen its consumption. The occurrences that took place in the late reign, though they would seem to be already forgotten, are equally decisive as to this question.

Duties in Ireland.—Perhaps no country has suffered more from the excessive height to which duties on spirits have been carried than Ireland. If heavy taxes, enforced by severe fiscal regulations, could make a people sober and industrious, the Irish would be the most so of any on the face of the earth. In order to make the possessors of property join heartily in suppressing illicit distillation, the novel expedient was here resorted to, of imposing a heavy fine on every parish, town land, manor land, or lordship, in which an unlicensed still was found; while the unfortunate wretches found working in it were subjected to *transportation for seven years*. But instead of putting down illicit distillation, these unheard-of severities rendered it universal, and filled the country with bloodshed, and even rebellion. It is stated by the Rev. Mr. Chichester, in his valuable pamphlet on the *Irish Distillery Laws*, published in 1818, that "the Irish system seemed to have been formed in order to perpetuate smuggling and anarchy. It has culled the evils of both savage and civilised life, and rejected all the advantages which they contain. The calamities of civilised warfare are, in general, inferior to those produced by the Irish distillery laws; and I doubt whether any nation of modern Europe, which is not in a state of actual revolution, can furnish instances of legal cruelty commensurate to those which I have represented."—(Pp. 92—107.)

These statements are borne out to the fullest extent by the official details in the *Reports of the Revenue Commissioners*. In 1811, say the commissioners (*Fifth Report*, p. 19.), when the duty on spirits was 2*s.* 6*d.* a gallon, duty was paid in Ireland on 6,500,361 gallons (Irish measure); whereas, in 1822, when the duty was 5*s.* 6*d.*, only 2,950,647 gallons were brought to the charge. The commissioners estimate, that the annual consumption of spirits in Ireland was at this very period not less than TEN MILLIONS of gallons; and, as scarcely *three* millions paid duty, it followed, that *seven* millions were illegally supplied; and "taking *one* million of gallons as the quantity fraudulently furnished for consumption by the licensed distillers, the produce of the unlicensed stills may be estimated at *six millions of gallons*."—(*Ib.* p. 8.) Now, it is material to keep in mind that this vast amount of smuggling was carried on in the teeth of the above barbarous statutes, and in despite of the utmost exertions of the police and military to prevent it; the only result being the exasperation of the populace, and the perpetration of revolting atrocities both by them and the military. "In Ireland," say the commissioners, "it will appear, from the evidence annexed to this Report, that parts of the country have been absolutely disorganised, and placed in opposition not only to the civil authority, but to the military force of the government. The profits to be obtained from the evasion of the law have been such as to encourage numerous individuals to persevere in these desperate pursuits, notwithstanding the risk of property and life with which they have been attended."

To put an end to such evils, the commissioners recommended that the duty on spirits should be reduced from 5*s.* 6*d.* to 2*s.* the wine gallon (2*s.* 4*d.* the imperial gallon), and government wisely consented to act upon this recommendation. In 1823, the duties were accordingly reduced; and the following official account will show what has been the result of this measure:—

It may appear, on a superficial view of this Table, as if the consumption of spirits in Ireland had been nearly trebled since 1823; but, in point of fact, it has not been in any degree increased. The reduction of the duties substituted legal for illicit distillation, and freed the

country from the perjuries and other atrocities that grew out of the previous system; but it would be wholly erroneous to say that it increased drunkenness. We have already seen that the commissioners, who had the best means of obtaining accurate information, estimated the consumption of spirits in Ireland, in 1823, at TEN millions of gallons; and it was not more in 1828 and 1829. The measure was, therefore, in every point of view most successful; and it is much to be regretted that it was interfered with in 1830, by raising the duties from 2s. 10d. to 3s. 4d. The following Table shows that this increase has materially diminished the quantity of spirits brought to the charge. We do not, however, believe that it has occasioned any diminution of consumption. The truth is, that 2s. 10d. was as high a duty as the article would bear; and the additional 6d. has again thrown the balance in favour of the smuggler, and led to a partial revival of illicit distillation. The evidence taken before the commissioners of excise inquiry has completely established this fact; and sound policy would, therefore, suggest that the duty should be once more reduced to 2s. 10d. At all events, we trust that no senseless, though well-meant clamour about the prevalence of drunkenness, and no pecuniary necessity, will ever tempt ministers to add further to the duties on spirits. Such a measure would not bring a shilling into the public treasury, nor cause any diminution of the vice of drinking; it would merely add smuggling and its attendant evils to the other d[illegible]ters with which Ireland is afflicted.

An Account of the Quantities of Spirits made in Ireland, which have paid the duties of Excise for Home Consumption; stating the Rate of Duty paid, and also the Nett Amount of Revenue received in each Year, since the Year 1820.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 340, Sess. 1829, No. 61. Sess. 1831, &c.)

Year.	Number of Gallons.	Rate per Gallon.	Nett Amount of Revenue.		
	Imperial Measure.		£	s.	d.
1821	2,649,179	5s. 6d. per Irish gallon.	912,288	7	6
1822	2,328,387	Ditto.	797,518	13	3
1823	3,348,505	Ditto. from 10th of Oct. 1823, 2s. per English wine gallon.	634,460	7	2
1824	6,690,315	Ditto.	771,690	16	0
1825	9,262,744	Ditto.	1,084,191	6	5
1826	6,837,408	2s. 10d. per Imperial gallon.	964,509	10	8
1827	8,260,919	Ditto.	1,122,096	14	10
1828	9,037,903	Ditto.	1,305,721	12	11
1829	9,212,223	Ditto.	1,305,064	18	6
1830	9,004,539	2s. 10d., 2s., and 3s. 4d. per ditto.	1,409,128	3	7
1831	8,710,672	3s. 4d.	1,451,580	7	1
1832	8,657,756	Ditto.	1,443,845	9	11
1833	8,168,596	Ditto.	1,360,769	6	8

Duties in Scotland.—The experience of Scotland is hardly less decisive as to this question. The exorbitancy of the duties produced nearly the same effects there as in Ireland. Mr. John Hay Forbes, formerly sheriff-depute of Perthshire, now one of the Lords of Session, stated in evidence before the commissioners, that, according to the best information he could obtain, the quantity of illegally distilled spirits annually produced in the Highlands could not amount to less than TWO *millions of gallons*. In corroboration of this he stated, that, in 1821, only 298,138 gallons were brought to the charge in the Highlands; and of these, 254,000 gallons were permitted to the Lowlands, leaving only 44,000 gallons for the consumption of the whole country;—a supply which, we are well assured, would hardly be sufficient for the demand of 2 moderately populous parishes. In a letter of Captain Munro of Teaninich to the commissioners, it is stated that, "at Tain, where there are upwards of 20 licensed public houses, *not one gallon had been permitted from the legal distilleries for upwards of twelve months*," though a small quantity of smuggled whisky had been purchased at the excise sales, to give a colour of legality to the trade. The same gentleman thus expresses himself in another part of his letter:—"The moral effects of this baneful trade of smuggling on the lower classes is most conspicuous, and increasing in an alarming degree, as evidenced by the multiplicity of crimes, and by a degree of insubordination formerly little known in this part of the country. In several districts, such as Strathconon, Strathcarron, &c., the excise officers are now often deforced, and dare not attempt to do their duty; and smuggled whisky is often carried to market by smugglers escorted by *armed* men, in defiance of the laws. In short, the Irish system is making progress in the Highlands of Scotland."

To arrest the progress of demoralisation, government, pursuant to the judicious advice of the commissioners, reduced the duties on Scotch to the same level as those on Irish whisky; and the consequences were equally salutary. The subjoined official statement (page 540) shows the effect of the reduction of the duty in 1823, and of its subsequent increase in 1830.

This Table sets the impolicy of the increase of duty in 1830 in nearly as striking a point of view as it does the policy of its reduction in 1823. There is no denying the fact, that this uncalled-for measure has diminished the consumption, and given a powerful stimulus to illicit distillation. We understand

that the commissioners of excise inquiry mean to recommend that the duty be again reduced to 2s. 10d.; and every one, not anxious for the prevalence of smuggling, will be desirous that this recommendation should be carried into effect.

An Account of the Quantities of Spirits made in Scotland, which have paid the Duties of Excise for Home Consumption; stating the Rate of Duty paid, and also the Nett Amount of Revenue received in each Year, since the Year 1820.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 340. Sess. 1829, No. 61. Sess. 1831, &c.)

Years.	Number of Gallons.	Rate per Gallon.	Nett Amount of Revenue.
	Imperial Measure.		£ s. d.
1821	2,229,435	5s. 6d. per English wine gallon.	727,050 19 7
1822	2,079,556	Ditto.	691,135 6 6
		Ditto.	
1823	2,232,728	from 10th of Oct. 1823, 2s. per English wine gallon.	536,654 17 8
1824	4,350,301	Ditto.	520,624 18 4
1825	5,981,550	Ditto.	682,848 11 1
1826	3,988,788	2s. 10d. per Imperial gallon.	563,263 4 0
1827	4,752,199	Ditto.	672,441 6 6
1828	5,716,180	Ditto.	809,559 6 7
1829	5,777,280	Ditto.	818,448 0 0
1830	6,007,631	2s. 10d., 3s., and 3s. 4d. per ditto.	939,258 6 0
1831	5,700,689	3s. 4d.	950,041 4 3
1832	5,407,097	Ditto.	901,182 16 8
1833	5,988,556	Ditto.	998,051 3 3

Duties in England.—Previously to the reduction of the duty on Irish and Scotch spirits, the duty on English spirits had been as high as 10s. 6d. a gallon. This high duty, and the restrictions under which the trade was placed, were productive of the worst effects. They went far to enable the distillers to fix the price of spirits, "and consequently," (we quote the words of the commissioners) "to raise it much beyond that which was sufficient to repay, with a profit, the cost of the manufacture and the duty advanced to the Crown." And, in proof of this, the commissioners mention, that in November, 1823, "when corn spirits might be purchased in Scotland for about 2s. 3d. a gallon, raw spirits could not be purchased in England for less than 4s. 6d. ready money, and 4s. 9d. credit, omitting in both cases, the duty." In consequence of this state of things, the adulteration of spirits was carried on to a great extent in England; and the large profits made by the smuggler occasioned clandestine importation in considerable quantities from Scotland and Ireland. To obviate these inconveniences, and at the same time to neutralise the powerful additional stimulus that the reduction of the duties in Scotland and Ireland would have given to smuggling, had the duties in England been continued at their former amount, the latter were reduced, in 1825, to 7s. a gallon, facilities being at the same time given to the importation of spirits from the other parts of the empire. It is of the effects of this measure that so many complaints have been made, though nothing can well be imagined more completely destitute of foundation. The commissioners estimated the consumption of British spirits in England and Wales in 1823, at 5,000,000 gallons.—(*Sup. to Fifth Report*, p. 8.); and it appears from the subjoined account, that it amounted, for the year ending the 5th of January, 1834, to 7,717,303 gallons; producing 2,893,98[illegible] 12s. 6d. of revenue; so that, making allowance for the increase of population, and the check given to adulteration and smuggling, the increase must appear very trifling indeed; and we are warranted in affirming that the reduction of the duties has been as eminently successful in England as in either Scotland or Ireland.

Account of the Quantities of British, Colonial, and Foreign Spirits, which paid the Home Consumption Duty for England, Scotland, and Ireland, from the Year 1821 to 1834, inclusive.

Years.	England.			Scotland.			Ireland.		
	Foreign.	Colonial.	British.	Foreign.	Colonial.	British.	Foreign.	Colonial.	British.
	Imp. Gal.	*Imp. Gal.*	*Imp. Gal.*	*Imp. Gal.*	*Imp. Gal.*	*Imp. Gal.*	*Imp. Gal.*	*Imp. Gal.*	*Imp. Gal.*
1821	969,474	2,166,441	3,820,015	34,601	138,189	2,229,435	9,325	19,665	2,649,170
1822	1,054,540	2,100,925	4,346,318	35,739	130,879	2,079,556	10,225	15,035	2,328,287
1823	1,131,099	2,222,923	3,521,586	34,297	108,502	2,232,728	25,282	18,175	3,348,565
1824	1,268,609	2,407,207	4,067,233	47,710	134,986	4,350,301	1,352	9,453	6,600,315
1825	1,348,482	1,980,807	3,443,554	56,554	104,752	5,981,549	4,550	10,128	9,262,743
1826	1,498,230	3,982,053	7,407,205	42,092	295,505	3,988,789	9,452	27,758	6,837,408
1827	1,321,221	3,080,152	6,671,562	42,756	185,214	4,752,200	9,179	23,340	8,260,919
1828	1,325,197	3,064,856	7,759,687	45,749	188,089	5,716,180	9,779	24,708	9,937,903
1829	1,293,523	3,202,143	7,700,766	43,228	152,161	5,777,280	10,374	21,262	9,212,223
1830	1,267,397	3,503,141	7,732,101	38,967	137,806	6,007,631	10,406	18,011	9,004,539
1831	1,217,971	3,479,911	7,431,047	39,744	125,702	5,700,689	10,483	18,984	8,710,672
1832	1,530,988	3,377,507	7,259,287	60,236	112,026	5,407,097	33,413	24,422	8,657,758
1833	1,319,816	3,344,948	7,717,303	46,606	121,357	5,988,556	21,262	22,888	8,168,596
1834	1,347,436	3,206,650	7,644,301	44,748	111,169	6,045,043	27,988	27,358	9,708,416

Account of the Number of Gallons of British, Colonial, and Foreign Spirits, which have paid the Home Consumption Duty; specifying the Quantities, separately entered for England, Scotland, and Ireland, and the Total Nett Revenue derived from the same; during the Year ended the 5th of January, 1836.

	England.		Scotland.		Ireland.		United Kingdom.	
	Gallons.	Revenue.	Gallons.	Revenue.	Gallons.	Revenue.	Gallons.	Revenue.
	Gallons.	*L.*	*Gallons.*	*L.*	*Gallons.*	*L.*	*Gallons.*	*L.*
British Spirits	7,315,053	2,743,145	6,013,452	1,002,322	11,291,223	1,327,809	24,710, 08	5,073,276
Colonial ditto	3,285,472	1,476,521	105,198	47,340	28 295	11,833	3,418,9 6	1,537,691
Foreign ditto	1,286,107	1,439,551	40,0 0	45,696	81,653	24,418	1,346,740	1,509,665
Totals	11,886,633	5,659,217	6,160,110	1,095,358	11,400,171	1,364,060	29,475,914	8,120,63[illegible]

The following Table exhibits in detail the consumption of, and revenue from, the different sorts of spirits in the United Kingdom, during the 3 years ended with the 5th of January, 1833:—

An Account of the Quantity of each of the different Sorts of Spirits that paid Duty in 1830, 1831, and 1832; distinguishing England, Scotland, and Ireland; with the Amount of Duty thereon.

	England.		Scotland.		Ireland.		United Kingdom.	
	Quantity.	Duty.	Quantity.	Duty.	Quantity.	Duty.	Quantity.	Duty.
Year 1830.	*Imp. Gals.*	*L.*	*Imp. Gals.*	*L.*	*Imp. Gals.*	*L.*	*Imp. Gals.*	*L.*
Brandy	1,239,113	1,391,874	27,997	31,495	7,693	8,655	1,274,803	1,432,024
Geneva	19,373	21,813	9,633	10,837	1,193	2,018	30,709	34,668
Rum	3,503,144	1,531,521	136,520	60,017	19,294	8,493	3,658,958	1,600,331
Home-made spirits	7,736,101	2,857,148	6,007,631	939,334	9,004,539	1,412,917	22,744,271	5,209,599
Total	12,499,731	5,802,656	6,181,781	1,041,683	9,033,319	1,432,083	27,708,831	8,276,622
Year 1831.								
Brandy	1,194,717	1,342,735	31,563	35,509	8,221	9,223	1,235,101	1,388,167
Geneva	15,079	16,971	7,431	8,361	1,385	1,562	23,895	26,894
Rum	3,479,911	1,564,775	125,702	56,566	18,984	8,540	3,624,597	1,629,881
Home-made spirits	7,434,047	2,787,767	5,700,689	950,115	8,710,672	1,451,779	21,845,408	5,189,661
Total	12,123,754	5,712,248	5,865,385	1,050,551	8,739,261	11,471,504	26,720,004	8,234,603
Year 1832.								
Brandy	1,508,924	1,697,095	61,151	68,794	31,577	35,512	1,601,652	1,801,401
Geneva	13,333	15,567	7,066	7,947	1,402	1,577	22,301	25,091
Rum	3,377,507	1,518,994	112,026	50,108	24,432	10,978	3,513,965	1,580,080
Home-made spirits	7,259,287	2,722,233	5,407,097	961,183	8,577,756	1,442,939	21,324,140	5,076,375
Total	12,159,551	5,953,889	5,587,340	1,028,832	8,715,167	1,491,026	26.4 2,058	8.403,247

The extraordinary increase in the consumption of brandy in 1832 is wholly ascribable to the alarm occasioned by the breaking out of the cholera, and the prevalent, but now exploded, notion that brandy potations were an antidote to the disease. As soon as the alarm subsided, the consumption of brandy declined to its old level; the entries for home use in 1833 not having exceeded 1,356,620 gallons.

Trade in *Spirits*.—No spirits made in England, Scotland, or Ireland shall be conveyed from England to Scotland or Ireland, or from Scotland or Ireland to England, otherwise than in casks containing eighty gallons at the least, and in vessels of not less than *fifty* tons burden.

All persons whatsoever, not being licensed distillers, rectifiers, or compounders, having more than *eighty* gallons of spirits in their possession, shall be deemed dealers in spirits, and subject to the survey of the officers of excise, and to all the regulations, penalties, &c. to which such persons are liable.—(6 *Geo.* 4. c. 80. sect. 122.)

Dealers in British spirits are prohibited selling or having in their possession any plain British spirits, except spirits of wine, of any strength exceeding the strength of 25 per cent. above hydrometer, or of any strength below 17 per cent. under hydrometer proof; or any compounded spirits, except shrub, of any greater strength than 17 per cent. under hydrometer, under pain of forfeiting all such spirits, with the casks, &c.—Sect. 124.

Dealers in foreign and British spirits are to keep them separate, in cellars, vaults, or other places specially entered for that purpose, under a heavy penalty; and any person mixing, selling, or sending out any British spirits mixed with foreign or colonial spirits, shall forfeit 100*l.* for every such offence.—Sect. 126.

No retailer of spirits, or any other person licensed or unlicensed, shall sell or send out from his stock or custody any quantity of spirits exceeding 1 gallon, unless the same be accompanied by a true and lawful permit, under pain of forfeiting 20*l.*; and any rectifier, compounder, or dealer in spirits, receiving the same into their stock, or allowing any one else to receive it, and any carrier, boatman, or other person, knowingly carrying the same, shall forfeit the sum of 20*l.*, with the boat, horse, cart, &c. used in the carriage.—Sect. 116.

No licence to be granted for retailing spirits within gaols, houses of correction, or workhouses for parish poor; nor are spirits to be used there, except medicinally prescribed by a regular physician, surgeon, or apothecary. Penalty for a first offence of this sort committed by gaolers, &c., 100*l.*; a second offence to be deemed a forfeiture of their office.—Sect. 134.

Persons *hawking spirits* to forfeit them and 100*l.*; and if the penalty be not immediately paid, they are to be committed to the house of correction for 3 months, or until paid.—(Sect. 138.) Any person is authorised to detain a hawker of spirits, and give notice to a peace officer, who is to carry the offender before a justice.—Sect. 140.

Any officer of excise, or other person employed in the excise, taking any sum of money or other reward from, or entering into any collusive agreement with, any person, to act contrary to his duty, to forfeit 500*l.*, and be incapacitated; and any person offering such reward or proposing such agreement, to forfeit 500*l.*—Sect. 145.

For the regulations as to the importation, &c. of foreign spirits, see *Brandy*, *Geneva*, and *Rum*.

(The reader will find in the foregoing article a statement of the smuggling and other pernicious consequences resulting in Ireland from the oppressive duties laid on spirits previously to 1823; of the good effects of the reduction of the duty to 2*s.* 10*d.* the imperial gallon in that year; and of the influence which the addition of 6*d.* to the duty in 1831 had in reviving that illicit distillation, the preceding reduction had gone far to put down. The view we took of the necessity of making a fresh reduction of the duty was approved and strongly recommended by the Commissioners of Excise Inquiry; and has, we are glad to say, been acted on by government; the act 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 75. having reduced the duty on British spirits, entered for home consumption in Ireland, to 2*s.* 4*d.* a gallon.

It was contended, when this measure was before parliament, that the reduction should be extended to all parts of the empire; and that, by confining it to spirits used in Ireland, a new temptation would be created to smuggle from that country into England and Scotland. This no doubt will be, in some degree, the case; and we hope that no long period will be allowed to elapse till the measure be generalised. We do not, however, think, that there is much probability of its giving birth to any considerable amount of smuggling; and it is not to be denied that the reduction was much more urgently required in Ireland than any where else. Scotch whiskey carried to Ireland is admitted for consumption at the low duty.

Spirits and Wine, (Consumption of.)

Account of the Number of Gallons of Foreign and Colonial Spirits upon which Duty was charged in the United Kingdom since the Year 1832; with the Amount of Duty received thereon; also, a similar Account of Home-made Spirits and of Foreign Wine.

Years.	Foreign and Colonial Spirits.				Home-made Spirits.	Total of Spirits.	Foreign Wines of all Sorts.
	Brandy.	Geneva.	Rum.	Total.			
1832	*Gallons.* 1,601,662	*Gallons.* 22,301	*Gallons.* 3,537,817	*Gallons.* 5,161,780	*Gallons.* 21,346,753	*Gallons.* 26,508,533	*Gallons.* 6,178,328
1833	1,357,341	20,946	3,492,765	4,871,152	21,874,455	26,745,587	6,421,631
1834	1,388,751	21,699	3,345,666	4,756,116	23,917,760	28,153,876	6,719,581
1835	1,315,071	18,703	3,417,642	4,751,416	24,710,208	29,462,663	6,640,533
1836	1,257,960	20,008	3,325,068	4,603,034	26,745,300	31,548,334	7,036,248
1837	1,209,107	18,151	3,562,702	4,789,960	24,493,539	29,283,499	6,562,973
Rate	22*s.* 6*d.* per Gallon	22*s.* 6*d.* per Gallon.	2*s.* per Gall.		Rate of Duty on Home-made Spirits. In England, 7*s.* 6*d.* per Gall. Scotland, 2*s.* 4*d.* — Ireland, 3*s.* 4*d.* until Sept., 1834, when 2*s.* 4*d.*		Cape Wine 2*s.* 9*d.*, other sorts 5*s.* 6*d.*

Account of the Number of Proof Gallons of Rum, Brandy, Geneva, and all other Foreign and British Spirits, that paid Duty in England, Scotland, and Ireland respectively, during 1837; with the Total Number of Gallons that paid Duty in the United Kingdom, and the total Duty in the above Year.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 323, Sess. 1838.)

	England.		Scotland.		Ireland.		United Kingdom.	
	Number of Gallons.	Net Amount of Duty.	Number of Gallons.	Net Amount of Duty.	Number of Gallons.	Net Amount of Duty.	Number of Gallons.	Net Amount of Duty.
		£.		£.		£.		£.
Rum	3,079,778	1,385,910	88,804	37,780	26,673	9,336	3,194,255	1,432,926
Brandy	1,160,606	1,205,572	31,161	35,056	16,377	16,967	1,208,144	1,257,595
Geneva	11,958	13,468	4,835	5,439	1,441	1,623	18,234	20,529
Other Foreign Spirits	11,602	9,213	1,140	800	389	365	13,200	10,466
Total of Foreign Spirits	4,264,146	2,714,163	120,940	79,074	30,879	30,291	4,424,465	2,823,478
Spirits of the Manufacture of the United Kingdom	7,138,869	2,674,900	6,124,085	1,020,570	11,235,085	1,310,705	24,498,539	5,006,255
Ditto of Guernsey or Jersey	25,048	9,390	51	9	- -	- -	25,099	9,399
Spirits of all kinds	11,423,063	5,398,453	6,245,076	1,099,653	11,275,014	1,341,026	28,943,103	7,839,112

Spirit Licenses.—The act 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 75. made certain additions to the duties on spirit licences; but these have been repealed by the act 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 72.; and the spirit licences are now the same as those dated in p. 138.—Sup.)

SPONGE (Ger. *Schwamm*; Fr. *Eponge*; It. *Spugna*; Sp. *Esponja*), a soft, light, very porous and compressible substance, readily imbibing water, and as readily giving it out again. It is found adhering to rocks, particularly in the Mediterranean Sea, about the islands of the Archipelago. It was formerly supposed to be a vegetable production, but is now classed among the zoöphytes; and analysed, it yields the same principles as animal substances in general. The inhabitants in several of the Greek islands have been trained from their infancy to dive for sponges. They adhere firmly to the bottom; and are not detached without a good deal of trouble. The extraordinary clearness of the water facilitates the operations of the divers. Smyrna is the great market for sponge. The price varies from 0 to 16 piastres per oke for ordinary and dirty, and from 80 to 100 piastres per oke, for fine and picked specimens. Sponge is also fished in the Red Sea.—(*Ure's Dictionary*; *Savary's Letters on Greece*, Eng. ed. p. 109.; and *private communications.*)

Sponge is used in surgery, and for a variety of purposes in the arts. The duty on it, in 1839, produced 2,097*l.* 4*s.* 1*d.*; but it has since been judiciously reduced from 2*s.* to 6*d.* per lb. when brought from a foreign country, and from 6*d.* to 1*d.* per lb., when brought from a British possession. The far greater portion comes from the former. No deduction is made from the duty on account of sand or dirt, unless it exceed 7 per cent., and then only for the excess above 7 per cent.

SQUILL (Ger. *Meerzwiebel*; Fr. *Scille, Oignon marin*; It. *Scilla, Cipolla marina*; Sp. *Cebolla albarrana*), or, as it is sometimes denominated, the *Sea onion*, is a plant with a large bulbous root, which is the only part that is used. It grows spontaneously on sandy shores in Spain, and the Levant; whence we are annually supplied with the roots. They should be chosen large, plump, fresh, and full of a clammy juice: some are of a reddish colour, and others white; but no difference is observed in the qualities of the 2 sorts. The root is very nauseous, intensely bitter, and acrimonious; much handled, it ulcerates the skin. The bulbs are brought to England, preserved fresh in sand. The acrimony of the roots, on which their virtue depends, is partially destroyed by drying and long keeping, and is completely destroyed by exposure to heat above 212°. Squill is one of the most powerful and useful remedies in the materia medica.—(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

STADE, a small city of Hanover, on the Schwinge, 22 miles W. by N. of Hamburgh, lat. 53° 36′ 32″ N., lon. 9° 28′ 34″ E. It has very little trade; and would be quite unworthy of notice in a work of this sort, except for the circumstance that a toll or duty charged by the Hanoverian government on all goods imported into Hamburgh, whether for consumption or transit, is paid at the castle of Brunshausen, contiguous to this town. The duty is generally about ½ per cent. *ad valorem*. It is rated according to a tariff: and is computed from the ship's manifest, bills of lading, cockets, &c., which must be left at Brunshausen for that purpose. The duties are paid in Hamburgh; and no vessel is allowed to unload, till a receipt, subscribed by the Hanoverian authorities in that city, be produced for the duties. We have already—(See HAMBURGH)—expressed our surprise that an obstruction of this sort should have been tolerated for so long a period. The duties fall heavily on certain descriptions of goods; particularly on some manufactured articles; and are, at an average, decidedly higher than the duties charged in Hamburgh. They are most objectionable, however, from their requiring many troublesome regulations to be complied with; the unintentional deviation from any one of which exposes the cargo to confiscation, and never fails to occasion a great deal of delay, trouble, and expense. As the principal part of the foreign trade of the Elbe is in our hands, we are, of course, principally affected by the Stade toll; and, considering the source of the nuisance, it is really not a little astonishing it should not have been abated long ago. The sum which the Hanoverian government derives from the

duties is but trifling compared with the injury they inflict on our trade; it would, consequently, be good policy for the former to sell, and for the British government to buy, an exemption from so vexatious a duty; and we are well assured that few things would do more to extend our trade with Hamburgh than the completion of an arrangement of this sort.

Previously to 1736, English ships passing up the Elbe had to come to an anchor opposite Brunshausen: but they were then allowed, under certain conditions, to pass on to Hamburgh. The proclamation to this effect, and which contains an epitome of the regulations that have still to be observed, is subjoined.

1. That all English vessels be exempted from coming to an anchor below the river Schelinge, and allowed to sail directly up to Hamburgh.

2. Such English vessels shall be obliged, at their approach, within sight of a league thereof, to hoist their colours, to lower their sails, and only to drive, till the legitimation is made at the king's above lying there.

3. The master of the ship, or a proper person fully provided with the necessary documents, is to go on board the frigate, and afterwards to the custom-house at Brunshausen and Stade; and there to produce the report manifest, and the original bills of lading, cockets, &c.

4. The documents being produced, the accounts shall be stated, and all duties must be paid at Brunshausen, Stade, or Hamburgh.

5. The clearance shall be given at Brunshausen to the person sent either by the master of the vessel; by whom it must be delivered to his majesty's commissary in Hamburgh, together with the documents of the ship, and a specification of the parcels, bales, casks, &c. which were received on board at the port of lading, whether designed for Hamburgh or other places.

6. Bulk must not be broken till all this has been performed, except by his majesty's commissary in Hamburgh permits, in urgent cases, the morning.

7. The vessel being thus allowed to pass the frigate without being searched, in case of suspecting any fraud, the masters shall be obliged to make a proper oath; and the merchants in Hamburgh, who receive goods by those vessels, shall make an exact report thereof, and give a certificate in lieu of an oath—that they neither have received nor expected more goods than have been specified,—which must be delivered to his Majesty's commissary in Hamburgh, to enable him to examine the report made by the master.

8. No master is to depart from Hamburgh before he has taken a certificate from his Majesty's commissary, proving that all has been duly performed; which is to be sent to the king's frigate, near Brunshausen.

9. The signals mentioned in the second article are likewise to be made when the ship repasses Stade.

10. The taking cognizance of, and punishing misdemeanours, frauds, and mismanagements, as well as the neglecting of the preceding articles, remains in the Court of the King's Customs at Stade; so that both merchants and masters of ships, who may be called to an account, shall, when summoned, appear before the said court, and submit to its decisions; but they have the liberty of appeal to the superior courts for a revision and relief.

11. As to all other points not expressly mentioned in the foregoing articles, they shall be observed at the king's Custom houses at Brunshausen, Stade, and Hamburgh, according to the regulations and customs heretofore practised.

12. This gracious concession is hereby granted only *durante bene placito*; the king reserving to himself and his successors in his German dominions the right of revoking it, and making any alterations or new orders, whenever they shall see reason.

The following statement, taken from the books of a Hamburgh merchant, shows in parallel columns, the amount of the Stade and Hamburgh duties paid on certain articles imported into Hamburgh. It is clear from it, that even though there were no burdensome regulations to be complied with, the amount of the Stade duties must be a very serious drawback on the trade of the Elbe.

A List, showing the Amount of Stade Duties, and the Amount of Hamburgh Duties paid on the same Goods imported into Hamburgh.

Articles.	Stade Duty.	Town Duty.	Articles.	Stade Duty.	Town Duty.
	Bco. Marcs.	*Bco. Marcs.*		*Bco. Marcs.*	*Bco. Marcs.*
40 Bales cotton	17 13	16 12	363 Casks coffee	419 3	
1,300 Bags coffee	885 15	225 8	155 Hogsheads ditto	138 1	603 8
1,000 Rio Grande hides	87 2	107 8	341 Barrels ditto	101 4	
10 Chests indigo	13 5	28 4	314 and 46 tierces rice	27 0	95 12
191 Bags allspice	19 8	21 8	330, 150 and 5 boxes segars	72 12	16 4
102 Bundles whalebone	15 2	13 4	40 Hogsheads tobacco	136 1	25 10
1,005 Boxes Havannah sugar	112 6	228 0	30 Ditto	71 4	27 12
68 Hogsheads sugar	23 6	56 10	4 Ditto	0 4	4 4
444 Cases Bahia sugar	49 7	574 14	121 Bales ditto	70 6	7 8
23 Tons logwood	90 13	10 6	14 Casks tobacco stems	2 10	4 10
33 Puncheons rum	8 4	21 5	100 Chests souchong tea	77 8	10 4
119 Bags pimento	18 7	16 8	95 Hogsheads quercitron bark	21 2	28 4
38 Hogsheads refined sugar	6 12	29 2			

STARCH (Ger. *Amidan*; Fr. *Amidon*; It. *Amodi, Amito*; Sp. *Amidon, Almidon*; Rus. *Kruchmal*), a substance obtained from vegetables. It has a fine white colour, and is usually concreted in longish masses; it has scarcely any smell, and very little taste. When kept dry, it continues for a long time uninjured, though exposed to the air. It is insoluble in cold water; but combines with boiling water—forming with it a kind of jelly. It exists chiefly in the white and brittle parts of vegetables, particularly in tuberose roots, and the seeds of the gramineous plants. It may be extracted by pounding these parts, and agitating them in cold water; when the *parenchyma*, or fibrous parts, will first subside; and these being removed, a fine white powder, diffused through the water, will gradually subside, which is the starch. Or the pounded or grated substance, as the roots of potatoes, acorns, or horse chestnuts, for instance, may be put into a hair sieve, and the starch washed through with cold water, leaving the grosser matters behind. Farinaceous seeds may be ground and treated in a similar manner. Oily seeds require to have the oil expressed from them before the farina is extracted. Potato starch goes a good deal further than wheat starch—a less quantity of it suffices to form a paste of equal thickness, with water. It has a very perceptible crystallised appearance, and is apparently heavier than common starch.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*; *Ure's Dictionary*.)

Starch is charged with a duty of 3½*d.* per lb.; and its manufacture is, consequently, placed under the control of the excise. Every maker of starch for sale must take out an annual licence, which costs 5*l.* Notice must be given to the excise of the erection, and of all changes in the construction, of workshops, implements, &c. used in the manufacture of starch, under a penalty of 200*l.* All starch, before it is put into any stove or place to dry, must be papered and sealed or stamped by the officer, under a penalty of 100*l.* Any person forging or counterfeiting such stamp or seal is guilty of felony, but with the benefit of clergy. Any person knowingly selling any starch with a forged or counterfeit stamp, &c. forfeits 500*l.* No quantity of starch exceeding 28 lbs. to be removed from one place to another, unless the word *starch* be marked on the package in legible letters 3 inches long, under forfeiture of the package, and of the cattle and carts conveying the same. Any dealer in starch receiving any quantity exceeding 28 lbs. not marked as above, shall forfeit 200*l.* Starch-makers are to make weekly entries of the starch made by them, under a penalty of 50*l*; and are to make payment of the duties within a week of such entry. Cockets granted for shipping starch to be carried coastwise are

to express the quality, quantity, weight, the mark of the package, by whom made and sold, and to whom consigned; and if shipped without such cocket, it may be seized. No starch is to be imported, unless in packages containing at least 224 lbs. stowed openly in the hold, on pain of forfeiture and of incurring a penalty of 50*l*. No starch is to be exported, unless the package as originally sealed or stamped by the officer be entire, and unless the officer mark the word *exportation* upon it. The duties must have been paid on all starch exported; but the exporter is entitled to an excise drawback of 3½*d.* per lb.—(*Burn's Justice of the Peace*, Marriott's ed., tit. *Starch.*)

An Account of the Number of Pounds of Starch that paid the Home Consumption Duty in Great Britain, the Rate of Duty, and the Gross and Nett Produce of the Duty, in each of the Three Years ending with the 5th of January, 1833.

Years ended 5th Jan.	Rate per lb.	Lbs.	Gross Produce.			Nett Produce.		
	d.		£	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
1831	3½	7,645,486	103,532	12	5	86,453	9	4
1832	—	7,553,469	102,286	11	3	76,114	3	8
1833	—	8,070,026	109,281	12	0	85,105	18	8

(The injurious influence of the duty on starch, the nett produce of which, in 1833, was only 91,517*l.* 18*s.* 2½*d.*, was most ably exposed, and its abolition strongly recommended, by the Commissioners of Excise Inquiry, and we are glad to have to add that, agreeably to that recommendation, the duty has been abolished.—(4 & 5 *Will.* 4. c. 77.)—*Sup.*)

(STEAM VESSELS.

An Account of the Number and Tonnage of Steam Vessels belonging to the British Empire in the Year 1837, distinguishing British Possessions in Europe from the British Plantations.

England.		Scotland.		Ireland.		United Kingdom.		Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, & Man.		British Plantations.		Total.	
Vessels	Tonnage	Vessels	Tonnage	Vessels	Tonnage	Vessels	Tonnage	Vessels	Tonnage	Vessels	Tonnage	Vessels	Tonnage
422	37,240	109	13,386	87	18,437	618	69,045	6	633	44	5,411	668	75,26

Steam Engines and Steam Vessels, &c. of the United States.—We believe we shall be doing an acceptable service to the bulk of our readers by laying before them the following extracts from a letter by the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, prepared in pursuance of a resolution of the House of Representatives, of the 20th of June, 1838. It communicates many interesting particulars with respect to the employment of steam engines and steam vessels in the United States, and the accidents that have happened to the latter.

Number of Steamboats, Locomotives, and other Steam Engines in the United States.—"The whole number of steam engines, of every kind, in the United States, reckoning one to each boat, is estimated to be 3,010. Of these, 2,653 have been ascertained, and 357 are estimated, in places from which the returns are either defective or not received at all. Of this whole number, about 800 are supposed to be employed in steamboats, of which 700 are ascertained, and 100 estimated. About 350 are employed in locomotives upon railroads. Of these, 337 are ascertained, and 13 estimated. The residue, being 1,860, are used in manufactories of various kinds. Of these, 1,616 are ascertained, and 244 estimated."

Number of Accidents to Steam Engines.—"The number of accidents occasioning loss of life or much injury to property, which have occurred in the use of steam engines of every kind in the United States, is computed to have been about 260. Of these, 253 are ascertained, and the rest are estimated. Such accidents, by explosions and other disasters to steamboats, appear to have constituted a great portion of the whole, and are supposed to have equalled 230, of which 215 are ascertained. The first of these is believed to have occurred in the Washington, on the Ohio river, in 1816.

"Since the employment of steamboats in the United States, it is computed that quite 1,300 have been built here. Of these, about 260 have been lost by various accidents, as many as 240 worn out, and the rest are now running.

"The first steamboat used for practical purposes here, (or indeed in any part of the world,) was in 1807, on the Hudson River, in the State of New York. She was built by Fulton, called the North River, with an engine of only 18-horse power, and made the passage between Albany and New York in thirty-three hours. Though with a steam engine manufactured abroad by Boulton and Watt, yet no boat was launched in Europe, that proved successful in practice, till five years after, by Mr. Bell, at Glasgow, in 1812. At that time the Car of Neptune, built in 1808, the Paragon, in 1811, and the Richmond, in 1812, were all, in addition to the boat first built, running from New York. Rumney is known to have made experiments on a small scale as to steamboats, in Virginia, as early as 1787; but they were not reduced to any practical use. Both he and Fitch commenced trials in this country as early as 1783 and 1784, and Oliver Evans, in 1785 and 1786. They had been preceded in France, in 1762, by the Marquis d'Jeaffrey; and the idea of applying steam in boats had been suggested in England as early as 1736, by Jonathan Hulls.

"The whole number of steamboats ascertained and estimated to be now in this country, is 800. In England, in 1836, the whole number is computed to have been 600. On the Western and South-western waters alone, near 400 are now supposed to be running, where

ness were used till 1811, and where, in 1834, the number was computed to be only 234. Of these 400, about 141 are estimated. On the Ohio river alone, in 1837, about 413 different steamboats are reported to have passed through the Louisville and Portland canal, besides all below and above, which never passed through. But it deserves notice, that of those 413, near 60 went out of use by accidents, decay, &c., within that year; and several of the others, viz., 104, were new, and many of them probably were destined to run on other rivers. As an illustration of the rapid increase of business in steamboats on the Ohio, the number of passages by them through the Louisville canal increased from 400, in 1831, to 1,591, in 1837, or nearly fourfold in six years. About 70 boats were running the present year on the North-western lakes, where a few years since the number was very small, having been in 1835 only 25. Of the 800 steamboats now in the United States, the greatest number ascertained to be in any State is 140, in the State of New York.

"It is a matter of surprise that so few of these are sea-going vessels, considering that the first steamboat which ever crossed the Atlantic was built in New York, so long ago as 1819, and went from Savannah (the place after which she was called) to Liverpool in 26 days; and that the Robert Fulton, as early as 1822, made several trips to New Orleans and Havana. A similar remark applies to the circumstance that only one of the whole number is a public vessel of war, when the first steam vessel of that kind ever launched was the Fulton, and was built in this country, so long ago as 1815. The Government of the United States never owned but two steam vessels of war—both called the 'Fulton.' The first was lost, by accident, in 1829; and now there is only the other, before alluded to, built in 1838. It has, however, 13 other steam vessels, employed in the war department, on the public works, and in the transportation of troops and stores.

"Of the whole number of locomotives in the United States propelled by steam, being about 350, the most which have been ascertained in any State is 96, in the State of Pennsylvania.

"None of them were introduced here till 1831, though they now run on nearly 1,500 miles of railroad. The first, it is believed, was in the State of Delaware, on the Newcastle railroad; the second, in Maryland, on the Baltimore and Ohio railroad; and the third, between New Orleans and Lake Pontchartrain, in the State of Louisiana. They had been tried in this country, by Oliver Evans, as early as 1804, and in England as early as 1805; but not reduced to useful practice in the latter till 1811, for freight, and in 1830 for passengers and speed. One succeeded on a common road, from London to Bath, in 1829. Of the whole number of other steam machines in the United States (being about 1,860), the State of Pennsylvania has the most, being 383. The number in some States is not accurately ascertained; but near 300 are ascertained and computed to exist in Louisiana alone. The introduction of them here, and especially with the high pressure machinery, was much promoted by Oliver Evans, about 1804. The first of them in use in the United States was put up in 1787, in the State of New Jersey, for raising water and earth from mines. The next were about 1791, in a cotton factory in Kensington, near Philadelphia; and soon after in saw-mills, and iron slitting and rolling mills at Pittsburgh. The power has been known in England to be applicable to mechanical uses since the experiments of the Marquis of Worcester, in 1663. It is said by some that he was preceded in France (and a pamphlet published on the subject as early as 1615) by Solomon de Caus. But the views of the latter, like many who preceded him in the knowledge of steam as a moving power, are supposed to have been rather theoretical than practical. Several machines were made in England as early as 1720; and Watt's first patent was taken out, for improvements in them, as early as 1769. But they were not, even there, very extensively and successfully applied to mills and manufactories, till 1785, though 18 large engines were employed in the mines of Cornwall as early as 1770; and a flour-mill, with 20 pairs of stones, was moved by steam in London in 1784.

"The greatest employment of these in the South is in the sugar manufacture, and in cleaning and pressing cotton; in the West in grist and saw mills, and in various manufactures of iron machinery and tools; and in the East, in mills, in printing, in cotton manufactories, and the public works at navy yards and armories.

"The government of the United States owns 17 of these; they being employed at their navy yards, to empty docks, saw timber, &c.; and at some arsenals and armories, in manufacturing arms.

"The tonnage of all the steamboats in the United States is computed to exceed 155,473. Of this, 137,473 is in boats ascertained or reported. By the official returns, the whole tonnage would now, probably, equal near 160,000 tons, having been, in 1837, equal to 153,660. Many boats included in those returns have been lost or worn out, and several new ones built since. In England, the tonnage is estimated to have been 67,969 in 1836. The tonnage of each boat here averages about 200; and the estimates, where the returns have been defective, were made on that basis. The power employed in all the steam engines in the United States is ascertained and estimated at 100,318 horse-power; of this, 12,140 only is in engines estimated and not returned. In the aggregate, all this new mechanical force would be equal to the power of 601,808 men. Of this force, 57,019 horse-power is computed to

be in steamboats; 6,980 in railroads; and the rest, being 36,319, in other engines. This averages about 70 horse-power to each boat, or one horse to between two and three tons, and less than 20 horse-power to each of the other engines. It is a striking fact, that the steam-power employed in standing engines, is equal to about two-thirds of all that is used in steamboats. The largest boat in the United States is supposed to be the Natchez, of 860 tons, and near 300 horse-power, destined to run between New York and Mississippi; the Illinois, and the Madison, on Lake Erie, are the next in size, the former being 755, and the latter 700 tons; the Massachusetts, in Long Island Sound, is the next largest, being 626 tons; and the Buffalo, on Lake Erie, next, being of 613 tons. The largest boats passing Louisville, in 1837, were, the Uncle Sam, of 447 tons, and the Mogul, of 414 tons; though below Louisville, the Mediterranean, of 490 tons, and the North America, of 445 tons, on the Ohio, and the St. Louis, of 550 tons, on the Mississippi, are running. The greatest loss of life well-authenticated on any one occasion in a steamboat, appears to have been by collision, and consequent sinking, in the case of the Monmouth, in 1837, on the Mississippi, by which 300 lives were lost. The next greatest were by explosions; of the Oronoka, in 1838, on the same river, by which 130, or more, lives were lost; and of the Moselle, at Cincinnati, Ohio, by which 100 to 120 persons were destroyed. The greatest injury to life by accidents to boats from snags and sawyers appears to have been 13 lost, in 1834, in the case of the St. Louis, on the Mississippi river. The greatest by shipwreck, was in the case of the Home, in 1837, on the coast of North Carolina, where 100 persons were lost. The greatest by fire, happened in the Ben Sherrod, on the Mississippi river, in 1837, when near 130 perished. The number of steamboats built in the United States in 1834, was 88; but in 1837, it was 184; or, had increased over 200 per cent. in three years. The places where the greatest number of steamboats, and other steam machines, appear to have been constructed in this country, are Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, and Louisville, on the Western waters; and New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, on the Atlantic. At Louisville alone, from 1819 to 1838, there appears to have been built 244 steam engines; of which 62 were for boats. The fuel originally used in steamboats in the United States, was wood; but, of late years, bituminous coal has, in many instances, been substituted; and, in several, anthracite coal. The latter, from the small space it occupies, would seem to possess a decided advantage, in sea-going vessels, as well as in locomotives.

"Some steamboats, made of iron, are believed to be in use in Georgia, if not in other parts of this country, though none of that material have been manufactured here; but it is computed that their cost is less than those of wood, and, as they draw less water with the same freight, they are more useful on shallow streams."—*Sup.*)

[The number of steamboats built in the United States, during the years ending on the 30th of September, 1838 and 1839, were 90 and 125 respectively.

The 23d of April, 1838, constituted an era in the progress of navigation, by the arrival at New York of the steam ships Sirius and Great Western; the former having left Cork, in Ireland, on the 4th of April, and the latter Bristol, on the 8th.

The shortest passage of the Great Western, down to the 19th of June, 1840, from Bristol to New York, was 13 days; the longest 21½; and the average, 16. The shortest passage from New York to Bristol, during the same period, was 12 days; the longest, 15; and the average, 13⅓.

Besides the Great Western, the steam ship British Queen now passes regularly between New York and Great Britain. Her passages have averaged, from Portsmouth to New York, 17¼; and in the contrary direction, 16 days.

Cunard's Liverpool, Halifax, and Boston line of steam-packet ships, consisting of the Britannia, Acadia, Caledonia, and Columbia, is now in successful operation; the first arrival at Boston being that of the Britannia, on the 18th of July, 1840, in 14½ days. On the 17th of August, the Acadia arrived at Boston, after a passage of only 12 days and 18 hours—the shortest passage ever made between Europe and America.

There can be no doubt that the success of the abovementioned vessels will speedily lead to the introduction of steam ships as the principal means for conveying passengers from the one continent to the other.—*Am. Ed.*]

STEEL (Fr. *Acier*; Ger. *Stahl*; It. *Acciajo*; Lat. *Chalybs*; Rus. *Stal*; Sp. *Acero*; Sw. *Stål*), is iron combined with a small portion of carbon; and has been, for that reason, called carburetted iron. The proportion of carbon has not been ascertained with much precision. It is supposed to amount, at an average, to $\frac{1}{140}$th part. Steel is so hard as to be unmalleable while cold; or at least it acquires that property by being immersed, while ignited, in a cold liquid; for this immersion, though it has no effect upon iron, adds greatly to the hardness of steel. It is brittle, resists the file, cuts glass, affords sparks with flint, and retains the magnetic virtue for any length of time. It loses this hardness by being ignited, and cooled very slowly. It is malleable when red hot, but scarcely so when raised to a white heat. It may be hammered out into much thinner plates than iron. It is more sonorous; and its specific gravity, when hammered, is greater than that of iron—varying from 7·78 to 7·84.

Steel is usually divided into 3 sorts, according to the method in which it is prepared; as *natural steel, steel of cementation;* and *cast steel.* The latter is the most valuable of all, as its texture is the most compact, and it admits of the finest polish. It is used for razors, surgeons' instruments, and similar purposes. Steel is chiefly employed in the manufacture of swords, knives, and cutting instruments of all sorts used in the arts; for which it is peculiarly adapted by its hardness, and the fineness of the edge which may be given to it.—(*Thomson's Chemistry;* and see IRON.)

(STETTIN, a city of Prussia, on the left bank of the Oder, about 36 miles from its mouth, in lat. 53° 23′ 20″ N., long. 14° 33′ E. It is well built, strongly fortified, and has a population, exclusive of troops, of 30,000.

Stettin is the seat of an extensive and growing commerce: and is now, indeed, the principal port of importation in Prussia. She owes this distinction mainly to her situation. The Oder, which flows through the centre of the Prussian dominions, is navigable as far as Ratibor, near the extreme southern boundary of Prussian Silesia; and is united, by means of canals, with the Vistula, the Elbe, the Spree, &c. Stettin is, consequently, the principal emporium of some very extensive and flourishing countries; and is not only the port of Frankfort-on-the-Oder, Breslaw, &c., but also of Berlin. Hence, at the proper seasons, its wharfs are crowded with lighters that bring down the produce of the different countries traversed by the river, and bring back colonial products, and other articles of foreign growth and manufacture. Vessels of considerable burden, or those drawing above 7 or 8 feet water, load and unload, by means of lighters, at the mouth of the river, at Swinemunde, the out-port of Stettin, on the east coast of the isle of Usedom, in lat. 53° 55′ N., long. 14° 15′ 15″ E. Formerly there were not more than 7 feet water over the bar adjacent to Swinemunde; but the harbour of the latter has recently been so much improved, by the construction of piers and breakwaters, dredging, &c., that it is now the best on the Prussian coast, and admits vessels drawing from 18 to 19 feet water. A lighthouse has been erected at the extremity of the Eastern pier. Stettin is a free port; that is, a port into and from which all sorts of goods may be imported and re-exported free of duty. If goods brought through the Sound be imported at Stettin, and entered for home consumption in the Prussian states, they are charged with 2½ per cent. less duty than if they had been imported through any other channel. This is intended to reimburse the merchant for the Sound duties, and to encourage importation by this direct route in preference to that carried on through Hamburgh and Embden. There is a great wool fair in the month of June each year.

Monies, Weights, and Measures, same as at Dantzic, which see. The Bank of Berlin has a branch at Stettin, and there is also an insurance office.

Imports and Exports.—The principal articles of import at Stettin are sugar, coffee, dye woods, wine, iron, and hardware, oil, tallow, cotton, and cotton goods, herrings, spirits, linseed, coal, salt, &c. The principal exports are linen, timber and staves, corn, wool, zinc, lattin, and zinc, bones, manganese, fruits, &c.

In 1838, among other articles, there were imported 32,963 tons raw sugar, 23,447 do. clayed sugar, 32,503 do. molasses, 1,896 barrels olive, 12,965 tons olive oil, 11,493 do. hempseed oil, 5,413 do. palm oil, 122,582 quintals dye-woods, 112,559 barrels herrings, 119,360 tuns wine, 17,353 quintals iron, 68,757 do. tallow, 47,056 do. potash, 1,588 do. copper, &c. Among the exports in the same year, exclusive of linens, &c., were 1,620 quintals of wool, 4,732 lasts corn, 1,581 do. oak staves, 3,226 do. wainscot, 17,813 pieces of wood for bracing, 5,044 lasts of wood for ship building, 74,192 quintals of zinc, 1,558 do. glass, 4,453 do. manganese, 38,880 do. bones, 38,046 do. oil cake, 66,877 bottles, &c. The wheat shipped from Stettin is rarely red, and of very fine quality. The barley is also very good. The oak staves are believed to be equal, or perhaps superior, to any from any other port of the Baltic.

Navigation.—Stettin is the principal shipping port in the Prussian dominions. In 1834, there belonged to it 329 ships, of the burden of 84,399 lasts, being about a third part of the shipping belonging to Prussia.

Account of the Arrivals and Departure of Shipping at Swinemunde, the Out-port of Stettin, in 1834.

Flag.		Total Ships.	Lastage.	Whereof			
				Ships.	Laden.	Ships.	In Ballast.
Prussia	Arr.	521	40,987	394	28,892	127	12,095
	Dep.	545	41,804	495	36,791	50	5,013
Danish	Arr.	97	3,914	63	2,561	34	1,353
	Dep.	85	3,860	49	2,538	36	1,322
Mecklenburg	Arr.	6	423	3	307	3	116
	Dep.	8	690	6	542	2	148
Hans Towns	Arr.	9	679	5	387	4	292
	Dep.	9	969	9	969		
Russian	Arr.	2	351	2	351		
	Dep.	2	351	1	154	1	197
Swedish	Arr.	13	862	13	862		
	Dep.	16	864	3	236	12	718
Norwegian	Arr.	33	1,148	25	1,143		
	Dep.	26	1,196	11	601	15	595
British	Arr.	50	4,866	47	4,538	3	328
	Dep.	50	4,866	42	3,734	8	1,132
Hanoverian	Arr.	31	1,337	18	780	13	557
	Dep.	30	1,313	29	1,290	1	23
Oldenburgh	Arr.	16	631	12	473	4	158
	Dep.	13	503	11	421	2	82
French	Arr.	1	48	1	48		
	Dep.	1	48	1	48		
Netherlands	Arr.	50	2,558	19	1,032	31	1,526
	Dep.	52	2,560	52	2,560		
Italian	Arr.	6	703	6	703		
	Dep.	6	703	5	598	1	105
Total	Arr.	817	58,702	608	42,077	209	16,625
	Dep.	842	59,907	714	50,473	128	9,355

Account of charges incurred by a British ship, of about 200 tons burden, at Swinemunde and Stettin:—

	Rix d.	S. gr.	Pf.
Stettin.—Pilotage and fee	8		
Town dues and clearances	6	28	
Poor rates	1	20	
Muster roll	2	27	6
Brokerage and charter party	5	20	
Broker's commission	18	23	
Measuring	8		
Swinemunde.—Port charges, inwards	34	12	8
Ditto, outwards	34	13	8
Harbour dues	14	21	8
Commission	16		
Prussian dollars, or about 100 Spanish dollars	151	14	

Port Regulations.—All vessels are prohibited entering Swinemunde, unless forced by stress of weather, without previously heaving-to for, and receiving, a pilot on board. But when compelled to enter without a pilot, the master is to observe the signals made from the lighthouse on the eastern pier, and to shape his course accordingly. If no flag be hoisted on the lighthouse, nor signal made, the port cannot be entered, and the master must either anchor in the roads or stand out to sea. After the pilot has been received on board, the master is bound, in all cases, to conform to his directions. Within 24 hours after arrival, the master must deliver to the custom-house an account of the species and quantity of each article on board; and he is subjected to a heavy fine if this account should turn out to be incorrect. He is to abide by the instructions given him as to discharging his cargo, loading, &c. No gunpowder is to be kept on board, nor any inflammable matter boiled in the ship. All ships proceeding from Swinemunde to Stettin must have pilots. The master must produce at the police office the muster roll of the crew, and the passports of the passengers, if there be any on board. The latter are bound to go with him to the police, and the crew, if desired. All presents to pilots and custom-house officers are strictly prohibited. Vessels directed to perform quarantine must immediately hoist the yellow flag; and on no account quit their assigned berth. The master is responsible for the conduct of the crew; and if any of them be discharged or remain on shore, he must give notice thereof to the police.

The following regulations apply to all the Prussian ports:—

Notification to Captains of Ships respecting Importation and Exportation by Sea in the Prussian Dominions:—

As soon as a ship arrives in the road, and has complied with the police regulations of the port (which are communicated to her), the captain repairs to the custom-house, and delivers a complete list or manifest of cargo. This list bears the title of a chief declaration, or manifest, and in preparing it, the following conditions are to be observed:—

If the whole cargo be not destined for the port, *that* part which is to proceed further with the ship is to be placed under a distinct division.

The goods accompanied with bills of lading are entered in rotation after each other for every bill of lading.

The account (or statement) is made out in kind and quantity, agreeable to those measures and divisions adopted in the tariff for the payment of duties.

Excepting therefrom various articles conveyed in an unpacked state, the following measures are valid:—

For beer in casks, tuns of 100 Prus. quarts.

For wines, brandy, & vinegar, in casks, (ohmen) of 60 Prus. quarts.
For herrings, barrels.
For burnt chalk, tuns of 4 Prus. bushels.
For all other packed articles, quintals of 110 pounds gross weight.

If there be a number of packages of similar articles, and each package contains an equal quantity, they may be entered summarily, according to their number and size; and a general statement of the contents will suffice.

If the contents of the packages be different, then the contents of each must be specified.

The luggage of the passengers must be marked as such in the report. If it consist of general travelling luggage, it will be enough to state the particular boxes or parcels; but if it consist of goods, then must these be stated, according to number and kind.

The individual property of the captain, with the exception of the provisions, is stated like all other tradesmen's property, with exclusion of the declaration of a receiver; and it is also stated in the declaration what articles remain out of the ship's hold.

Under letter A. a specimen is given of the report. It must be filled up exactly according to this example, and prepared according to the instructions before mentioned, and written fairly and correctly in the German language.

This declaration is binding on the captain, and every error that may be discovered on the unlading, or on examination, brings with it the punishment fixed in s. 121 of the regulation of customs.

If the captain have not brought with him a report, he may have one completed in the port, by a customs' officer; in which case he gives up all his papers to the said officer, who then stamps and numbers them, the last number being marked as such. The captain at the same time, informs the officer of the property belonging to himself and passengers of which there are no accounts; who thereupon makes out a list thereof, which is signed by the captain, and returned, in order to be used in preparing the report.

In case the report has to be prepared on shore, it must be delivered up in 24 hours, at latest, after the arrival of the captain in the road: if not, possession is taken of the ship, at his expense, which, according to the judgment of the customs, may take place even sooner, but free of expenses.

It is the business of the captain to procure for himself the necessary information for the report in the arranged manner, on receipt of the cargo. If he be without this, and a report of the cargo so ordered cannot be prepared, the directions of the customs regulations (s. 91.) are adopted. The required measures, in order to place in security the whole cargo, so that it may be discharged untouched, are taken; but several otherwise admissible facilities in the expediting, cannot be laid claim to.

Respecting the provisions, if they consist of articles which pay a consumption duty, a distinct or separate report must be given in duplicate. One is returned to the captain after a general revision, in order that he may take with him an equal quantity of the articles specified in it when he sails. If this do not happen, or if the departure do not take place within a twelvemonth, then the consumption duty is to be paid on the articles remaining on hand. The captain is, however, at liberty to deposit the provisions, subject to the consumption duty, at the custom-house until he sail.

Other articles, not properly belonging to the cargo, are in so far admitted, that they *undoubtedly* belong to the ship's inventory, and are utensils for the voyage. Articles which are not counted as such are taxed, if they be subject to a consumption tax, or, in order to take them again away, they are deposited at the custom-house.

If the ship remain in the road, and do not enter the harbour, but conveys there the cargo by lighters, the consumption in the road is tax free. A report of the provisions sufficient, and further control over them only takes place when [illegible] considered necessary through no cruelty, then [illegible] the security of the vessel and cargo, a general inspection only takes place, so that no part of the cargo may be sold or disposed of. When, however, such security has been given, a report is made of the cargo, so far as the ship's papers and the knowledge of the captain admit.

Respecting the further treatment of the business, the custom-house will take such other measures, according to circumstances, viz. whether the cargo remain untouched, or whether the same must be wholly or partly discharged for the repair of the ship, so that the cargo may be exported in its original state.

If a portion of the cargo is to be disposed of in the country, it is expedited in the same way as other import goods.

In cases of stranding, after the first salvage of the goods, the nature and quantity thereof is ascertained, with the assistance of the stranding officers, and must be placed in security till further directions be given about it.

The cargo of vessels which put in to winter must be examined as soon as possible, in as far as the ship's papers give information, and the knowledge of the captain extends upon the subject. The inspection of the external parts of the vessel, and the articles contained thereon, takes place directly, and the entrances to the ship's hold are locked up. Until the declaration, inspection, and locking up of the vessel take place, she is guarded at the expense of the captain; which guard, in particular cases, may last as long as the customs' department may deem necessary.

Vessels which only anchor in the roads, and do not enter a port, are out of the control of the customs' officers; they must not, however, hold any intercourse with the shore, or the port, otherwise they must give in reports beforehand, and present their papers.

If the vessel remain in the roads longer than 24 hours after declaration is made, before proceeding to put in or unload, if the one or the other be not prevented by stress of weather, then an officer repairs to the ship, examines the decks and the articles thereon, and locks up the entrances, &c. to the hold.

To the officers who are ordered for service on board the vessel is afforded a proper maintenance or treatment, the same as is given to travellers of the trading class.

If the occupation of the vessel takes place at the cost of the captain, he is then obligated to give the officers the daily pay of their rank, as regulated, and to provide for their return to their dwelling-place.

If it happen that officers, owing to an interrupted communication with the shore, are forced to remain beyond 2 days on board, then the captain must give them their meals, on their paying for the same, and if any difficulty arise about the charge, it is to be decided by the police authorities.

In all cases, the captain must row back the officers from the road to the harbour.

The directions of the officers, touching the discharge of the vessel in order that they may be able to exercise properly the duties of their office, must be followed.

If a captain has a well-founded complaint to make about the conduct of the officers, he must present it at the head custom-house; and may, after previous examination, expect, without delay, their dismissal (*Abstellung*). To every captain, after clearing out, the report of complaints (which, according to s. 107. of the regulation of tariff, must be in every custom-house) is presented, in order that he may enter therein his name, and whatever complaint he may have to make.

Specimen A. (referred to above). No.

Report of Captain , as to the Contents of the Vessel called from

The Vessel carries Lasts, of 4,000 Prussian Pounds.

Running No of the Ship's Papers.	Names of Consignees.	Description of the Goods.	No. of Packages.	Their running No.	Marks of Packages.	Gross Weight of Packages.	Other Rate of Measure.	Further Remarks of the Declarer.	Official Notices where the Description of Goods is further explained.
						Quint. Lbs.			
1	Schmid.	Sugar loaves.	6 casks.	.	♀				
				1	8	4 50			
				2	10	5 —			
				3	16	4 50			
				4	29	3 N3			
				5	29	4 10			
				6	38	5 —			
2	En ordre.	Coffee.	3 casks.	.	●				
				7	54	2 60			
				8	100	3 50			
				9	1nE	3 50			
3	Schuin.	Wine.	7 casks.	.	No signature.				
				10	. .	. .	6 eimers.		
				11	. .	. .	3 1-4 —		
				12	. .	. .	2 —		
				13	. .	. .	12 —		
				14	. .	. .	3 —		
				15	. .	. .	3 1-4 —		
				16	. .	. .	3 1-4 —		
4	Brand.	Tallow.	2 casks.	.	□				
				17	14	0 4	. .	Are placed upon deck.	
				18	20	0 5	. .		
5	Property of the captain.	Earthenware.	2 casks.	.	No signature.				
				19	. .	2 0	. .	Are in the cabin.	
				20	. .	1 50	. .		
6	Bar.	Passengers' property, clothes and linen.	1 box.	21	No signature.	Unknown.			
7	. .	Passengers' property, cotton goods.	1 pack.	22	. .	0 40			
8	Bauer.	Iron plate black.	6 casks.	23	♂ 18 20	16 each, at 2 cwt.			
				to	24 30 36				
				30	42 50 61				
9	Leo.	Herrings.	40 barrels	31to70	No signature.	. .	40 barrels.		
10	Schmidt.	Coffee.	20 bags.	71	. .	18 20			
				to		each bag, at			
				90		110 lbs.			

Table of Fees payable to the Brokers of Stettin, as fixed the 8th January, 1834.

		Dell. Sil. Pf. Grs.
	A. *On Goods Bills of Exchange, and Money.*	
1.	On the negotiation of bills of exchange . . . . per mille.	1 0 0
2.	On changing money, or papers considered as money . . —	0 15 0
3.	On every description of business in goods, excepting the corn trade per cent.	0 7 6
4.	On the corn trade, viz.:—	
	Wheat, rye, peas, and linseed (in so far as the latter is sold by the whispel) . . —	0 7 6
	Barley, oats, and malt . . —	0 15 0
	N. B. The items 1 to 4, inclusive, are to be paid both by the buyer and the seller.	
5.	On sales by auction, from the seller — If the same be withdrawn previous to the fixed period, as remuneration . . .	0 15 0
		1 0 0
6.	On certificates or extract of the journal, exclusive of the stamp .	0 20 0
	B. *Fees payable to Ship Brokers.*	
1.	For freighting vessels reckoned according to Prussian Normal lasts, payable by the owner as well as the affreighter . . . per last	0 1 6
2.	For the charter-party from both parties, the affreighter and charterer . . .	1 0 0
	The stamp is to be paid separately by the parties interested.	
3.	For reporting a vessel arriving with cargo . per Prussian Normal last	0 4 0
	(Without distinction as to the number of persons interested in the cargo, or whence the vessel comes.)	
4.	For reporting an outward bound ship with cargo . per Prussian Normal last	0 2 0
5.	For reporting a vessel in ballast coming in or going out . . —	0 0 10
	Note.—If a vessel, coming in or going out, be only partly laden, such cargo is reduced to Prussian Normal lasts, in proportion to the number of lasts stated in the ship's register, and according to this the duties are calculated. The items, 3, 4, 5, the broker has to charge to the ship	
6.	For procuring money on bottomry, payable by the lender as well as the borrower, for every 100 dollars . . .	0 2 0
7.	For sales of ships or single shares, from both parties, buyer, and seller, whether by auction or privately, per cent. of the price .	0 7 6
	If the sales be not effected within the fixed period, on whole vessels . . .	3 0 0
	on shares . . .	2 0 0
8.	For certificates and extracts from the ship's papers, statements of averages, or from the log book, exclusive of stamp . .	0 20 0

Ship.)

STOCKHOLM, the capital of Sweden, situated at the junction of the lake Maelar with an inlet of the Baltic, in lat. 59° 20′ 31″ N., lon. 17° 54′ E.; a well-built, handsome city. Population 80,000. The entrance to the harbour is intricate and dangerous, and should not be attempted without a pilot; but the harbour itself is capacious and excellent, the largest vessels lying in safety close to the quays. Stockholm possesses half the foreign trade of Sweden; but this is confined within comparatively narrow limits, in consequence of the impolitic efforts of the government to promote industry by excluding foreign products. Iron, timber, and deals form the great articles of export. Swedish iron is of very superior quality, and is extensively used in Great Britain; the imports of it amounting, in ordinary years, to about 10,000 tons, exclusive of 500 tons of steel. In addition to the above leading articles, Stockholm exports pitch, tar, copper, &c. The timber is inferior to that from the southern ports of the Baltic. The imports principally consist of colonial products, cotton, dye stuffs, salt, British manufactured goods, hides, fish, wine, brandy, wool, fruit, &c. In seasons of scarcity corn is imported, but it is generally an article of export.

Pilotage.—Vessels bound for Stockholm take a pilot at the small island of Oja. Lands-hort light-house, 70 feet high, and painted white, is erected on the southern extremity of this island, in lat. 58° 9′ 30″ N., lon. 17° 52′ 15″ E. It is furnished with a fixed light, which may be seen, under favourable circumstances, 5 leagues off. The signal for a pilot is a flag at the fore-topmast head, or firing a gun.

Money.—Accounts are kept here, at Gottenburgh, and generally throughout Sweden, in rixdollars, or crowns, of 48 skillings, each of 12 rundsyeks; or in rixdollars, skillings, and rundstycks, banco. The later currency is at present (1834) 50 per cent. more valuable than the former. A rixdollar banco is worth, at the current rates of exchange, from about 1s. 6d. to 1s. 8d. sterling. Except copper, there are no coins in circulation, nor have there been any for 30 years past.

Weights and Measures.—The victuali or commercial weights are mark, lispunds, and skippunds; 20 punds being equal to 1 lispund, and 20 lispunds = 1 skippund; 100 lbs. Swedish commercial weight = 93 3-4 lbs. avoirdupois = 42 1-2 kilog. = 87 3-4 lbs. of Hamburgh. The iron weights are 3-5ths of the victuali or commercial weights; 2 marks = 1 mark pund; 20 mark punds = 1 skippund; and 7 1-2 skpunds = 1 ton English. Hence, 100 punds Swedish iron weight = 75 lbs. avoirdupois, and 100 lbs. avoirdupois = 133 1-3 lbs. Swedish iron weight.

In corn measure:—

4 Quarts	=	1	Spann.
2 Spann	=	1	Tun or barrel.
1 Tun	=	4	1-6th Winch. bush.

A last of rye from Riga = 18 Tuns.

Ditto	Lieban	=	18 1-2 —
Ditto	Stettin	=	22 1-2 —
Ditto	Stralsund	=	24 —

The tun of 32 kappor contains 4 1-6th Winchester bushels.

In liquid measure:—

2 Stup	=	1	Kanna.
15 Kannor	=	1	Anker.
2 Ankers	=	1	Eimer.
2 Eimers	=	1	Ahm.
1 1-2 Ahm	=	1	Oxhoft.
2 Oxhoft	=	1	Pipe.

The pipe = 124 1-4 English wine Gallons; and, consequently, the ahm = 41 5-12ths ditto, and 100 kannor = 69 1-6th ditto.

The Swedish foot = 11·694 English inches; the ell or alna = 2 feet; the fathom = 3 ells; the rod = 8 ells.

In estimating by lasts:—

1 Last of pitch, ashes, &c.	=	12	barrels.
1 ditto tar, oil, &c.	=	13	ditto.
1 Last of hemp, flax, tallow, &c.	=	6	skippunds.
1 Ton of Liverpool common salt	=	7	tuns Swed.

Metals, &c. exported from Stockholm during the year 1833. Total, 231,956 1-2 skippunds = 37,698 tons; consisting of—

	Skippunds
Bar iron	212,839
Hoop ditto	2,602
Bolt ditto	2,176
Bundle ditto	1,696
Saltpan plates, &c.	706
Iron plates	4,722
Nails	5,080
Steel	6,265
Cutlery	2,005
Cast articles	2,858
Scroop iron	1,453
Brass	486
Copper	3,674
Brimstone, vitriol, and alum	6,718

Pro forma Invoice of 150 Skib. equal to 20 Tons, Iron, shipped at Stockholm, per Captain ——, for London.

712 bars iron, weighing, skib. 150 0 0 at bo. r. 1 3 -		2,250 0 0	Brought forward . . .		2,458 29 0
Charges.			Commission, 2 per cent. . . .		49 8 0
Duty and shipping charges 1 1-3 rd. per skib. . . Ro. r.	200 0 0				2,507 37 0
Brokerage on purchase 1-4 per cent. .	6 6 0		Bill brokerage, 1-8 per cent. . . .		3 6 0
Stamps and postages . . .	2 23 0				
		208 29 0		Ro. r.	2,510 43 0
	Ro. r.	2,458 29 0	At exchange R. 13.		*L.* 193 2 11

Stockholm, 1833. E. E.,

Quantities of some of the principal Articles imported into Stockholm, in 1833.

Rum, and other foreign spirits	kannor	125 869	Salt	tunnor	88,555	Ditto stalks	lbs.	153,000
Coffee	lbs.	2,303,157	Indigo	lbs.	17,194	Silks	skaar	13,163
Fish (dry)	lispund	134,433	Sugars	—	6,017,137	Cottons	—	414,296
Herrings	barrels	48,431	Tobacco	—	310,865	Woollens	—	304,710

Trade of Sweden.

Official Account of the principal Articles, with their Values, exported from, and imported into, Sweden, in 1831.

Country.	Exports.	Official Value.	Imports.	Official Value.
		Rixd. bc.		*Rixd. bc.*
Finland	Pig iron, ore, herrings, deals, salt, limestone, &c.	788,300	Corn, tar, tallow, butter, flour, deals, & wool	1,065,145
Prussia	Iron, steel, tar, pitch, lime, cannon, copper, wood, paper, flooring stones, iron plates, &c.	559,171	Corn, wool, hides	160,178
Mecklenburgh, Hanover, &c.	Wood, lime, iron, paper, staves, stones, steel, manufactured iron, tar, pitch, colours, alum, &c.	439,773	Corn, wool, hides, furs, fruit, &c.	110,092
Denmark	Corn, staves, wood, paper, iron, copper, mill and flooring stones, tar, pitch, alum, nails, lime, cutlery, fire wood, oak bark, steel, brass wire	1,556,814	Sugar, cotton, coffee, wine, rum, spices, chalk, salt, manufactures, corn, oil, wool, herrings, hides, lead, &c.	1,155,412
Netherlands	Wood, rock moss, tar, pitch	338,391	Manufactures, cork, hops	972,920
Great Britain	Iron, steel, tar, pitch, corn, wood, cobalt, rock moss, bones, bark, manganese, oil-cakes, &c.	3,236,700	Sugar, coffee, spices, mahogany, manufactures, cotton, dyes, wine, cognac, rum, coals, cotton yarn, earthenware, &c.	1,745,131
France	Iron, wood, tar, pitch, copper, porphyry, staves, bricks, colours	706,071	Wine, cognac, oil, cork, salt, spices, fruit, lead, soap, &c.	387,472
Portugal	Wood, iron, steel, tar, pitch, staves	570,120	Salt, fruit, leather, hides, cork, &c.	300,592
Gibraltar	Wood and iron	13,989		
Sardinia	Wood, iron, tar, pitch	58,170		
Tuscany	Ditto	133,920		
Austria	Tar	18,700		
Algiers	Wood	5,210		
Egypt	Wood, tar, copper	41,366		
United States of America	Iron and iron plates	3,199,256	Tobacco, cotton, sugar, hides, rice, dye woods	905,547
Norway	Corn, copper, bricks, &c.	524,372	Fish,	1,547,170
Hamburgh and Lubeck	Iron, cutlery, copper, steel, tar, wood, cobalt, pitch, staves, brass wire, alum, lime, colours	575,435	Manufactures, &c.	2,034,477
Spain	Wood, tar	41,236	Salt, fruit, wine, oil, lead, &c.	154,543
Both Sicilies	Iron and wood	6,754	Salt, fruit, oil, &c.	31,360
Brazils	Iron, wood, beer, steel, tar, pitch, ale, porter, &c.	339,744	Sugar, coffee, tobacco, hides, horn, &c.	1,365,056
Russia	Alum, colours, coffee, indigo, wine, steel, salt, herrings	113,447	Bristles, corn, seeds, hemp, tallow, soap, hides, oil, &c.	1,089,393
	Rixdollars banco	13,564,818	Rixdollars banco	12,502,683

Shipping of Sweden.—Swedish vessels employed in foreign trade, as per official returns:—

1830. 704 vessels = 45,173·96 lasts; navigated by 4,725 mariners, exclusive of masters.

1831. 671 vessels = 44,161·78 lasts; navigated by 4,635 mariners, exclusive of masters.

Vessels reported inwards from foreign places:—

		Vessels.	
1830.	Swedish	2,230	= 67,896 lasts.
—	Foreign	1,781	= 70,754 —
1831.	Swedish	2,427	= 93,090 —
—	Foreign	1,658	= 67,343 —

Vessels entered outwards for foreign places:—

		Vessels.	
1830.	Swedish	2,262	= 72,870 lasts.
—	Foreign	1,755	= 75,768 —
1831.	Swedish	2,379	= 74,117 —
—	Foreign	1,576	= 68,358 —

Or together—

Reported inwards,	1830	4,071	= 138,650 lasts.
——	1831	4,085	= 136,442 —
Entered outwards,	1830	4,047	= 147,747 —
——	1831	3,955	= 142,375 —

Regulations as to the working of Mines in Sweden.—The following paper, which we have received from Sweden, and on the authenticity of which our readers may rely, shows the nature of the obstructions laid on the principal branch of industry carried on in that kingdom. They appear to us to be in the last degree absurd and oppressive. It might be proper to enact regulations to prevent the waste of the forests; but having done this, every one ought to be at liberty to produce as much iron as he pleased, without being subject to any sort of regulation or control. We are surprised that so intelligent a government as that of Sweden should think of imposing such preposterous regulations.

"Sweden has at present from 330 to 340 smelting furnaces, which produce annually from 90,000 to 95,000 tons of pig iron. In converting the pig into bar iron, about 23 per cent. is allowed for waste; and as near as can be ascertained, the annual manufacture of bar iron is from 63,000 to 65,000 tons. The number of iron works is between 420 and 430, having about 1,100 forges (hearths). The annual exportation of bar iron, at an average of the 10 years ending 1831, was 49,566 tons; of which were, for—

Great Britain	10,000 tons.
United States	20,000 —
Germany, Holland, France, and Portugal	15,000 —
The remainder to Brazil, and a very little to the Mediterranean	4,508 —
Total	49,508

"The smelting furnaces and iron works are licensed for particular quantities, some being as low as 50 tons, and others as high as 400 or 500 tons; and some fine bar iron works have licenses for 1,000 tons each. These licences are granted by the College of Mines, which has a control over all iron works and mining operations. The iron masters make annual returns of their manufacture, which must not exceed the privileged or licenced quantity, on pain of the overplus being confiscated. The College has subordinate courts, called Courts of Mines, in every district, with supervising officers of various ranks. All iron sent to a port of shipment must be landed at the public weigh-house, the superintendent of which is a delegate of the College; and his duty is to register all that arrives, and transmit a quarterly report thereof to the college, so that it is impossible for an iron master to send more iron to market than his licence authorises. Many, however, sell iron to inland consumers at the forges, of which no returns are ever made out, and in so far the licences are exceeded; but we do not suppose that the quantity so disposed of exceeds 2,000 or 3,000 tons a year. Every furnace and forge pays a certain annual duty to the Crown. Its amount is fixed by the College when the licence is granted; and care is taken not to grant a licence to any one, unless he has the command of forests equal to the required supply of charcoal, without encroaching on the supply of this material required

for the existing forges in the neighbourhood. As the supply of pig iron is limited*, the quantity licenced to be made being never exceeded, the College, in granting new licences to bar iron works, always takes into consideration how far this may be done without creating a scarcity of pig iron. Hence, the erection of new forges depends—1st, on having a supply of charcoal, without encroaching on the forests which supply your neighbours; and 2dly, on the quantity of pig iron which the College knows to be disposeable. The courts of the mines decide all disputes that arise among the iron masters regarding the exceeding of their licences, encroachments, &c.; an appeal to the College lying from their decision, and ultimately to the king in council, or to the supreme court of the kingdom. In 1824, the mines produced 850 tons of copper, 50 tons of brass, 40 tons of lead, 1,700 tons of alum, 46,629 lbs. of cobalt, 3,000 lbs. of silver; and of late years several mines of manganese have been worked, the produce of which may be from 300 to 400 tons."

STOCKINGS, as every one knows, are coverings for the legs. They are formed of only 1 thread entwined, so as to form a species of tissue, extremely elastic, and readily adapting itself to the figure of the part it is employed to cover. This tissue cannot be called cloth, for it has neither warp nor woof, but it approaches closely to it; and for the purposes to which it is applied, it is very superior.

1. *Historical Sketch of the Stocking Manufacture.*—It is well known that the Romans and other ancient nations had no particular clothing for the legs. During the middle ages, however, hose or *leggins*, made of cloth, began to be used; and at a later period, the art of knitting stockings was discovered. Unluckily, nothing certain is known as to the individual by whom, the place where, or the time when, this important invention was made. Howell, in his *History of the World* (vol. iii. p. 222.), says, that Henry VIII. wore none but cloth hose, except there came from Spain by great chance a pair of silk stockings; that Sir Thomas Gresham, the famous merchant, presented Edward VI. with a pair of long silk stockings from Spain, and that the present was much taken notice of; and he adds, that Queen Elizabeth was presented, in the third year of her reign, with a pair of black knit silk stockings, and that from that time she ceased to wear cloth hose. It would appear from this circumstantial account, that the art of knitting stockings, or at least that the first specimens of knit stockings, had been introduced into England from Spain about the middle of the 16th century; and such seems to have been the general opinion, till an allusion to the practice of knitting, in the pretended poems of Rowley, forged by Chatterton, caused the subject to be more strictly investigated. The result of this investigation showed clearly that the practice of knitting was well known in England, and had been referred to in acts of parliament, a good many years previously to the period mentioned by Howell. But it had then, most probably, been applied only to the manufacture of woollen stockings; and the general use of cloth hose shows that even these had not been numerous. There is no evidence to show whether the art is native to England, or has been imported.—(See *Beckmann's Inventions*, vol. iv. art. *Knitting Nets and Stockings.*)

It is singular that the stocking frame, which, even in its rudest form, is a very complex and ingenious machine, that could not be discovered accidentally, but must have been the result of deep combination and profound sagacity, should have been discovered so early as 1589, before, in fact, the business of knitting was generally introduced. The inventor of this admirable machine was Mr. William Lee, of Woodborough, in Nottinghamshire. He attempted to set up an establishment at Calverton, near Nottingham, for the manufacture of stockings, but met with no success. In this situation he applied to the queen for assistance: but, instead of meeting with that remuneration to which his genius and inventions so well entitled him, he was discouraged and discountenanced! It need not, therefore, excite surprise that Lee accepted the invitation of Henry IV. of France, who, having heard of the invention promised him a magnificent reward if he would carry it to France. Henry kept his word, and Lee introduced the stocking frame at Rouen with distinguished success; but after the assassination of the king, the concern got into difficulties, and Lee died in poverty at Paris. A knowledge of the machine was brought back from France to England by some of the workmen who had emigrated with Lee, and who established themselves in Nottinghamshire, which still continues the principal seat of the manufacture.—(See *Beckmann's Inventions*, vol. iv. pp. 313—324.; and *Letters on the Utility and Policy of Machines*, Lond. 1780.)

During the first century after the invention of the stocking frame, few improvements were made upon it, and 2 men were usually employed to work 1 frame. But in the course of last century, the machine was very greatly improved. The late ingenious Mr. Jedediah Strutt, of Derby, was the first individual who succeeded in adapting it to the manufacture of *ribbed* stockings.

Statistical View of the Stocking Trade.—We subjoin, from a paper by Mr. Felkin, of Nottingham, who is very advantageously known by his statistical researches, the following view of the present state of the British hosiery trade.

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* We do not mean that the manufacture of pig iron is limited; for any one can get a licence to smelt, who can prove he has a sufficiency of charcoal at his disposal; but the quantity licenced is never exceeded, but is often less.

Worsted hosiery is chiefly made in Leicestershire; silk hosiery in Derby and Nottingham; and cotton hosiery throughout the counties of Nottingham and Derby, at Hinckley, and at Tewkesbury. The analyses furnished by Blackner, in 1812, may be, perhaps, modified as follows, so as to show the kinds and qualities of goods which the frames are now employed upon, viz.—

Plain cotton, 14 to 22-gauge, 1,600; 24 to 28-gauge, 1,600; 30 to 34 gauge, 2,700; 36 to 60 gauge, 1,900 frames	7,800
Gauze, 600; gloves and caps, 1,000; drawers, 800; sundries, 560	2,960
Wide frames, making cut-ups and various other kinds	6,000
Worsted, 12 to 20 gauge, 4,400; 22 to 26 gauge, 3,000; 28 to 34-gauge, 1,450 frames	9,450

Frames.			Dozen.		Lbs.		L.		L.		L.
10,800	making	fashioned cotton hose	420,000	produce	980,000	cotton yarn consume	78,000	value at	220,000	wages for making	32,000	finishing makes in all	325,000
6,000		cut up, &c.	1,920,000		2,940,000		172,000		285,000		98,000		555,000
2,500		fashioned worsted	710,000		2,840,000	worsted	284,000		215,000		41,000		540,000
1,000		cut up, &c.	160,000		400,000		40,000		80,000		10,000		80,000
1,300		Angola	95,000		332,500		45,000		40,000		19,000		104,000
1,800		lambs' wool	124,000		696,000		80,000		60,000		15,000		148,000
3,000		silk	90,000		105,000	silk	120,000		103,000		13,000		241,000
33,000			3,510,000		5,157,000		814,000		948,000		282,000		1,991,000

According to this calculation, the value of the cotton hosiery annually made is 880,000*l.*; that of worsted, &c. is 870,000*l.*; and that of silk is 241,000*l.*—To produce these goods, it is probable that 4,584,000 lbs. of raw cotton wool, value 153,000*l.*, are used; and 140,000 lbs. of raw silk (2-5ths China and 3-5ths Novi), value 91,000*l.*; also, 6,318,000 lbs. of English wool, value 316,000*l.* The total original value of the materials used, is, therefore, 560,000*l.*, which, it appears, becomes of the ultimate cost value of 1,991,000*l.*, in this manufacture.

There are employed in the various processes, as follows, viz.—

In cotton spinning, doubling, &c., 3,000; worsted carding, spinning, &c., 2,500; silk winding, throwing, &c., 1,000	6,500
In making stockings, 13,000 men, 10,000 women, and 10,000 youths; and women and children in seaming, winding, &c., 27,000	60,000
In embroidering, mending, bleaching, dying, dressing, putting-up, &c., probably about	6,500
Total persons employed	73,000

The capital employed in the various branches of the trade may be thus estimated, taking the machinery and frames at neither their original cost, nor actual selling price, but at their working value, and the stocks of hosiery on an average of years:—

The capital in mills and machinery, for preparing cotton, is	L. 70,000
— — worsted, &c.	52,000
— — silk	18,000
Fixed capital in mills, &c.	140,000
— in frames	245,000
Total of fixed capital	L. 385,000

Angola, 1,300; lambs' wool, 1,800; shirts, 600 frames	3,700
Wide frames, on with worsted goods	6,000
Silk, 2,300; gloves, 350; and knots, 850	3,000
Total of frames	33,000

The following statement, it is believed, presents a sufficiently accurate approximation to the annual amount in quantity and value of the goods manufactured in this trade, to assist all practical purposes:

Each narrow cotton frame produces about 40 dozen of hose a year; if of women's size; wide cotton frames, 300; narrow worsted, 70; wide worsted, 150; and silk, 30. There are—

	L.
In wool and yarn in process and stock	85,000
— — —	150,000
— — —	3,000
Floating capital in spinning, &c.	L. 270,000

	L.
Capital in narrow cotton frames	6,000
— wide —	60,000
— narrow worsted frames	96,000
— wide —	11,000
— silk frames	36,000
Fixed capital in frames	L. 245,000

	L.
In goods in process and stock	340,000
— —	34,000
— —	85,000
Floating capital in making hose	760,000
— in spinning, &c.	270,000
Total of floating capital	L. 1,055,000

N. B.—This estimate is independent, of course, of the value of the hosiery wrought by wires; but this is not very considerable. We believe it underrates the total value of the manufacture; for a sum of 1,991,000*l.* is barely equivalent, without even deducting the exports, which are very considerable, to an expenditure upon stockings of about 2*s.* 6*d.* a year to each individual in Great Britain,—a sum which we are inclined to think is decidedly under the mark.

STORAX. See BALSAM.

STORES, MILITARY AND NAVAL, include arms, ammunition, &c. It is enacted, that no arms, ammunition, or utensils of war, be imported by way of merchandise, except by license, for furnishing his Majesty's public stores only.—(6 *Geo.* 4. c. 107.)

STORES, in commercial navigation, the supplies of different articles provided for the subsistence and accommodation of the ship's crew and passengers.

It is laid down, in general, that the surplus stores of every ship arriving from parts beyond seas are to be subject to the same duties and regulations as those which affect similar commodities when imported as merchandise; but if it shall appear to the collector and comptroller that the quantity of such stores is not excessive, nor unsuitable, under all the circumstances of the voyage, they may be entered for the private use of the master, purser, or owner of such ship, on payment of the proper duties, or be warehoused for the future use of such ship, although the same could not be legally imported by way of merchandise.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 52. § 35.)

No stores shall be shipped for the use of any ship bound to parts beyond the seas, nor shall any goods be deemed to be such stores, except such as shall be borne upon the victualling bill.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 52. sect. 31.)

Goods delivered into the charge of the searchers to be shipped as stores, may be so shipped without entry or payment of any duty, for any ship of the burden of 70 tons at least bound upon a voyage to foreign parts, the probable duration of which out and home will not be less than 40 days: provided such stores be duly borne upon the ship's victualling bill, and be shipped in such quantities, and subject to such directions and regulations as the commissioners of customs shall direct and appoint.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 57. sect. 16.)

Rum of the British plantations may be delivered to the searcher, to be shipped as stores for any ship, without entry or payment of any duty; and any surplus stores of any ship may be delivered to the searcher, to be re-shipped as stores for the same ship, or for the same master in another ship, without entry or payment of any duty, such rum and such surplus stores being duly borne upon the victualling bills of such ships respectively; and if the ship, for the future use of which any surplus stores have been warehoused, shall have been broken up or sold, such stores may be so delivered for the use of any other ship belonging to the same owners, or may be entered for payment of duty, and delivered for the private use of such owners or any of them, or of the master or purser of the ship.—Sect. 17.

The searchers in London, on clearance of vessels coastwise to take in cargoes for foreign parts, are to apprise the collectors and comptrollers at the outports where the vessels may be bound, of the quantity and description of the goods which may have been shipped as stores on board such vessels, and that bond has been given by the masters of the vessels that no part of such stores shall be consumed by the crews, or any package opened or altered, until the vessels have actually been cleared on their foreign voyages; and the collectors and comptrollers at the outports are in like manner to cause a similar communication to be made to the ports where the outward cargoes are to be taken on board, and the officers at such ports are to take care to ascertain that the several goods so shipped are actually on board the vessels on their arrival, and have neither been consumed or run on shore during the coasting voyage; and if so, to report the same to the Board.—(*Disp. by Com. of Customs*, 19th of Feb. 1833.)

List of Foreign Goods allowed to be shipped as Stores, from the bonded Warehouses free of Duty.—(Custom's Minute, 28th of Nov. 1832.)

Tea, 1-4 of an oz.; *coffee or cocoa*, 1 oz. per day for each person on board, with the option to ship the entire quantity required for the voyage of either species of these articles, *half* an oz. of tea being considered equal to *one* oz. of coffee or cocoa; the tea to be shipped in the original packages in which it was imported.

Wine, 1 quart per day for the master, each mate, and cabin passenger.

Wine bottled in the bonded warehouses for exportation may be shipped as stores in packages containing not less than 3 doz. reputed quart, or 6 doz. reputed pint bottles.

Spirits, viz. brandy, geneva, rum (British plantation), 1-2 pint per day for each person on board.

British plantation rum to be in the proportion of 1-2 of the whole quantity of spirits shipped. Each description of spirits intended as stores to be shipped in one cask capable of containing the entire quantity of brandy, or of geneva or rum, allowed for the voyage, or in casks containing not less than 40 gallons of brandy or geneva, or 20 gallons of British plantation rum, as the case may be: provided that if spirits shall have been imported in bottles, or bottled in the bonded warehouses for exportation, the same may be shipped as stores, in packages containing not less than 3 doz. reputed quart or 6 doz. reputed pint bottles.

Raw Sugar and Molasses (together or separate), 2 oz. per day for each person on board.

Dried Fruits, 2 lbs. per week for each person on board.

lbs. lbs. per week for each person on board.
Foreign Sugar, 1-2 oz. per day for the master, each mate, and each cabin passenger.
The entire quantity of foreign segars, allowed as stores for each voyage, to be shipped in *one* package.

List of British manufactured Goods to be allowed to be shipped as Stores on the usual Bounty or Drawback.

British refined Sugar, 3 oz. per day for the master, each mate, and each cabin passenger.
British manufactured Tobacco, 1-2 oz. per day per man.
British excisable Goods, viz. beer, ale, and porter (together or separately), 1 quart per day for the master, each mate, and each passenger.
Vinegar, 1-2 pint per week for each person on board.

Soap, 1-2 oz per day for each person on board. The same indulgence, in respect of the shipment of stores, which has been granted to merchant vessels under the 2 & 3 Will. 4. c. 54., and by subsequent orders, is granted to transports under the following conditions, viz.:—On a certificate being produced for each vessel, from the office of a comptroller for victualling and transport services, setting forth the destination of the vessel, and the number of the crew and passengers on board, who are not to be messed by the victualling shipped by the public; and as respects soldiers embarked as guards in ships chartered for the transportation of convicts, on a certificate being produced from the proper department, specifying the number of soldiers to be embarked in each case; but no indulgence can be granted in regard to the article of soap.—(*Treas. Order*, 6th of March, 1833; see also *Ellis's British Tariff for* 1833 *and* 1834,—an accurate and useful publication.)

A List, by which to calculate the Amount of Stores, of the estimated Average Number of Days' Duration of a Voyage from the United Kingdom to the different Ports enumerated, and back.

Ports of Destination.	Days of Voyage.	Ports of Destination.	Days of Voyage.	Ports of Destination.	Days of Voyage.	Ports of Destination.	Days of Voyage.
Ab-	100	Cyprus	180	Majorca	110	Rhode Island	150
Alpes	120	Cape of Good Hope	240	Minorca	110	River Gambia	190
Amoria	100	Callao	400	Marseilles	130	St. Andero	60
Azores Islan	90	Coquimbo	400	Messina	180	St. Ubes	90
Alicant	110	Chili	360	Montreal	150	Sales	120
Alva	110	Calcutta	400	Malta	140	Stettin	100
Aragon	180	Colombo	365	Martinico	180	Stockholm	100
Augustine's Bay	150	Ceylon	365	Mariegalante	180	St. John's, Newfound.	120
Azores	160	Cuddalore	400	Mirumichi	100	St. Mary's	95
Alexandria	180	China	420	Montserrat	180	St. Michael's, Azores	90
Ascension Isle	240	Canton	420	Maranham	180	St. John, New Bruns.	120
Anthonyzo Isles	180	Dantsic	100	Monte Video	230	St. Andrew, do.	120
Asseboca	180	Dronthelm	100	Madagascar	270	Salerno	130
Archangel	120	Delaware Bay	130	Mexico. *Vide* Vera		Sardinia Isle	180
Ancona	120	Demerara	150	Cruz and Acapulco.		Siam	120
Antigua	180	Dominica	180	Mogadore	105	Savannah	150
Acapulco, Mexico	450	Davis Straits	240	Mauritius	270	Syracuse	140
Bergen	100	Embden	42	Madras	400	St. Augustine's Bay	150
Bona	120	Elbing	86	Malabar	365	St. Helena	240
Benbolm	100	Elsineur	100	Malacca	400	Sydney, N. S. Wales	400
Bombay	110	Elba Isle	130	Manilla	400	Sumatra	400
Bay of Bones	110	Esequibo	180	Mangalore	365	Society Islands	430
Baltimore	120	Friendly Islands	420	Masulipatam	400	Swan River	365
Bahama Isles	150	Faro Islands, N. Sea	100	Mocha	365	Singapore	365
Barbadoes	180	Faro Island, Canaries	95	Nantes	80	Surat	365
Berbice	180	Ferrol	80	Newfoundland	120	Sandwich Isles	420
Bermuda	120	Fayal	80	North Bergen	100	South Sea fishery	3 years
Boston	120	Fernando Po	180	Naples	130	St. Bartholomew	180
Bria	200	Falkland Islands	240	Narbonne	130	St. Croix	180
Bristh	200	Gottenburgh	100	Nice	120	St. Christopher's	180
Buenos Ayres	240	Gibraltar	100	Nevis	180	St. Domingo	180
Bay of Campeachy	240	Genoa	130	Nova Scotia	120	St. Eustatia	180
Bareior	365	Grenada	180	New York	120	St. Lucia	180
Bailey	365	Guadaloupe	180	New Providence	165	St. Martin	180
Bengal	400	Greek Islands, and Greece	180	New Orleans	120	St. Thomas	180
Botany Bay	420	Gallipoli	180	New Guinea	400	St. Vincent's	180
Bantra	400	Greenland fishery	180	New South Wales	400	Salonica	180
Bremen	42	Greenland fishery	180	New Zealand	400	Santa Martha	240
Bremen	80	Gorse	190	Negapatam	400	St. Salvador, or Bahia	200
Baltic	80	Guyaquil	400	New Brunswick	120	St. Sebastian	210
Bordeaux	80	Gangapatam	400	Newport	120	Senegal	180
Corunna	80	Goa	365	Oporto	80	Sierra Leone	180
Cadiz	90	Hamburgh	42	Odessa	240	Scandaroon	180
Carlscrona	100	Heligoland	42	Oaheite	420	Syra	180
Carthagena	100	Hayti	210	Owhyhee	420	Smyrna	180
Cape de Verde Islands, viz.		Halifax	120	Petersburgh	100	Tangier	120
St. Antonio		Havannah	200	Pillau	100	Trinity Bay	120
St. Vincent	100	Honduras	240	Placentia Harbour	120	Tunis	120
St. Jago		Hudson's Bay	240	Port St. John, Newfoundland	120	Tarragona	110
Ceuta	120	Hobart Town	400	Port-au-Prince, Hayti	210	Teneriffe	42
Canary Isles	95	Iceland	100	Palermo	130	Toulon	100
Christiania	100	Ivica	110	Penascola	190	Tripoli	120
Copenhagen	100	Italy	130	Philadelphia	120	Tortola	95
Cuba	130	Ionian Isles	130	Porto Rico	210	Tobago	180
Civita Vecchia	130	Islands in the Archip.	180	Providence, Bahama Islands	100	Trinidad	150
Corsica Isle	130	Isles of France and Bourbon	270	Pernambuco	100	Trieste	160
Cayenne	180	Jamaica	210	Porto Bello	240	Truxillo	410
Cape Hayti	210	Java	400	Para	180	Tiree	420
Charlestown	120	Konigsberg	100	Panama	420	Pellicherry	365
Chesapeake Bay	120	Lima	400	Peru	400	Trinconal	380
Corsica	210	Lisbon	80	Philippine Islands	420	Vigo	80
Cromstadt	180	Lubeck	100	Pondicherry	400	Valencia	110
Cadiz Isle	100	Leghorn	130	Pellow Islands	420	Venice	160
Cephalonia	160	Long Island	130	Quebec	180	Vera Cruz	260
Corfu Isle	160	La Guayra	240	Queen Ann's Point	180	Venezuela	240
Calabar	180	La Conception	400	Rio Grande	200	Valdivia	400
Cape Coast Castle	200	Maelstroom	100	Rio Janeiro	200	Valparaiso	400
Carthagena, Spanish main	240	Malaga	100	Rochelle	80	Van Diemen's Land	365
Cape St. Mary	180	Malaira	90	Revel	100	Wyburg	160
Constantinople	180	Memel	100	Riga	100	Zara	160
Columbia River	700	Mogadore	120	Rugen	100	Zea	180
Carron	240			Rome	130	Zante Isle	160

For such places as are not included in the List, the same allowance should be granted as is given to the place nearest thereunto.

STRANDING, in navigation, the running of a ship on shore, or on the beach.

It is the invariable practice to subjoin the following *memorandum* to policies of insurance executed by private individuals in this country:—"*N. B.*—Corn, fish, salt, fruit, flour, and seed, are warranted free from average, unless general, *or the ship be stranded*; sugar, tobacco, hemp, flax, hides, and skins, are warranted free from average under 5*l.* per cent.; and all other goods, also the ship and freight, are warranted free of average under 3*l.* per cent., unless general, *or the ship be stranded*."

It is, therefore, of the greatest importance accurately to define what shall be deemed stranding. But this is no easy matter; and much diversity of opinion has been entertained with respect to it. It would, however, appear that merely striking against a rock, bank, or shore, is not a stranding; and that, to constitute it, the ship must be upon the rock, &c. for some time (how long?).—Mr. Justice Park has the following observations on this subject:—"It is not every touching or striking upon a fixed body in the sea or river that will constitute a stranding. Thus, Lord Ellenborough held, that in order to establish a stranding, the ship must be *stationary;* for that merely striking on a rock, and *remaining there a short time* (as in the case of the bar, about a minute and a half), and then passing on, though the vessel may have received some injury, is not stranding. Lord Ellenborough's language is important.—*Ex vi termini* stranding means ...ng on the shore, or something analogous to that. To use a vulgar phrase, which has been applied to this subject, if it be *touch and go* with the ship, there is no stranding. It cannot be enough that the ship lie for a few moments on her beam ends. Every striking must necessarily produce a retardation of the ship's motion. If by the force of the elements she is run aground, and becomes stationary, it is immaterial whether this be on piles, on the muddy bank of a river, or on rocks on the sea shore; but a mere *striking* will not do, *wherever* that may happen. I cannot look to the consequences, without considering the *causa causans*. There has been a curiosity in the cases about stranding not creditable to the law. A little common sense may dispose of them more satisfactorily."

This is the clearest and most satisfactory statement we have met with on this subject; still, however, it is very vague. Lord Ellenborough and Mr. Justice Park hold, that to constitute a stranding, the ship must be *stationary;* but they also hold, that if she merely remain upon a rock, &c. for a *short time*, she is not to be considered as having been stationary. Hence every thing turns upon what shall be considered as a short time. And we cannot help thinking that it would be better, in order to put to rest all doubts upon the subject, to decide either that every striking against a rock, the shore, &c. by which damage is done to the ship, should be considered a stranding; or that no striking against a rock, &c. should be considered as such, provided the ship be got off within a *specified time*. Perhaps a *tide* would be the most proper period that could be fixed.

The insurance companies exclude the words, "*or the ship be stranded*," from the memorandum.—(See INSURANCE, MARINE.)

STURGEON FISHERY. The sturgeon is a large, valuable, and well known fish, of which there are several species, viz. the sturgeon, properly so called, or *Accipenser sturo;* the beluga, or *Accipenser huso;* the sevruga, or *Accipenser stellatus*, &c. The sturgeon annually ascends our rivers, but in no great number, and is taken by accident in the salmon nets. It is plentiful in the North American rivers, and on the southern shores of the Baltic; and is met with in the Mediterranean, &c. But it is found in the greatest abundance on the northern shores of the Caspian, and in the rivers Wolga and Ural; and there its fishery employs a great number of hands, and is an important object of national industry. Owing to the length and strictness of the Lents in the Greek Church, the consumption of fish in Russia is immense; and from its central position, and the facilities afforded for their conveyance by the Wolga, the products of the Caspian fishery, and those of its tributary streams, are easily distributed over a vast extent of country. Besides the pickled carcases of the fish, caviar is prepared from the roes; and isinglass, of the best quality, from the sounds. The caviar made by the Ural Cossacks is reckoned superior to any other; and both it and isinglass are exported in considerable quantities. The belugas are sometimes of a very large size, weighing from 1,000 to 1,500 lbs., and yield a good deal of oil. The seal fishery is also pretty extensively prosecuted in the Caspian. The reader will find a detailed account of the mode in which the fishery is carried on in the Caspian, and in the rivers Wolga and Ural, in *Tooke's Russia*, vol. iii. pp. 49—72. We subjoin the following official statement of the produce of the Russian fisheries of the Caspian and its tributary streams in 1828 and 1829:—

Year.	Number of Persons employed.		Number of Fish taken.					Products of Sturgeon.		
	In Fishing.	In hunting Seals.	Sturgeon.	Sevruga.	Beluga.	Sasana (Carp).	Seals.	Caviar.	Fish Cartilage.	Isinglass.
								Pouds. lbs	Pouds. lbs	Pouds. lbs
1828	2,887	254	43,035	653,164	23,069	8,333	98,584	34,260 1	1,20 38	1,25 27
1829	2,760	257	68,325	697,716	20,391	5,840	69,872	28,120 7	1,173 26½	1,09 22

SUCCORY, or CHICCORY, the wild endive, or *Cichorium Intybus* of Linnæus. This plant is found growing wild on calcareous soils in England, and in most countries of Europe. In its natural state the stem rises from 1 to 3 feet high, but when cultivated it shoots to the height of 5 or 6 feet. The root runs deep into the ground, and is white, fleshy, and yields a milky juice. It is cultivated to some extent in this country as an herbage plant, its excellence in this respect having been strongly insisted upon by the late Arthur Young. But in Germany, and in some parts of the Netherlands and France, it is extensively cultivated for

the nite of its root, which is used as a substitute for coffee; and it is this circumstance only that has induced us to mention it. When prepared on a large scale, the roots are partially dried, and sold to the manufacturers of the article, who wash them, cut them in pieces, kiln-dry them, and grind them between fluted rollers into a powder, which is packed up in papers containing from 2 oz. to 3 or 4 lbs. The powder has a striking resemblance to dark ground coffee, and a strong odour of liquorice. It has been extensively used in Prussia, Brunswick, and other parts of Germany, for several years; but as it wants the essential oil and the rich aromatic flavour of coffee, it has little in common with the latter except its colour, and has nothing to recommend it except its cheapness. It is only lately that succory powder began to be used in England; but, within the last 3 years, considerable quantities have been imported from Hamburgh, Antwerp, &c. We believe, too, that a small quantity has been produced in the Isle of Thanet.—(*Loudon's Encye. of Agriculture; Rees's Cyclopædia;* and *private information.*)

Succory, when first imported, being an unenumerated article, was charged with a duty of 20 per cent. *ad valorem*. But the average price of British plantation coffee may be taken at 80*s.* per cwt. in bond; and the duty, being 56*s.* per cwt., is equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of about 70 per cent.; so that *coffee was taxed more than three times as much as succory*. Had coffee been always sold unground, the distinction in the duties would have been less objectionable; but as the lower classes who are now the great consumers of coffee, have no facilities for roasting and grinding it at home, they, uniformly buy it in the shape of powder; hence it is plain that the discriminating duty in favour of succory must have acted as a premium upon, and an incentive to the adulteration of coffee by its intermixture. We are, therefore, glad to have to state that it has been abolished, and that succory is now subjected to a duty of 6*d.* per lb. The imposition of different duties upon *convertible articles* is quite subversive of every sound principle; and, whether it be so intended or not, is calculated only to promote adulteration and fraud.

SUGAR (Fr. *Sucre;* Ger. *Zucker;* It. *Zucchero;* Russ. *Sachar;* Sp. *Azucar;* Arab. *Sukhir;* Malay, *Soola;* Sans. *Sarkarā*), a sweet granulated substance, too well known to require any particular description. It is every where in extensive use; and in this country ranks rather among the indispensable necessaries of life, than among luxuries. In point of commercial importance, it is second to very few articles. It is chiefly prepared from the expressed juice of the *arundo saccharifera*, or sugar cane; but it is also prepared from an immense variety of other plants, as maple, beet root, birch, parsnep, &c.

I. *Species of Sugar.*—The sugar met with in commerce is usually of 4 sorts;—brown, or muscovado sugar; clayed sugar; refined, or loaf sugar; and sugar candy. The difference between one sort of sugar and another depends altogether on the different modes in which they are prepared.

1. *Brown, or Muscovado Sugar.*—The plants or canes being crushed in a mill, the juice, having passed through a strainer, is collected in the clarifier, where it is first exposed to the action of a gentle fire, after being "tempered" (mixed with alkali), for the purpose of facilitating the separation of the liquor from its impurities. It is then conveyed into the large evaporating copper, and successively into two others, each of smaller size; the superintending boiler freeing it, during the process, from the scum and feculent matters which rise to the surface. The syrup then reaches the last copper vessel, called the "striking tache," where it is boiled till sufficiently concentrated to be capable of granulating in the cooler, whence it is transferred with the least possible delay, to prevent charring. Here it soon ceases to be a liquid; and when fully crystallised, is put into hogsheads (called "potting"), placed on their ends in the curing-house, with several apertures in their bottoms, through which the molasses drains into a cistern below. In this state they remain till properly cured, when the casks are filled up, and prepared for shipment.

2. *Clayed Sugar* is prepared by taking the juice, as in the case of muscovado sugar, when boiled to a proper consistency, and pouring it into conical pots with the apex downwards. These pots have a hole at the lower extremity, through which the molasses or syrup is allowed to drain. After this drain has continued for some time, a stratum of moistened clay is spread over the surface of the pots; the moisture of which percolating through the mass, is found to contribute powerfully to its purification.

3. *Refined Sugar* may be prepared from muscovado or clayed sugar, by redissolving the sugar in water, and, after boiling it with some purifying substances, pouring it, as before, into conical pots, which are again covered with moistened clay. A repetition of this process produces *double refined* sugar. But a variety of improved processes are now resorted to.

4. *Sugar Candy.*—Solutions of brown or clayed sugar, boiled till they become thick, and then removed into a hot room, form, upon sticks or strings put into the vessel for that purpose, into crystals, or candy.

II. *Historical Notice of Sugar.*—The history of sugar is involved in a good deal of obscurity. It was very imperfectly known by the Greeks and Romans. Theophrastus, who lived about 320 years before the Christian era, the first writer whose works have come down to us by whom it is mentioned, calls it a sort of "honey extracted from canes or reeds." Strabo states, on the authority of Nearchus, Alexander's admiral, that "reeds in India yield honey without bees." And Seneca, who was put to death in the 65th year of the Christian era, alludes (Epist. 84.) to the sugar cane, in a manner which shows that he knew next to

nothing of sugar, and absolutely nothing of the manner in which it is prepared and obtained from the cane.

Of the ancients, Dioscorides and Pliny have given the most precise description of sugar. The former says, it is "a sort of concreted honey, found upon canes, in India, and Arabia Felix; it is in consistence like salt, and is, like it, brittle between the teeth." And Pliny describes it as "honey collected from canes, like a gum, white and brittle between the teeth: the largest is of the size of a hazel nut: it is used in medicine only."—(*Saccharum et Arabia fert, sed laudatius India; est autem mel in arundinibus collectum, gummium modo candidum, dentibus fragile, amplissimum nucis avellanæ magnitudine, ad medicinæ tantum usum.*—Lib. xii. c. 8.)

It is evident, from these statements, that the knowledge of the Greeks and Romans with respect to the mode of obtaining sugar was singularly imperfect. They appear to have thought that it was found adhering to the cane, or that it issued from it in the state of juice, and then concreted like gum. Indeed Lucan expressly alludes to Indians near the Ganges,—

Quique bibunt tenerâ dulces ab arundine succos.—(Lib. iii. l. 237.)

But these statements are evidently without foundation. Sugar cannot be obtained from the cane without the aid of art. It is never found native. Instead of flowing from the plant, it must be forcibly expressed, and then subjected to a variety of processes.

Dr. Moseley conjectures, apparently with much probability, that the sugar described by Pliny and Dioscorides, as being made use of at Rome, was sugar candy obtained from China. This, indeed, is the only sort of sugar to which their description will at all apply. And it would seem that the mode of preparing sugar candy has been understood and practised in China from a very remote antiquity; and that large quantities of it have been in all ages exported to India, whence, it is most probable, small quantities found their way to Rome.—(*Treatise on Sugar*, 2d edit. pp. 66—71. This, as well as Dr. Moseley's *Treatise on Coffee*, is a very learned and able work.)

Europe seems to be indebted to the Saracens not only for the first considerable supplies of sugar, but for the earliest example of its manufacture. Having, in the course of the 9th century, conquered Rhodes, Cyprus, Sicily, and Crete, the Saracens introduced into them the sugar cane, with the cultivation and preparation of which they were familiar. It is mentioned by the Venetian historians, that their countrymen imported, in the 12th century, sugar from Sicily at a cheaper rate than they could import it from Egypt.—(*Essai de l'Histoire du Commerce de Venise*, p. 100.) The crusades tended to spread a taste for sugar throughout the Western world; but there can be no doubt that it was cultivated, as now stated, in modern Europe, antecedently to the era of the crusades; and that it was also previously imported by the Venetians, Amalphitans, and others, who carried on a commercial intercourse, from a very remote epoch, with Alexandria and other cities in the Levant. It was certainly imported into Venice in 996.—(See the *Essai*, &c. p. 70.)

The art of refining sugar, and making what is called loaf-sugar, is a modern European invention, the discovery of a Venetian about the end of the 15th or the beginning of the 16th century.—(*Moseley*, p. 66.)

The Saracens introduced the cultivation of the sugar cane into Spain soon after they obtained a footing in that country. The first plantations were at Valencia; but they were afterwards extended to Granada and Murcia. Mr. Thomas Willoughby, who travelled over great part of Spain in 1664, has given an interesting account of the state of the Spanish sugar plantations, and of the mode of manufacturing the sugar.

Plants of the sugar cane were carried by the Spaniards and Portuguese to the Canary Islands and Madeira in the early part of the 15th century; and it has been asserted by many, that these islands furnished the first plants of the sugar cane that ever grew in America.

But though it is sufficiently established, that the Spaniards early conveyed plants of the sugar cane to the New World, there can be no doubt, notwithstanding Humboldt seems to incline to the opposite opinion (*Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, liv. iv. c. 10.), that this was a work of supererogation, and that the cane was indigenous both to the American continent and islands. It was not for the plant itself, which flourished spontaneously in many parts when it was discovered by Columbus, but for the secret of making sugar from it, that the New World is indebted to the Spaniards and Portuguese; and these to the nations of the East.—(See *Lafitau, Mœurs des Sauvages*, tome ii. p. 100.; *Edwards's West Indies*, vol. ii. p. 238.)

Barbadoes is the oldest settlement of the English in the West Indies. They took possession of it in 1627; and so early as 1646 began to export sugar. In 1676, the trade of Barbadoes is said to have attained its maximum, being then capable of employing 400 sail of vessels, averaging 150 tons burden.

Jamaica was discovered by Columbus, in his second voyage, and was first occupied by the Spaniards. It was wrested from them by an expedition sent against it by Cromwell in 1656; and has since continued in our possession, forming by far the most valuable of our West Indian colonies. At the time when it was conquered, there were only 3 small sugar

plantations upon it. But, in consequence of the influx of English settlers from Barbadoes and the mother country, fresh plantations were speedily formed, and continued rapidly to increase.

The sugar cane is said to have been first cultivated in St. Domingo, or Hayti, in 1506. It succeeded better there than in any other of the West Indian Islands. Peter Martyr, in a work published in 1530, states that, in 1518, there were 28 sugar-works in St. Domingo established by the Spaniards. "It is marvellous," says he, "to consider how all things increase and prosper in the island. There are now 28 sugar presses, wherewith great plenty of sugar is made. The canes or reeds wherein the sugar groweth are bigger and higher than in any other place; and are as big as a man's wrist, and higher than the stature of a man by the half. This is more wonderful, that whereas in Valencia, in Spain, where a great quantity of sugar is made yearly, whensoever they apply themselves to the great increase thereof, yet doth every root bring forth not past 5 or 6, or at most 7 of these reeds; whereas in St. Domingo 1 root beareth 20, and oftentimes 30."—(Eng. trans. p. 172.)

Sugar from St. Domingo formed, for a very long period, the principal part of the European supplies. Previously to its devastation, in 1790, no fewer than 65,000 tons of sugar were exported from the French portion of the island.

III. *Sources whence the Supply of Sugar is derived.*—The West Indies, Brazil, Surinam, Java, Mauritius, Bengal, Siam, the Isle de Bourbon, and the Philippines, are the principal sources whence the supplies required for the European and American markets are derived. The average quantities exported from these countries during each of the 3 years ending with 1833 were nearly as follows:—

	Tons.
British West Indies, including Demerara and Berbice	190,000
Mauritius	30,000
Bengal, Isle de Bourbon, Java, Siam, Philippines, &c.	60,000
Cuba and Porto Rico	110,000
French, Dutch, and Danish West Indies	95,000
Brazil	75,000
	560,000 tons.

Loaf or lump sugar is unknown in the East, sugar candy being the only species of refined sugar that is made use of in India, China, &c. The manufacture of sugar candy is carried on in Hindostan, but the process is extremely rude and imperfect. In China, however, it is manufactured in a very superior manner and large quantities are exported. When of the best description, it is in large white crystals, and is a very beautiful article. Two sorts of sugar candy are met with at Canton, viz. Chinchew and Canton; the former being the produce of the province of Fokien, and the latter, as its name implies, of that of Canton. The Chinchew is by far the best, and is about 50 per cent. dearer than the other. Chinese sugar candy is consumed, to the almost total exclusion of any other species of sugar, by the Europeans at the different settlements throughout the East. There were exported from Canton, in 1831-32, by British ships, 32,279 piculs (38,427 cwt.) of sugar candy, valued at 242,000 dollars; and 60,627 piculs (72,175 cwt.) of clayed sugar, valued at 318,250 dollars; and during the previous year the exports were about 50 per cent. greater.—(See vol. i., pp. 302, 303.) The exports by the Americans are also considerable. At an average, the exports of sugar from Canton may be taken at from 6,000 to 10,000 tons; but of this only a small quantity finds its way to Europe. The exports from Siam and Cochin-China are estimated at about 12,500 tons.

Consumption of Sugar in Europe, &c.—Mr. Cook gives the following Table of the imports of sugar into France and the principal Continental ports in 1831, 1832, and 1833, and of the stocks on hand on the 31st of December of each of these years:—

	Imports.			Stocks, 31st of December.		
	1831.	1832.	1833.	1831.	1832.	1833.
	Tons.	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
France	97,450	82,600	79,500	25,870	9,350	10,450
Trieste	17,950	22,400	13,800	6,900	11,900	6,840
Genoa	9,500	10,500	6,800	1,500	2,200	2,180
Antwerp	5,240	8,780	12,800	2,000	2,000	5,100
Rotterdam	10,700	11,600	8,650	1,800	3,900	3,350
Amsterdam	18,370	22,380	20,100	2,200	3,400	5,300
Hamburgh	38,800	37,930	30,000	9,000	13,400	9,820
Bremen	12,380	12,500	7,350	3,280	5,800	3,550
Copenhagen	5,350	5,850	5,560	800	2,370	1,850
Petersburgh	11,170	23,100	18,500	8,840	11,060	15,600
	226,910	237,040	203,060	61,740	65,980	64,020

This Table does not, however, give the imports into any of the ports of the Peninsula, But the consumption of Spain, only, has been estimated, apparently on good grounds, by Montveran (*Essai de Statistique sur les Colonies*, p. 92.), at 45,000,000 kilog. (41,050 tons.) This may appear large for a country in the situation of Spain; but the quantity is deduced from comparing the imports with the exports; and it is explained partly by the moderation of the duties, and partly by the large consumption of cocoa, and other articles that require a corresponding consumption of sugar. Mr. Cook's Table also omits the imports into Leghorn, Naples, Palermo, and other Italian ports. Neither does it give those into Stettin, Königsberg, Riga, Stockholm, Gottenburg, &c. It is, besides, very difficult, owing to transhipments from one place to another, accurately to estimate the real amount of the imports. On the whole, however, we believe that we shall be within the mark, if we estimate those for the whole Continent at from 285,000 to 310,000 tons, including what is sent from England.

The following Table, compiled from the best authorities, exhibits the total consumption of colonial and foreign sugars in France at different periods since 1788, with the population, and the average consumption of each individual.—(See *Montveran, Essai de Statistique*, p. 96., and the authorities there referred to.)

Years.	Consumption.	Population.	Individual Consumption.
	Kilog.		*Kilog.*
1788 - - - - -	21,300,000	23,600.000	·906
1801 - - - - -	25,200,000	31,000,000	·813
1812 - - - - -	16,000,000	43,000,000	·372*
1816 to 1819 average - -	36,000,000	30,000,000	1·200
1819 — 1822 — - -	47,000,000	30,833,000	1·566
1822 — 1824 — - -	47,250,000	31,103,000	1·512
1824 — 1825 — - -	55,750,000	31,280,000	1·782
1826 — 1827 — - -	62,500,000	31,625,000	1·976
1830 - - - - -	67,250,000	31,845,000	2·126

This, however, is independent of the consumption of indigenous sugar—(see *post*), and of the sugar introduced by the contraband trade,—both of which are very considerable. The entire consumption of all sorts of sugar in France in 1832, including from 8,000,000 to 9,000,000 kilog. of beet-root sugar, and allowing for the quantity fraudulently introduced, may be estimated at about 88,000,000 kilog., or 193,000,000 lbs.; which, taking the population at 32,000,000, gives an average consumption of 6 lbs. to each individual, being about ¼th part of the consumption of each individual in Great Britain! This extraordinary discrepancy is no doubt ascribable to various causes;—partly to the greater poverty of the mass of the French people; partly to their smaller consumption of tea, coffee, punch, and other articles that occasion a large consumption of sugar; and partly and principally, perhaps, to the oppressive duties with which foreign sugars are loaded on their being taken into France for home consumption.

The United States consume from 70,000 to 80,000 tons; but of these, from 30,000 to 40,000 tons are produced in Louisiana.

About 170,000 tons of sugar are retained for home consumption in Great Britain, and 17,000 tons in Ireland; exclusive of about 12,000 tons of bastard, or inferior sugar obtained by the boiling of molasses, and exclusive also of the refuse sugar and treacle remaining after the process of refining.

On the whole, therefore, we believe we may estimate the aggregate consumption of the Continent and of the British islands at about 500,000 tons a year; to which if we add the consumption of the United States, Turkey, &c., the aggregate will be nearly equivalent to the supply. The demand is rapidly increasing in most countries; but as the power to produce sugar is almost illimitable, no permanent rise of prices need be looked for.

Taking the price of sugar at the low rate of 1*l.* 4*s.* a cwt., or 24*l.* a ton, the prime cost of the article to the people of Europe will be 12,000,000*l.* sterling; to which adding 75 per cent. for duty, its total cost will be 21,000,000*l.*! This is sufficient to prove the paramount importance of the trade in this article. Exclusive, however, of sugar, the other products of the cane, as rum, molasses, treacle, &c., are of very great value. The revenue derived by the British treasury from rum, only, amounts to nearly 1,600,000*l.* a year.

Progressive Consumption of Sugar in Great Britain.—We are not aware that there are any authentic accounts with respect to the precise period when sugar first began to be used in England. It was, however, imported in small quantities by the Venetians and Genoese in the 14th and 15th centuries†, but honey was then, and long after, the principal ingredient employed in sweetening liquors and dishes. Even in the early part of the 17th century, the quantity of sugar imported was very inconsiderable; and it was made use of only in the houses of the rich and great. It was not till the latter part of the century, when coffee and tea began to be introduced, that sugar came into general demand. In 1700, the quantity consumed was about 10,000 tons, or 22,000,000 lbs.; at this moment the consumption has increased (bastards included) to above 180,000 tons, or more than 400,000,000 lbs.; so that sugar forms not only one of the principal articles of importation and sources of revenue, but an important necessary of life.

Great, however, as the increase in the use of sugar has certainly been, it may, we think, be easily shown, that the demand for it is still very far below its natural limit; and that, were the existing duties on this article reduced, and the trade placed on a proper footing, its consumption, and the revenue derived from it, would be greatly increased.

During the first half of last century, the consumption of sugar increased five-fold. It amounted, as already stated—

In 1700, to	10,000 tons -	or 22,000,000 lbs.	In 1754, to 53,270 tons or 119,390,000 lbs.
1710, -	14,000 — -	- 31,360,000 —	1770—1775, 72,500 (average) - 162,500,000 —
1734, -	42,000 — -	- 94,080,000 —	1786—1790, 81,000 — - 181,500,000 —

* Continental system and empire.

† In Marin's *Storia del Commercio de' Veneziani* (vol. v. p. 306.), there is an account of a shipment made at Venice for England in 1319, of 100,000 lbs. of sugar, and 10,000 lbs. of sugar candy. The sugar is said to have been brought from the Levant.

In the reign of Queen Anne, the duty on sugar amounted to 3*s.* 5*d.* per cwt. Small additions were made to it in the reign of George II.; but in 1780 it was only 6*s.* 8*d.* In 1781, a considerable addition was made to the previous duty; and in 1787 it was as high as 15*s.* 4*d.* In 1791 it was raised to 15*s.*; and while its extensive and increasing consumption pointed it out as an article well fitted to augment the public revenue, the pressure on the public finances, caused by the French war, occasioned its being loaded with duties, which, though they yielded a large return, would, there is good reason to think, have been more productive had they been lower. In 1797, the duty was raised to 17*s.* 6*d.*; 2 years after, it was raised to 20*s.*; and, by successive augmentations in 1803, 1804, and 1806, it was raised to 30*s.*; but in the last-mentioned year it was enacted, that, in the event of the market price of sugar in bond, or exclusive of the duty, being, for the 4 months previous to the 5th of January, the 5th of May, or the 5th of September, below 49*s.* a cwt., the Lords of the Treasury might remit 1*s.* a cwt. of the duty; that if the prices were below 48*s.*, they might remit 2*s.*; and if below 47*s.*, they might remit 3*s.*, which was the greatest reduction that could be made. In 1826, the duty was declared to be constant at 27*s.*, without regard to price; but it was reduced, in 1830, to 24*s.* on West India sugar, and to 32*s.* on East India sugar.

1. Account of the Quantity of Sugar retained for Home Consumption in GREAT BRITAIN, the Nett Revenue derived from it, and the Rates of Duty with which it was charged; and the Price, exclusive of the Duty, in each Year from 1789 to 1832, both inclusive.

Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Nett Revenue.	Rates of Duty. British Plantation Sugar.	Rates of Duty. East India Sugar, including Mauritius.	Price of Jamaica Brown or Muscovado Sugar in Bond, per Gazette Average.
	Cwt.	£ *s.* *d.*	*Per Cwt.* £ *s.* *d.*	*Per Cwt.* £ *s.* *d.*	*Per Cwt.* £ *s.* *d.*
1789	1,547,109	862,632 11 11	0 12 4	- -	
1790	1,536,232	908,954 17 4			
1791	1,403,311	1,074,903 16 5			
1792	1,361,592	1,012,538 12 1	0 15 0	0 2 8	
1793	1,677,097	1,316,502 14 3			
1794	1,489,392	1,031,492 4 2			
1795	1,336,230	949,961 16 1			
1796	1,554,062	1,225,213 7 5			
1797	1,273,722	1,299,744 0 7	0 17 6	0 5 2	
1798	1,476,552	1,794,990 15 9	0 19 0	0 5 2	
1799	2,772,438	2,321,935 16 5	1 0 0	0 2 6	
1800	1,506,921	1,835,112 11 1			
1801	2,773,795	2,782,232 18 1	- -	0 3 2	
1802	2,250,311	2,210,801 6 11			
1803	1,492,565	1,551,457 17 11	1 4 0	1 6 4½	
1804	2,144,369	2,458,124 18 3	1 6 6	1 9 1½	
1805	2,076,103	2,439,795 1 10	1 7 0	1 9 8½	
1806	2,801,747	3,097,590 3 6			
1807	2,277,665	3,150,753 6 3			
1808	2,842,813	4,177,916 3 4	- -	1 10 0	
1809	2,504,507	3,273,993 2 3			
1810	3,489,312	3,117,330 19 9	1 9 0 1 8 0	1 19 0 1 11 0	
1811	3,226,757	3,339,218 4 3	1 7 0	1 10 0	
1812*	2,604,019	3,939,939 17 2			
1813	2,209,063	3,447,560 4 5	1 10 0	1 13 0	
1814	1,997,999	3,276,513 6 5	- -	*Per Cwt.* £1 10 0 1 11 0 1 19 0 1 10 0 1 17 0 1 19 0 2 0 0 1 17 0	
1815	1,898,965	2,957,403 2 4	- -	1 17 0 2 0 0 1 18 0 1 17 0	
1816	2,228,156	3,166,851 18 0	1 7 0	1 17 0	
1817	2,960,794	3,967,154 5 0	- -	1 17 0	
1818	1,457,707	2,331,472 3 5	1 10 0	2 0 0	
1819	2,474,738	3,507,844 11 0	1 8 0 1 7 0	1 18 0 1 17 0	
1820†	2,681,258	3,477,770 11 4	1 7 0	1 17 0	
1821	3,676,274	3,660,567 6 7	- -	- -	
1822	3,618,490	3,579,412 12 1	- -	- -	
1823	3,842,676	4,022,782 4 1	- -	- -	
1824	2,957,261	4,223,340 18 5	- -	- -	
1825	3,655,959	3,756,654 0 1	- -	- -	
1826	3,355,075	4,518,690 15 9	- -	Duty on Mauritius sugar reduced to 27*s.*	
1827	3,021,191	4,218,623 6 7	- -		
1828	3,285,843	4,576,287 13 4	- -	- -	
1829	3,211,535	4,452,793 18 11	- -	- -	
1830	3,396,056	4,354,103 0 0	1 4 0	1 12 0	
1831	3,421,507	4,219,049 0 0	- -	- -	
1832	3,315,836‡	3,986,519 0 0	- -	- -	

* Sugar used in the distilleries included in these years.

† Previously to 1820, the importation of East India sugar was comparatively trifling, and does not at this moment amount to above 190,000 cwt. The imports from the Mauritius have increased rapidly during the last 5 years, more especially since 1826, when the duty on sugar from that island was reduced to the same level as that on sugar from the West Indies.—(See *ante*, p. 397.)

‡ *N. B.*—These quantities include the sugar refined in Britain for exportation to Ireland.

II Account of the Imports, Exports, and Home Consumption of Sugar in the United Kingdom, and the Revenue derived therefrom, in each year from 1814 to 1835 inclusive, specifying the different Species of Sugar, and the Quantities of each consumed and exported, with the Gross and Net Amount of the Duty.—(*Report of the West India Committee of* 1832, p. 288.; and *Parl. Papers.*)

Years.	Imports.				
	British Plantation.	Mauritius.	East India.	Foreign Plantation.	Total of Imports.
	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.
1814	3,581,516		49,849	681,421	4,312,786
1815	5,042,227		125,632	366,869	4,134,535
1816	5 560,317		127,969	192,720	5,880,949
1817	5,679,352		125,896	105,916	5,911,161
1818	3,775,379	Considered as East India sugar in these years.	102,295	186,693	4,078,436
1819	5,907,151		205,527	85,837	4,198,516
1820	3,769,458		277,233	162,190	4,208,876
1821	3,906,967		268,162	127,037	4,302,166
1822	3,435,081		258,371	115,674	3,774,366
1823	3,773,128		219,580	208,598	4,201,706
1824	3,933,059		271,248	205,740	4,413,047
1825	3,501,261	93,723	155,347	162,784	3,908,133
1826	4,002,426	186,782	164,852	65,065	4,419,086
1827	3,850,918	204,344	175,846	178,910	4,410,018
1828	4,313,430	361,745	146,266	136,999	4,958,439
1829	4,152,815	297,958	206,052	199,568	4,856,393
1830	3,913,256	485,710	293,769	823,257	4,916,004
1831	4,103,746	517,553	237,416	507,547	5,366,262
1832	3,784,243	541,771	175,352	366,482	4,867,748
1833	3,615,612	529,361	20 ,301	346,027	4,730,301
1834	3,844,234	556,161	141,250	202,030	4,743,414
1835	3,543,943	538,237	213,646	152,456	4,449,287

Years.	Exports.							Consumption.
	Raw Sugar.					British Refined Sugar, reduced to its equivalent Quantity of Raw Sugar.	Total Export of Sugar, Raw, and Refined.	Quantity retained for actual Consumption in the United Kingdom.
	British Plantation.	Mauritius.	East India.	Foreign Plantation.	Total of Raw Sugar.			
	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.
1814	430,917		41,063	459,990	931,960	207,347	1,589,257	2,754,061 (including sugar used in distilleries.)
1815	385,761	Considered as East India sugar in these years.	67,665	311,378	764,804	994,025	1,758,829	2,211,259
1816	234,936		101,581	190,190	526,767	953,314	1,480,081	2,126,581
1817	142,671		95,218	132,937	370,726	1,141,724	1,512,450	3,220,341
1818	98,512		109,952	108,687	317,151	1,157,082	1,474,233	1,726,896
1819	58,913		87,587	102,710	249,210	847,798	1,097,008	2,920,910
1820	71,057		186,068	138,398	400,423	1,098,616	1,499,039	2,901,864
1821	9,951		144,332	186,314	340,497	1,022,731	1,363,228	3,036,988
1822	10,657		98,277	137,707	246,641	861,206	807,847	2,996,057
1823	11,231		104,798	176,717	294,744	677,593	970,337	3,326,191
1824	8,836		146,358	213,980	369,174	640,054	1,008,228	3,407,424
1825	11,529	21,593	36,686	173,076	242,883	549,783	792,666	3,073,848
1826	102,297	45,554	46,939	105,891	300,681	586,172	886,473	3,533,960
1827	40,931	46,480	64,079	103,965	255,456	696,4 2	950,827	3,310,927
1828	50,988	1 7,985	42,546	160,329	371,446	776,624	1,148,070	3,801,419
1829	16,467	52,331	56,174	172,960	297,912	808,435	1,106,347	3,750,047
1830	13,355	48,383	83,413	166,310	311,461	1,034,886	1,346,347	3,722,044
1831	10,560	11,174	111,102	257,644	420,7 0	980,1 0	1,405,540	3,757,201
1832	5,398	12,146	92,049	260,501	368,095	774,939	1,143,034	3,675,334
1833	7,850	3,327	111,650	243,823	366,650	417,687	784,237	3,951,304
1834	12,313	4,860	80,887	500,714	598,744	681,775	1,280,519	3,741,579
1835	11,455	1,750	157,042	200,983	371,230	593,930	966,160	3,556,562

Years.	Revenue derived from Sugar.						
	Gross Receipt of Duties.					Payments out of Gross Receipt.	Nett Produce of Duties.
	British Plantation.	Mauritius.	East India.	Foreign Plantations (including Sugar of Martinique and Guadaloupe admitted for Home Consumption under Act 53 Geo. 3. c. 62.)	Total of Gross Receipt.	Drawback and Bounty allowed on exportation to Foreign Parts, and Repayments on Over-Entries, &c.	
	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.	L.
18.	4,577,916	Considered as East India sugar in these years.	24,299	283,229	4,885,484	1,147,960	3,737,524
1815	4,740,771		35,999	65,579	4,840,350	1,426,026	3,414,323
1816	4,92 ,914		64,913	79,349	5,065,296	1,453,193	3,612,103
1817	5,966,745		50,612	8,034	6,025,191	1,591,265	4,433,925
1818	4,313,581		50,114	2,118	4,365,813	1,614,706	2,751,107
1819	4,984,978		192,014	524	5,177,516	1,181,273	3,996,243
1820	5,226,926		156,965	1,011	5,446,905	1,521,518	3,925,387
1821	5,352,150		222,438	1,075	5,575,643	1,356,695	4,188,958
1822	4,611,720		254,335	1,117	4,867,182	806,738	4,060,444
1823	5,135,419		190,783	750	5,326,942	919,532	4,407,410
1824	5,207,132		282,537	210	5,489,879	917,975	4,571,904
1825	4,611,245	106,205	198,322	99	4,956,151	779,492	4,176,659
1826	5,273,648	150,336	265,037	85	5,689,126	738,128	4,950,998
1827	5, 59,208	230,006	172,406	80,251	5,491,870	841,678	4,650,192
1828	5,415,715	326,448	180,065	2,658	5,924,876	922,579	5,002,297
1829	5,340,258	324,758	223,002	8,745	5,896,757	1,000,516	4,896,241
1830	5,226,966	538,207	230,185	47,964	6,063,323	1,285,980	4,777,342
1831	4,936,592	547,855	189,609	104,358	5,778,414	1,127,924	4,650,489
1832	4,595,377	631,600	127,374	90	5,354,441	960,103	4,394,338
1833	4,167,282	609,353	157,285	194	4,934,094	819,794	4,114,300
1834	4,496 845	653,335	124,387	124	5,344,691	786,314	4,558,377
1835	4,220,752	709,788	157,964	88	5,297,592	729,758	4,567,834

N. B.—The rates of duty in this Table are the same as those in Table No. 1.

* These quantities are exclusive of the coarse sugar and bastards remaining from the process of refining; and they are also exclusive of the coarse sugar obtained by boiling molasses. The quantities of the latter taken for home consumption, in 1831, were 8,020 tons; in 1832, 11,450 do.; and in 1833, 13,970 do.—(*Cook's Commerce of* 1833, p. 6.)

The following Tables exhibit the sugar trade of 1835 more in detail:—

II. Account of the Quantity of Unrefined Sugar imported into the United Kingdom, from the several British Colonies and Plantations, from the British Possessions in the East Indies, and from Foreign Countries, in the Year ended 5th of January, 1836; distinguishing the several Sorts of Sugar, and the Colonies and Countries from which the same was imported.

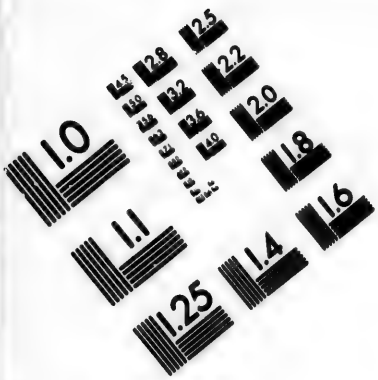
Whence imported.	Of the British Plantations.	Of Mauritius.	Of the East Indies.	Of the Foreign Plantations.	Total Quantity imported.
	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cwt. qrs. lbs.
British colonies and plantations in America, viz.—					
Antigua	174,018 0 2	- -	- -	- -	174,818 0 2
Barbadoes	344,689 1 0	- -	- -	- -	344,689 1 0
Dominica	25,013 2 5	- -	- -	- -	25,013 2 5
Granada	170,280 0 14	- -	- -	- -	170,280 0 14
Jamaica	1,148,760 1 8	- -	- -	- -	1,148,760 1 8
Montserrat	16,261 2 2	- -	- -	- -	16,261 2 2
Nevis	39,637 0 22	- -	- -	- -	39,637 0 22
St. Christopher	86,754 0 8	- -	- -	859 3 1	87,613 3 9
St. Lucia	54,731 3 22	- -	- -	11 3 4	54,743 2 26
St. Vincent	195,056 2 24	- -	- -	-	195,056 2 24
Tobago	77,259 3 22	- -	- -	-	77,259 3 22
Tortola	13,821 1 21	- -	- -	-	13,821 1 21
Trinidad	289,392 3 18	- -	- -	-	289,392 3 18
Demerara	760,375 2 24	- -	- -	-	760,375 2 24
Berbice	126,484 3 9	- -	- -	-	126,484 3 9
British North American colonies	610 0 22	- -	- -	0 0 8	610 1 2
Sierra Leone	- -	- -	- -	4 0 7	4 0 7
Cape of Good Hope	- -	- -	0 1 18	- -	0 1 18
Mauritius	- -	558,237 1 22	475 0 3	- -	558,712 1 25
British possessions in the East Indies, viz.—					
East India Company's territories, exclusive of Singapore	- -	- -	107,100 3 20	- -	107,100 3 20
Singapore	- -	- -	30,874 3 10	- -	30,874 3 10
Java	- -	- -	28,135 0 18	- -	28,135 0 18
Philippine Islands	- -	- -	47,059 2 4	- -	47,059 2 4
Foreign colonies in the West Indies, viz.—					
Cuba	- -	- -	- -	58,692 2 26	58,692 2 26
Colombia	- -	- -	- -	914 3 25	914 3 25
Peru	- -	- -	- -	5,782 1 14	5,782 1 14
United States of America	- -	- -	- -	3,717 3 22	3,717 3 22
Brazil	- -	- -	- -	81,347 2 4	81,347 2 4
Europe	- -	- -	- -	1,104 3 15	1,104 3 15
Totals	3,523,947 2 27	558,237 1 22	213,645 3 17	152,436 0 14	4,448,267 0 24

IV. Account of the Amount of Duties received on Sugar in the United Kingdom, in the Year ended 5th of January, 1836, distinguishing each Sort of Sugar; also, of the Amount of Drawbacks and Bounties allowed upon the Exportation thereof, and of the Nett Produce of the Duties, in such Year.

Year ending 5th Jan. 1836.	Gross Receipt of Duties on Sugar.				
	Of the British Plantations.	Of Mauritius.	Of the East Indies.	Of the Foreign Plantations, and Foreign Refined Sugar.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£
Great Britain	4,128,676	704,410	157,897	48	4,991,031
Ireland	401,116	5,378	67	40	406,601
United Kingdom	4,529,792	709,788	157,964	88	5,397,632

Year ending 5th Jan. 1836.	Payments out of the Gross Receipt of Duties on Sugar.			Nett Produce of the Duties on Sugar.
	Bounties paid on British Refined Sugar exported.	Repayments on Over-Entries, Damages, &c.	Total.	
	£	£	£	£
Great Britain	709,015	19,322	728,337	4,262,694
Ireland	396	1,023	1,419	405,182
United Kingdom	709,411	20,345	729,756	4,667,876





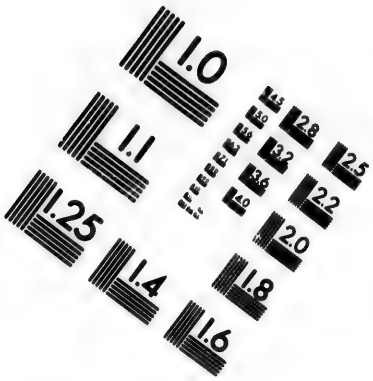
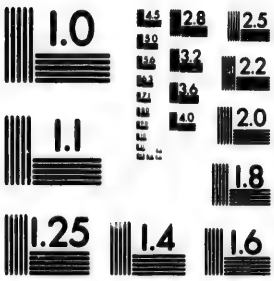
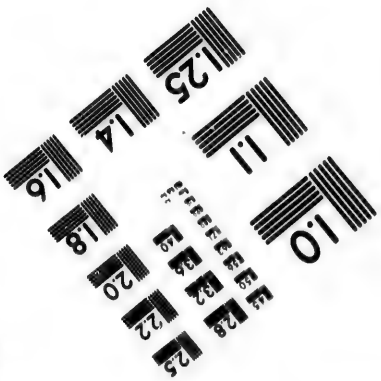


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V. Account of the Quantity of Raw and Refined Sugar exported from the United Kingdom, in the Year ended 5th of January, 1836; reducing the Quantity of Refined into its Proportion of Raw; distinguishing the several Sorts of Sugar, and the Countries to which the same was exported.—*N. B.*—Lbs. are omitted in the Columns, but allowed for in the Totals.)

Countries to which exported.	Raw Sugar.					Refined Sugar.		
	Of the British Planta-tions.	Of Mauri-tius.	Of the East Indies.	Of the Foreign Planta-tions.	Total of Raw Sugar.	Actual Weight exported.	The same stated as Raw Sugar in the Pro-portion of 56 Cwt. of Raw to 90 Cwt. of Refined.	Total (stated in Cwts.) of Raw Sugar.
From Great Britain.	Cwt. qrs.	Cwt. qrs.	Cwt. qrs.	Cwt. qrs.	Cwt. qrs.	Cwt. qrs.	Cwt. qrs.	Cwt. qrs.
Russia	- -	- -	5,945 1	82,918 3	88,863 0	4,650 2	7,272 0	96,135
Sweden	- -	- -	1,916 2	1,770 2	3,686 0	87 1	136 1	3,822
Norway	- -	1 3	102 2	1,196 2	1,299 0	571 0	971 0	2,270
Denmark	- -	- -	978 1	10,397 1	11,375 3	180 2	307 0	11,682
Prussia	- -	- -	23,079 1	21,033 1	44,112 2	39,651 2	69,464 1	113,576
Germany	607 0	400 0	13,524 0	11,998 0	26,529 1	65,019 0	110,282 2	136,812
The Netherlands	274 0	44 2	84,985 3	92,160 0	177,744 2	349 3	609 1	178,354
France	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	272 1	1,468 0	1,468
Portugal, the Azores, and Madeira	26 0	- -	161 3	245 2	433 2	2,943 3	5,104 1	5,537
Spain and the Canaries	- -	- -	825 3	1,514 3	2,061 1	3,501 1	5,954 1	8,016
Gibraltar	- -	1 2	19 0	- -	20 2	4,606 2	7,986 3	7,956
Italy	1 2	72 1	15,366 0	91,877 3	97,330 0	137,163 0	238,172 1	335,497
Malta	- -	561 0	2,256 3	3,218 3	6,032 2	10,232 2	17,376 3	24,011
The Ionian Islands	- -	- -	1,042 3	378 2	1,421 2	15,480 2	22,217 0	24,238
Turkey and Continental Greece	- -	- -	3,055 2	858 2	3,913 0	30,367 0	51,272 3	55,375
Morea and Greek Islands	- -	- -	1,672 1	2,546 3	4,218 1	2,473 1	4,284 3	6,135
Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	5,136 0	269 1	538 3	161 2	6,105 0	3,507 1	4,478 1	10,577
Cape of Good Hope	9,045 3	1,353 0	155,090 0	200,299 3	365,188 0	319,696 2	541,784 0	907,972
Other parts of Africa	- -	- -	1 1	- -	1 1	104 2	161 0	162
East Indies and China	43 3	148 2	476 3	136 1	802 2	1,324 3	2,284 1	3,086
New South Wales, Swan River, and Van Diemen's Land	2 1	160 1	- -	69 0	172 3	4,571 1	7,771 1	7,944
British North American Colonies	2,863 1	141 2	1,491 1	51 0	3,946 0	15,817 2	24,490 0	28,436
British West Indies	- -	- -	- -	4 0	4 0	4,372 3	7,553 3	7,557
Foreign West Indies	- -	- -	- -	1 2	1 2	347 0	546 0	547
United States of America	- -	- -	0 3	2 1	3 1	313 3	488 1	491
Mexico	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	17 2	28 1	28
Colombia	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	7 0	11 3	11
Brazil	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	53 2	84 0	84
States of the Rio de la Plata	- -	- -	16 2	16 0	34 2	31 3	54 0	88
Chili	- -	- -	3 3	- -	3 3	170 0	299 0	302
Peru	- -	- -	4 0	- -	4 0	11 0	19 0	23
Total from Great Britain	11,458 0	1,750 0	157,041 2	210,989 0	371,237 3	345,187 1	593,618 1	964,344
From Ireland.								
British North American Colonies	1 3	- -	- -	- -	1 3	- -	- -	1 3
British West Indies	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	183 2	311 3	311 3
Total from Ireland	1 3	- -	- -	- -	1 3	183 2	311 3	313 3
Total Quantity exported from the United Kingdom	11,458 0	1,750 0	157,041 2	210,989 0	371,239 3	345,370 3	593,930 1	964,658

The duty on foreign sugars is a prohibitory one of 63*s.* a cwt. Sugar from the Mauritius is, however, by a special provision, allowed to be imported at the same duty as West India sugar.

Influence of the Duties.—The price of sugar, exclusive of the duty, may be taken, at an average of the last few years, at from 24*s.* to 25*s.* a cwt. But to lay a tax of 24*s.* on a necessary of life costing from 24*s.* to 25*s.*, including 8*s.* per cwt. freight and charges, is obviously a most oppressive proceeding. Indeed, there does not seem to be much room for doubting that the consumption, and consequently also the revenue, would be very greatly increased by reducing the duty to 16*s.* or 18*s.* This may be pretty confidently inferred from the increase of consumption that has invariably followed every fall in the price of sugar. During the 3 years ending with 1808, when the price of brown or muscovado sugar, inclusive of the duty, was about 66*s.* a cwt., there were, at an average, 2,040,741 cwt. retained for home consumption. During the 3 years ending with 1816, the price was about 93*s.*, and the average quantity retained for home consumption fell off to 2,038,373 cwt. But during the 3 years ending with 1833, the price having fallen to about 57*s.*, the average quantity retained for home consumption rose to 3,307,581 cwt.; being an increase of more than *fifty* per cent. upon the quantity consumed during the previous period!

It will be observed that the duty was either the same, or very nearly the same, in those 3 periods; but had it been imposed on an *ad valorem* principle, or made to vary directly as the price, the reduction in the last-mentioned period would have been proportionately greater, and there would, consequently, have been a still greater increase of consumption.

The reduction of 3*s.* a cwt. from the duty, in 1830, was too trifling to have much effect; and it is difficult to say what portion of the increased consumption that has since taken place is to be ascribed to it, and what to other things. But if, instead of reducing the duty from 27*s.* to 24*s.*, it had been reduced from 27*s.* to 16*s.* or 18*s.*, the reduction would have had a powerful influence; and would certainly have occasioned a great increase in the consumption of the lower priced sugars, particularly in Ireland.

The quantity of sugar consumed in Great Britain is, at present, allowing for the quantity sent to Ireland, more than double what it was in 1790. But had the duty continued at 12*s.* 4*d.*, its amount in 1790, there cannot, we think, be much doubt that the consumption would have been quadrupled. During the intervening period, the population has been little less than doubled; and the proportion which the middle classes now bear to the whole population has been decidedly augmented. The consumption of coffee—an article in the preparation of which a great deal of sugar is used in this country, by all who can afford it—is more than 32 times as great now as in 1790; that is, it has increased from under 1,000,000 lbs. to above 32,000,000 lbs.! The consumption of tea has about doubled; and there has been a vast increase in the use of home-made wines, preserved and baked fruits, &c. Instead, therefore, of having done little more than increase proportionally to the increase of the population, it may be fairly presumed that the consumption of sugar would, had there not been some powerful coun-

ing cause in operation, have increased in a far greater degree. Instead of amounting to little more than 3,000,000, it ought to have amounted to 6,000,000 cwt.

Taking the aggregate consumption of Great Britain at 400,000,000 lbs., and the population at 16,000,000, the average consumption of each individual will be about 24 lbs. This, though a far greater average than that of France, or any of the Continental states, is small compared with what it might be were sugar supplied under a more liberal system. In workhouses, the customary annual allowance for each individual is, we believe, 34 lbs.; and in private families, the smallest separate allowance for domestics is 1 lb. a week, or 52 lbs. a year. These facts strongly corroborate what we have already stated as to the extent to which the consumption of sugar may be increased; and others may be referred to, that are, if possible, still more conclusive. Mr. Huskisson stated, in his place in the House of Commons, on Mr. Grant's motion for a reduction of the sugar duties, 25th of May, 1826, that "in consequence of the present enormous duty on sugar, the poor working-man with a large family, to whom pence were a serious consideration, was denied the use of that commodity; and he believed *he did not go too far when he stated, that* TWO-THIRDS *of the poorer consumers of coffee drank that beverage without sugar.* If, then, the price of sugar were reduced, it would become an article of his consumption, like many other articles—woollens, for example, which are now used from their cheapness—which he was formerly unable to purchase."—(*Speeches*, vol. iii. p. 455.) There are no grounds for thinking that this statement is in any degree exaggerated; and it strikingly shows the very great extent to which the consumption of sugar might be increased, were it brought fully under the command of the labouring classes.

It is in Ireland, however, that we should anticipate the greatest and most salutary effects from a reduction of the duties on sugar. The direct importations into Ireland do not exceed 15,000 tons; and if we add to these 6,000 tons for the second-hand importations from Great Britain, which, we believe, is quite as much or more than they amount to, the entire consumption of that country will be 21,000 tons, or 47,040,000 lbs., which, taking the population of Ireland at 8,000,000, gives about 5·8lbs. to each individual; or about 1-4th part of the average consumption of each individual in Great Britain. So singular a result must, we believe, be ascribed, in a considerable degree, to the comparative poverty of the Irish; but there can be no doubt that it is partly, if not principally, owing to over-taxation. The direct imports of sugar into Ireland were twice as great 30 years ago as they are at this moment; and there is no reason for thinking that the increase in the second-hand imports has been equivalent to the increase in the population. Hence, in order to diffuse a taste for so necessary an article as sugar among the population of Ireland, it would be very desirable, if possible, to reduce the duties even as low as 12s. a cwt.; and we are well convinced that such reduction, though it might occasion an immediate loss, would, in the end, be productive of a great increase of revenue, besides being attended with other and still more beneficial consequences. The "one thing needful" in Ireland is to inspire the population with a taste for the conveniences and enjoyments of civilised life; but how is it possible to do this while these conveniences are burdened with oppressive duties, that form an insuperable obstacle to their being used by any but the richest classes? Hence, the first step towards supplying what is confessedly the grand desideratum in the case of Ireland, is to reduce the duties on articles of convenience and luxury, so that they may become attainable by the mass of the people. If this be done, we may rest assured that the desire inherent in all individuals of improving their condition, will impel them to exert themselves to obtain them. A taste for the articles in question will be gradually diffused amongst all ranks; and, ultimately, it will be thought discreditable to be without them.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 97. Sess. 1831.)

We have already seen that the imports of sugar from the British West Indies and the Mauritius may be estimated at 216,500 tons, and the consumption of Great Britain and Ireland at above 184,000 tons, exclusive of bastards; but of this quantity, about 6,000 tons is Bengal sugar,—making the nett consumption of West India and Mauritius sugar 178,000 tons, leaving 38,000 tons of the latter for exportation, exclusive of the surplus of Bengal sugar.

The duty on East India sugar ought to be reduced to the same level as that on West India sugar. It is difficult to imagine that there can be any good reason why all the productions of the different dependencies of the empire should not be allowed to come into the home market on paying the same duty. The admission of Mauritius sugar at a duty of 24*s.* is, indeed, a full concession of the principle; for there is not a single argument that could be alleged in favour of admitting Mauritius sugar at the same duty as West India sugar, that will not equally apply to Bengal sugar. However, we do not think that this point is of so much practical importance as is generally supposed. East India sugar has not as yet, made any way in the Continental markets, most of which are open to it on the same terms as to other sugars; and unless its quality be materially improved, or its price considerably reduced, there is but little prospect of its being able to come into competition with the sugars of Jamaica, Brazil, and Cuba.

Bounty on the Exportation of Refined Sugar.—The business of refining sugar for exportation has been carried on to a considerable extent in this country; but it may be doubted whether its prosecution has ever been productive of any material national advantage. It had long been suspected,—and the fact seems now sufficiently established,—that the drawback allowed on the exportation of refined sugar has been greater than the duty charged on the raw sugar used in its manufacture; the excess being, in fact, a bounty paid to those engaged in the trade. Previously to 1826, the drawback on double refined sugar was 63*s.* a cwt.: it was then reduced to 42*s.*; but there is reason to think that it is still considerably above the mark. The average price of sugar in bond in this country, for several years past, has been from 5*s.* to 6*s.* a cwt. above what sugar of the same quality has brought on the Continent; a difference which, as we export sugar, could not have been maintained, had it not been for the bounty. The same conclusion has been established by the trials made under the superintendence of Dr. Ure at a sugar house taken for the purpose by government. It is said to be the intention of ministers to reduce the drawback to what may be supposed to be the fair equivalent of the duties paid on the raw sugar; a measure, of the expediency of which no doubt can be entertained. It has been the practice, in making up returns to parliament, to reduce the refined sugar exported into raw sugar, by allowing 34 cwt. of the latter to 20 of the former. But the export of sugar is thus made to appear greater than it really is: for though 34 cwt. of raw may be required to produce 20 cwt. of refined sugar, the whole of the molasses and bastards that remain (about 13 cwt.) are consumed at home. We subjoin those clauses of the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 58, which refer to the allowing of a bounty on refined sugar.

Bounties upon the Exportation of Refined Sugar.—So long as the duties which are now payable upon the importation of sugar until the 5th of April, 1834, shall be continued, there shall be allowed upon the exportation of refined sugar made in the United Kingdom the several bounties set forth in the Table herein-after contained; (that is to say,)

Refined sugar, viz.—	£. s. d.
Baked sugar, or refined loaf sugar broken in pieces, or being ground or powdered sugar, or such sugar pounded, crushed, or broken,	
exported in a British ship, for every cwt.	1 4 0
exported in a ship not British, for every cwt.	1 3 0
Other refined sugar in loaf, complete and whole, or lumps only refined, having been perfectly clarified and thoroughly dried in the stove, and being of a uniform whiteness throughout, or such sugar pounded, crushed, or broken, and sugar candy,	
exported in a British ship, for every cwt.	1 16 10
exported in a ship not British, for every cwt.	1 15 8
Double refined sugar, and sugar equal in quality to double refined sugar, additional bounty for every cwt.	0 6 4

Bond to be given for due Exportation.—The exporter of goods in respect of which any bounty is claimed under this act, or the person in whose name the same are entered outwards, shall, at the time of entry and before cocket be granted, give security by bond in double the value of the goods, with sufficient surety, that the same shall be duly exported to the place for which they are entered, or be otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs, and shall not be relanded in the United Kingdom, or landed in the Isle of Man, unless expressly entered to be exported thereto. —§ 3.

Candy in Packages of ¼ Cwt.—No bounty shall be given upon the exportation of any refined sugar called candy, unless it be properly refined and manufactured, and free from dirt and scum, and packed in packages, each of which shall contain ¼ a cwt. of such candy at the least.—§ 4.

Sugar crushed for Exportation.—If any sugar in lumps or loaves is to be pounded, crushed, or broken before the same be exported, for the bounty payable thereon, such lumps or loaves shall, after due entry thereof, be lodged in some warehouse provided by the exporter, and approved by the commissioners of the customs for such purpose, to be then first examined by the officers of customs while in such lumps or loaves, as if for immediate shipment, and afterwards to be there pounded, crushed, or broken, and packed for exportation, in the presence of such officers and at the expense of the exporter; and such sugar shall be kept in such warehouse, and be removed thence for shipment, and be shipped under the care and in the charge of the searchers, that the shipment and exportation thereof may be duly certified by them, upon the debenture, according to the quality ascertained by them of the same while in such lumps or loaves.—§ 5.

Different Sorts of crushed Sugar to be kept separate.—The different sorts of such sugar shall be kept apart from each other in such manner and in such distinct rooms or divisions of such warehouse as shall be directed and appointed by the commissioners of the customs; and if any sort of such sugar shall be found in any part of such warehouse appointed for the keeping of sugar of a sort superior in quality thereto; the same shall be forfeited: and if any sort of such sugar shall be brought to such warehouse to be pounded, crushed, or broken, which shall be of a quality inferior to the sort of sugar expressed in the entry for the same, such sugar shall be forfeited.—§ 6.

Sugar Refiners to provide Sample Loaves of Double Refined Sugar.—There shall be provided by and at the expense of the committee of sugar refiners in London, and by and at the expense of the committee of merchants in Dublin, as many loaves of double refined sugar, prepared in manner hereinafter directed, as the commissioners of customs shall think necessary: which loaves, when approved of by the said commissioners, shall be deemed and taken to be standard samples; 1 of which loaves shall be lodged with the said committees respectively, and 1 other with such person or persons as the said commissioners shall direct, for the purpose of comparing therewith double refined sugar, or sugar equal in quality to double refined sugar, entered for exportation for the bounty; and fresh standard samples shall be again furnished by such committees, whenever it may be deemed expedient by the commissioners: provided always, that no loaf of sugar shall be deemed to be a proper sample loaf of double refined sugar, if it be of greater weight than 14 lbs., nor unless it be a loaf complete and whole, nor unless the same shall have been made by a distinct second process of refinement from a quantity of single refined sugar, every part of which had first been perfectly clarified and duly refined, and had been made into loaves or lumps, which were of a uniform whiteness throughout, and had been thoroughly dried in the stove.—§ 7.

Sugar entered not equal to the Standard shall be forfeited.—In case any sugar which shall be entered in order to obtain the bounty on double refined sugar, or sugar equal in quality to double refined sugar, shall, on examination by the proper officer, be found to be of a quality not equal to such standard sample, all sugar so entered shall be forfeited and may be seized.—§ 8.

Refining in Bond.—If any further proof, in addition to what has been stated above, were required to show that the trade of refining in this country has been at all times mainly dependent on the bounty, it would be found in the circumstances that have occurred under the late act authorising refining in bond. In 1828, 1829, 1830, and down to July, 1831, foreign sugars were allowed to be refined on the same terms as British sugars—that is, they paid the same duty and were entitled to the same drawback. The quantity of foreign sugar so refined amounted, in 1830, to 2,105 tons, and in the first half of 1831, when the privilege ceased, to about 4,500 tons. The renewal of this system was strongly advocated in 1831 and 1832; but it was successfully opposed by the West India merchants, who considered the scheme injurious to their interests. Last year (1833), however, the refiners having pressed upon parliament the expediency of allowing them to refine foreign sugars *in bond*, which excluded, of course, the possibility of the revenue losing any thing by the drawback exceeding the duty, their request was complied with. The result, however, has shown that the trade had formerly been mainly artificial, or that it had depended principally on the drawback being above the duty. "Out of 65 houses in London, 4 only have availed themselves of the permission to refine in bond; and of these 4, 2 are now about to give up working; and the total quantity that has been used in 100 tons Siam, 100 tons Havannah, and 470 tons Brazil; in all, but 670 tons. A statement has, also, been recently put forth, which shows that, notwithstanding the aid of a bounty, the export had declined from 611,000 cwt. in 1818, to 344,000 in 1828; and although it has since fluctuated between these quantities, it has amounted during the first 3 quarters of the present year (1833) to 195,871 cwt. only, against 382,479 cwt. in the same period of the last year, and 432,223 cwt. in the previous one, notwithstanding there has been abundance of foreign sugar to be had at low prices, and [illegible] the powers of chemical science have been at work to improve the process of refining."—(*Commercial Tariff and Commerce of Great Britain for* 1833.)

This unfavourable state of things is owing, no doubt, to a concurrence of causes; but principally, we believe, to the exaggerated opinions entertained by most foreign nations as to the importance of the sugar refining business. We have no wish, certainly, to undervalue it; but every unprejudiced person must admit that, compared with most other businesses carried on in a great country, it is of very inferior consideration. Instead, however, of regarding it in this point of view, most foreign governments seem to look upon it as of the highest value; and have endeavoured to extend the business, not merely by excluding foreign refined sugars from their markets, but by granting the most lavish bounties on the exportation of sugar refined at home. In France, this sort of policy, if we may so call it, was carried so far, that out of a gross revenue of about 40,000,000 francs (1,570,000*l.*) paid into the treasury on account of the sugar duties in 1832, about 19,000,000 (760,000*l.*) were returned as drawback on the export of refined sugar! As the French government could not afford to lose the sugar duties, which would very speedily have been swallowed up by the drawback, necessity has compelled them to modify their system, by making the allowance to the exporter more nearly correspond with the duty. This will, no doubt, diminish the exportation of refined sugar from France; a change by which it is reasonable to suppose our refiners will in some degree be benefited.

Prussia, and most parts of Germany, to which we formerly exported large quantities of refined sugar, no longer admit it except at a high duty. And even in those Continental markets that are still open for its importation under moderate duties, we have formidable competitors in the Dutch and Belgian refiners, whose governments continue to allow pretty high bounties.

On the whole, therefore, we are afraid that the refining business in this country is in a rather precarious state. Improvements in the process seem to be the only source of relief to which the refiners need look with much hope of advantage. The idea of attempting to bolster up the business by the aid of bounties is not one that can be any longer entertained.

We subjoin the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 61., allowing sugar to be refined in bond.

Act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 61., FOR ADMITTING SUGAR TO BE REFINED FOR EXPORTATION WITHOUT PAYMENT OF DUTY.

Commissioners of Customs may approve Premises for Bonded Sugar Houses.—Upon application to the commissioners of customs of any person actually carrying on the business of a sugar refiner in the ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, Hull, Greenock, or Glasgow, or any other port approved by any 3 Lords of the Treasury, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to approve of such premises as bonded sugar houses for the refining of sugar for exportation only, on it being made appear to the satisfaction of said commissioners that the said premises are fit in every respect for receiving such sugars, and wherein the same may be safely deposited.—§ 1.

Officers of Customs empowered to deliver Sugars Duty-free, to be there refined for Exportation only.—On the approval of any premises as bonded sugar houses, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs at the ports where such premises are situated, to deliver, without payment of duty, to the party or parties so applying as aforesaid, on entry with the proper officer of customs, any quantity of foreign sugar, or of sugar the produce of any British possession, for the purpose of being there refined, under the locks of the Crown, for exportation only; and all sugars so delivered shall be lodged and secured in such premises, under such conditions, regulations, and restrictions as the said commissioners shall from time to time direct: provided, that it shall be lawful for the commissioners to revoke or alter any order of approval of any such premises.—§ 2.

Refiner to give Bond that Sugar received to be refined and exported, or delivered into Bonded Warehouse.—Upon the entry of sugar to be refined in any premises approved of under the authority of this act, the refiner on whose premises the same is to be refined shall give bond, to the satisfaction of the officers of the customs, in the penalty of double the amount of the duty payable upon a like quantity of sugar of the British plantations, with a condition that the whole of such sugar shall be actually subjected to the process of refinement upon the said premises, and that within 4 months from the date of such bond the whole of the refined sugar and treacle produced by such process shall be either duly exported from the said premises, or delivered into an approved bonded warehouse, under the locks of the crown, for the purpose of being eventually exported to foreign parts.—§ 3.

Regulations as to Importation, &c. of Sugar.—No allowance is to be made for damage or increase of weight by water, on sugar, without special permission.

Tare on British plantation sugar:—

Under 8 cwt.		14 per cent.
8 — and under 12		1 cwt. each cask.
12 — 16		1 cwt. 1 qr. 14 lbs. each cask.
16 — 17		1 2 0 —
17 — and upwards		1 3 0 —

Certificates of Growth are required before any sugar can be entered as the produce of a British possession in America, or of the Mauritius; and before it can be entered as the produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter.—(See the clauses in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 52. *ante*, p. 8.

BEET ROOT SUGAR.—The manufacture of sugar from beet root is carried on to a very considerable extent in several parts of the Continent, particularly in France, where the annual produce of the sugar from this source may at present be estimated at about 8,000 tons. This branch of industry began during the exclusion of colonial products from France in the reign of Napoleon. It received a severe check at the return of peace, by the admission of West India sugars at a reasonable duty: and would, it is most probable, have been entirely extinguished, but for the oppressive additions made to the duties on colonial sugars in 1820 and 1822. It is supposed by some, that at no distant period the manufacture of sugar from beet root will be so much improved, that it may be able to stand a competition with colonial sugar at the same duty; but we have no idea that this supposition will ever be realised. It is of importance, however, to bear in mind, that were the culture of beet root sugar to be extensively carried on at home, it would be quite impossible to collect a duty upon it; so that the large amount of revenue that may be advantageously derived from a moderate duty on imported sugar, would be almost entirely lost.—(For an account of the beet root cultivation in France, see the article on the *French Commercial System*, in the *Edinburgh Review*, No. 99.)

We understand that a few small parcels of beet root sugar have recently been produced in this country; and with the present enormous duty on colonial sugar, we are not sure that the manufacture may not succeed. But, as the preservation of the revenue from sugar is of infinitely more importance than the introduction of this spurious business, the foundations of which must entirely rest on the miserable machinery of Custom-house regulations, sound policy would seem to dictate that the precedent established in the case of tobacco should be followed in this instance, and that the beet root sugar manufacture should be abolished. Inasmuch, too, as it is better to check an evil at the outset, than to grapple with it afterwards, we trust that no time may be lost in taking vigorous measures, should there be any appearance of the business extending.

MAPLE SUGAR.—A species of maple (*Acer saccharinum* Lin.) yields a considerable quantity of sugar. It grows plentifully in the United States and in Canada; and in some districts furnishes the inhabitants with most of the sugar they make use of. Though inferior both in grain and strength to that which is produced from the cane, maple sugar granulates better than that of the beet root, or any other vegetable, the cane excepted. It is produced from the sap, which is obtained by perforating the tree in the spring, to the depth of about 2 inches, and setting a vessel for its reception. The quantity afforded varies with the tree and the season. From 2 to 3 gallons may be about the daily average yield of a single tree; but some trees have yielded more than 20 gallons in a day, and others not more than a pint. The process of boiling the juice does not differ materially from what is followed with the cane juice in the West Indies. It is necessary that it should be boiled as soon after it is drawn from the tree as possible. If it be allowed to stand above 24 hours, it is apt to undergo the vinous and acetous fermentation, by which its saccharine quality is destroyed.—(*Bouchette's British America*, vol. i. p. 571, *Timber Trees and Fruits*; *Library of Entertaining Knowledge.*)

Prices of Sugar.—The following statement of the prices of sugar in the London market, on the 19th of December, 1836, is taken from *Prince's Price Current* of that date:—

Sugar.	Price per Cwt.		Duty per Cwt.	Sugar.	Price per Cwt.		Duty per Cwt.
Raw, Duty paid	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	Raw, bond	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
W. I., Jamaica, good and fine	2 2 0	to 2 5 0	1 4 0	East India—continued.			
St. Vincent, good and mid.	2 18 0	— 2 0 0	—	Bengal, yel. & mid. white	0 18 0	to 1 10 0	1 14 0
St. Kitts, middling	2 16 0	— 2 17 6	—	Siam, white	1 8 0	— 1 15 0	3 3 0
Demarara, fine	2 1 6	— 2 2 6	—	Manilla	1 1 0	— 1 6 0	—
Trinidad, middling	2 15 6	— 2 17 0	—	Java	1 1 0	— 1 12 0	—
Tobago, good brown	2 14 0	— 2 15 0	—	Refined single, large lumps	2 9 0	— 2 9 0	Brewery Re-fined sugar 24s. 9 1-2d. Private re-fined, 25s. 3 1-2d. Refined, 25s. 7 1-2d. Ship-ping charges about 2s. per cwt. Duty 2s. 6d. per cwt.
St. Lucia, brown	2 12 0	— 2 13 6	—	small ditto	2 16 0	— 2 0 0	
Barbadoes, fine	2 5 6	— 2 6 6	—	single loaves	2 11 0	— 2 12 0	
middling	2 2 6	— 2 4 0	—	powder ditto	2 11 0	— 2 12 0	
Mauritius, brown	2 4 0	— 2 10 0	—	Patent double loaves	4 15 0	— 4 16 0	
yellow	2 19 0	— 3 2 0	—	Rembro' ditto	2 19 0	— 4 0 0	
fine	3 3 0	— 3 5 6	—	Prussian lumps	2 15 0	— 4 0 0	
Shumaah, white bond	2 0 0	— 2 5 0	3 3 0	crushed (on board)	1 15 0	— 1 16 0	
brown and yellow	1 7 0	— 1 10 0	—	Dutch, crushed	1 14 0	— 1 14 0	
Brazil, white	1 9 0	— 1 15 0	—	Bastards, green	1 16 0	— 2 15 0	
brown and yellow	1 0 0	— 1 7 0	—	Molasses, British	1 7 0	— 1 8 0	
East India.				Patent	1 7 0	— 1 8 0	Duty 2s.
Bengal, good and fine white	1 11 6	— 1 14 0	1 14 0	B. P. West Indies	1 3 0	— 1 6 0	

ACCOUNTS OF SALES OF SUGAR.—Subjoined are *pro formâ* accounts of sales of sugar from Jamaica, Brazil, Bengal, Mauritius, &c. These accounts are interesting, inasmuch as they exhibit the various charges affecting this necessary article, from the time it is shipped in the colonies till it finds its way into the hands of the grocer: and our readers may rely on their authenticity. It will be observed, that *the duties are very much greater than the sums received by the planters.*

Pro Formâ Sales of 100 Hogsheads Jamaica Sugar, per "Jess," Captain Yates, by Order and for Account of Thomson & Co.

1834. Feb. 18.

100 hhds. (weighing each 14 cwt.

Cwt. qrs. lbs.			Cwt. qrs. lbs.		£. s. d.
1,400	0	0	Average market tare	1 2 0 each	
151	3	4 tare and draft.	Draft	0 0 2 —	
1,249	0	24 nett		at 2l. 16s. per cwt.	3,495 0 0

Charges.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Warehousing entry		0 4 6
Sea insurance, valuing at 20l. per hhd. 2s. per cent. on 2,000l.	20 0 0	
Policy 5s. per cent., 2l. Commission 1-2 per cent., 10l.	12 0 0	
		32 0 6
Insurance from fire, 2 months, at 5s. 6d. per cent. on 2,000l.		3 5 0
Customs duty on 1,250 cwt. at 24s. per cwt. and entries		1,500 0 0
Freight on 1,250 cwt., at 4l. 10s. per ton of 20 cwt.	281 5 0	
Primage at 6d each, 2l. 10s. Pierage at 4 1-2d., 1l. 17s. 6d.	4 7 6	
		285 12 6
Consolidated rate on 1,250 cwt. at 8d. per cwt.*		41 13 4
Laying over at 6d. each		2 10 0
Interest on freight, 25 days, 14s. 8d.; on duty, 70 days, 11l. 10s. 2d.; on charges, 70 days, 5s. 4d.		12 12 2
Brokerage 1 2 per cent		17 0 8
Del credere 1 per cent.		34 19 0
Commission 2 1-2 per cent.		87 7 6
		2,053 13 6
Errors excepted.	Cash, 24 of May	£. 1,441 6 6

London, 24th *of February*, 1834.

* This charge includes 12 weeks' rent; but should the importer keep the sugar on hand beyond that period, he would be liable to rent at the rate of 6d. per ton per week. The buyer also has the sugar delivered to him free of expense.

Pro Formâ Sales of 100 Chests Bahia Sugar, per "Mary," Captain Smith, by Order and for Account of William Henry & Co.

1834. Feb. 18.

Average weight of each chest about 16 cwt. gross.
Revenue tares 13 per cent., and draft 2 lbs. per chest, allowed to buyers.

	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	£. s. d.
32 chests white		500 0 0 gross.	
		0 2 4 draft.	
30 do. yellow	502 0 0		
	0 2 4	497 1 24	
34 do. brown	502 0 0	61 0 24 tare.	
	0 2 4		
100 chests	497 1 24		
	61 0 24	436 1 0 nett at 11. 7s.	669 8 0
	436 1 0 nett	at 11. 4s.	560 10 0
		at 11. 1s.	436 11 0
			1,676 10 0
		Discount 2 1-2 per cent	41 19 3
			1,634 10 9

Charges.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Warehousing entry		0 4 6
Sea insurance on 1,700l. at 2l. 7s. 6d. per cent.	40 7 6	
Policy 5s. per cent., 2l. 5s. Commission 1-2 per cent., 8l. 10s.	12 15 0	
		52 2 6
Insurance from fire on 1,700l. at 5s. 6d. per cent.		5 15 6
Freight on 1,400 cwt. 1 qr. 12 lbs. at 2l. 10s. per ton of 20 cwt.	245 0 11	
Primage 5s. per cent., 12l. 5s. Pierage at 5 1-2d. per ton, 1l. 5s. 5d.	13 5 5	
		258 6 4
Consolidated rate on 1,400 cwt. 1 qr. 12 lbs. at 7d. per cwt.*		40 16 10
Laying over at 6d. each		2 10 0
Interest on freight, 25 days, 14s. 1d.; on dock charges, 25 days, 5s. 6d.		0 19 7
Advertising and showing for sale, catalogues, use of room, receipt stamps, and petty expenses		2 1 6
Brokerage 1 per cent.		16 15 8
Commission, 2 1-2 per cent.		41 19 3
		419 3 5
Errors excepted.	Cash, 23d of March	£. 1,217 2 4

London, 24th *of February*, 1834.

* This charge includes 12 weeks' rent; but should the importer keep the sugar on hand beyond that period, he would be liable to rent at the rate of 6d. per ton per week. The buyer also has the sugar delivered to him free of expense.

Per Forres Sales of 800 Bags Bengal Sugar, per "Forres," Captain Hawk, by Order and for Account of W. S. Warwick.

1884. No. 15.

Cust. qrs. lbs.
800 bags (weighing each 1 0 21)
Cust. qrs. lbs.
828 2 0
31 1 0 tare and draft.

Revenue tare 6 lbs. each.
Draft 1 lb. each.

797 3 0 nett . . . . . at 1l. 5s. per cwt. £ 865 12 6

Charges	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Warehousing entry	—	
Sea insurance on 800l. at 2l. 15s. per cent.	6 4 6	
Policy 5s. per cent., 2l. Commission 1·2 per cent., 4l.	6 0 0	
	12 4 6	
Insurance from fire on 800l. at 5s. 3d. per cent.	1 6 6	
Freight on 888 cwt. 3 qrs. 24 lbs. at 4l. per ton of 20 cwt.	113 9 0	
Consolidated rate on 888 cwt. 3 qrs. 24 lbs. at 6d. per cwt.*	14 5 6	
Lotting at 1d. per cwt. gross	2 9 6	
	16 12 6	
Advertising and showing for sale, catalogues, use of room, receipt stamps, and petty expenses	2 1 6	
Brokerage 1·2 per cent.	4 1 7	
Commission 2 1·2 per cent.	20 7 11	
		166 2 0
Errors excepted.	Cash, 24th of May	£ 699 10 6

London, 25th of February, 1884.

* This charge includes 12 weeks' rent; but should the importer keep the sugar on hand beyond that period, he would be liable to rent at the rate of 4d. per ton per week. The buyer also has the sugar delivered to him free of expense.

Per Forres Sales of 2,000 Bags Mauritius Sugar, per "Africa," Captain Reynolds, by Order and for Account of S. R. Waters.

1884. No. 15.

Cust. qrs. lbs.
200 bags (weighing each 1 1 0)
Cust. qrs. lbs.
2,000 0 0
107 0 16 tare and draft.

Revenue tare 5 lbs. each.
Draft 1 lb. each.

1,893 3 12 nett . . . . . at 2l. 15s. per cwt. £ 5,560 7 0

Charges	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Warehousing entry	—	0 4 6
Sea insurance on 2,700l. at 2l. per cent.	111 0 0	
Policy 5s. per cent., 2l. 5s. Commission 1 2 per cent., 19l. 10s.	27 15 0	
		138 15 6
Insurance from fire on 2,700l. at 5s. 3d. per cent.		6 0 6
Customs duty on 2,410 cwt. 2 qrs. 24 lbs. at 1l. 4s. per cwt. and entries		2,695 16 0
Freight on 2,410 cwt. 2 qrs. 24 lbs. at 4l. 10s. per ton of 20 cwt.	542 8 6	
Primage 5s. per cent.	13 11 2	
		555 19 8
Consolidated rate on 2,410 cwt. 2 qrs. 24 lbs. at 6d. per cwt.*	60 5 4	
Lotting at 1d. per cwt. gross	10 6 4	
		70 19 8
Interest on duty, 70 days, 53l. 4s. 9d.; on freight, 25 days, 1l. 10s. 8d.; on charges, 70 days, 10s. 10d.		54 5 8
Advertising and showing for sale, catalogues, use of room, receipt stamps, and petty expenses		7 0 0
Brokerage and guarantee 1 per cent.		65 16 0
Commission 2 1·2 per cent.		164 10 0
		3,260 0 10
Errors excepted.	Cash, 3d of May	£ 2,651 6 2

London, 25th of February, 1884.

* This charge includes 12 weeks' rent; but should the importer keep the sugar on hand beyond that period, he would be liable to rent at the rate of 4d. per ton per week. The buyer also has the sugar delivered to him free of expense.

Per Forres Sales of 900 Chests Havannah Sugar, per "Forres," Captain Baker, by Order and for Account of Wm. Watkins.

1884. No. 5.

438 chests white (weighing each 4 1-4 cwt.) Cust. qrs. lbs. 1,092 2 0 — 118 1 6 t. & d. — 944 0 22 nett — Revenue tare 52 lbs. each. Draft 1 lb. each. — at 1l. 14s. £ 1,605 2 0

238 do. yellow Cust. qrs. lbs. 1,092 2 0 — 118 1 6 t. & d. — 944 0 22 nett — at 1l. 5s. 1,180 5 0

2,785 7 0
Discount 2 1-2 per cent. (69 12 6)
2,715 14 6

Charges	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Warehousing entry	—	0 4 6
Sea insurance on 2,800l. at 2l. 5s. per cent.	63 0 0	
Policy 5s. per cent., 7l. Commission 10s. per cent., 14l.	21 0 0	
		84 0 0
Insurance from fire on 2,800l. at 5s. 3d. per cent.		4 11 0
Freight on 1,892 cwt. 3 qrs. 12 lbs. at 4l. 10s. per ton of 20 cwt.	425 18 6	
Primage 5s. per cent., 21l. 5s. 10d. Pierage 3 1-2d. per ton, 1l. 7s. 7d.	22 13 5	
		448 11 11
Consolidated rate on 1,892 cwt. 3 qrs. 12 lbs. at 6d. per cwt.*		47 6 6
Laying over at 6d. each		12 10 0
Interest on freight, 25 days, 1l. 4s. 7d.; on dock charges, 25 days, 2s. 6d.		1 7 1
Auction duty 1·2 per cent.		13 18 6
Advertising and showing for sale, catalogues, use of room, receipt stamps, and petty expenses		2 1 6
Brokerage 1 per cent.		27 17 6
Commission 2 1·2 per cent.		69 13 6
		719 0 6
Errors excepted.	Cash, 23d of March	£ 2,002 14 0

London, 25th of February, 1884.

* This charge includes 12 weeks' rent; but should the importer keep the sugar on hand beyond that period, he would be liable to rent at the rate of 4d. per ton per week. The buyer also has the sugar delivered to him free of expense.

N. B.—The freight is charged on the weight, exclusive of the tare, but inclusive of the draft.

(*State of the Sugar Trade.*—The sugar trade is at this moment in a very singular and perplexing state. In consequence of the efforts made by the abolitionists in this country, the apprenticeship system, which was to have continued till 1840, ceased in August last (1838); and the blacks in the different sugar islands belonging to Great Britain are now as free, and as much entitled to the free disposal of their labour, as the workmen in England. It would be premature to speculate as to the ultimate influence of this great change. Even as respects the present state of the islands, the accounts are contradictory, and little to be relied on. Certainly, however, we have little doubt, whatever may be the result in the long run, that in the first instance the emancipation of the blacks will be productive of a great decline in the growth and exportation of sugar. It would, indeed, be extraordinary were it otherwise. Labour in sugar plantations has hitherto been associated in the minds of the blacks with all that is most revolting to the feelings; and it is not rational to suppose, now that they are free, that they should apply themselves to what has been the badge and test of their degradation, with the energy that the lash used formerly to inspire. It should farther be recollected, that the wants of the blacks are comparatively few, and that they may be partially or fully met by labouring on grounds where sugar is not raised, and where the work is much lighter. The circumstances now stated may not, indeed, have the influence that one should naturally expect; and they may be partially countervailed by others. But after every abatement, our conviction is, that a very great falling-off may be anticipated. It will be seen from the subjoined account, that the export of sugar from Jamaica has declined from 1,256,991 cwt. in 1833, to 903,933 cwt. in 1837! And taking the entire produce of the West Indian colonies, and of the Mauritius, in 1838, at 180,000 tons, Mr. Cook estimates the probable deficiency in the supply of the current year at no less than 30,000 tons.

The equalisation of the duties on East and West India sugars judiciously effected by the act 6 & 7 Will. 4. cap. 26., has, by occasioning a considerably increased exportation of East India sugar, contributed in so far to counteract the influence of the decreasing imports from the West Indies. But it is doubtful whether this resource will be sufficient under the new state of things, and whether it will not be necessary to open our ports to the importation of foreign sugars, under such regulations as may appear to be necessary to secure the rights and interests of all parties. We believe that such a measure would be of signal importance, and that it would not merely contribute to reduce the cost of one of the principal necessaries of life, but would greatly extend our trade with Brazil, and other countries rapidly rising in commercial importance, sugar being the principal article they have to offer in exchange for foreign products.

An Account of the Sugars imported into the United Kingdom from the Colonies and Settlements in the West Indies and the Mauritius during the Four Years ending with 1837: distinguishing each Year, and each Colony or Settlement.

Colonies and Settlements.	Plantation Sugar imported into the United Kingdom.				
	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.
	cwt.	*cwt.*	*cwt.*	*cwt.*	*cwt.*
Antigua	199,510	257,178	174,818	135,482	62,170
Barbadoes	384,971	394,527	344,689	373,428	445,713
Dominica	47,372	54,876	25,014	35,213	23,731
Grenada	204,074	194,542	170,280	156,310	161,992
Jamaica	1,256,991	1,256,253	1,148,760	1,054,042	903,933
Montserrat	15,507	26,630	16,262	12,152	5,695
Nevis	42,297	59,748	39,637	23,098	24,369
St. Christopher	80,390	105,355	86,754	64,418	73,270
St. Lucia	46,548	63,306	54,732	38,085	51,430
St. Vincent	194,889	213,016	195,057	186,482	201,191
Tobago	66,527	79,018	77,260	117,643	90,602
Tortola	14,969	21,926	13,821	13,510	13,534
Trinidad	286,301	339,615	289,392	312,141	295,367
Demerara	752,474	686,566	760,376	864,134	792,852
Berbice	101,736	90,699	126,485	213,714	150,536
Mauritius	516,077	553,890	558,237	497,302	537,455
Total	4,168,573	4,397,145	4,081,575	4,097,084	3,843,863

The Imports of East India Sugar increased from 374,306 cwt. in 1837, to 609,979 cwt. in 1838.

Account of Sugar entered for Home Consumption in the Year ending the 5th of January, 1840; with the Amount of Duty received thereon.

	Quantities entered for Home Consumption.	Gross Amount of Duty received.
Sugar of the British Possessions in America	Cwt. 2,790,294	L. 3,347,296
Mauritius	589,356	707,228
British Possessions in the East Indies	476,092	573,691
of all other Sorts	50	160
Total	3,857,702	4,628,375
Deduct payments out of the gross receipt on account of bounty paid on the exportation of refined sugar,—also, payments for damaged, and overcharged duty on sugar, &c.	. .	41,445
Gross Receipt on Sugar		L. 4,628,375
Nett Receipt on do.		4,586,910

The consumption of sugar is rapidly increasing on the continent and in America. But the increase in the former is to a great extent met by the culture of beet-root sugar. The entire consumption of sugar in France is estimated to amount at present to 120,000 tons; but of this amount no fewer than 80,000 tons are said to have been supplied in 1838 by the beet-root plantations. In 1832, beet-root sugar did not exceed 10,000 or 12,000 tons; and its astonishing increase in the interval has been owing to the circumstance of colonial sugar having been loaded in France with a duty of about 18*s.* a cwt.; whereas, till last year, beet-root sugar was exempted from all duty. It now, however, pays a duty of 9*s.* a cwt.; and it remains to be seen whether it will continue to advance under this duty, which still leaves it in a very advantageous situation as compared with colonial sugar; if it do, the manufacture may be looked upon as firmly established, and able to maintain its ground against the competition of the French colonists.*

But the production of beet-root sugar is not confined to France. On the contrary, it is rapidly extending in Belgium, Germany, Prussia, and even Russia. Nor is this to be wondered at, as it everywhere enjoys an exemption from duty; and comes into competition with a foreign article loaded with a heavy duty. But were the sugars of Cuba, Brazil, and Java allowed to come into the continental markets on the same terms as beet-root sugar, we are inclined to think that we should not hear much more of the progress of the latter.

The consumption of sugar in America, Australia, and, indeed, in all civilised countries, and in all countries emerging from barbarism, is augmenting every day. But, independent even of the novel and important resource of beet-root sugar, the production of the article is extending so very rapidly in Brazil, Cuba, Java, the Philippines, &c., that there is no reason to fear any great increase of price, even though the worst anticipations should be realised as to its production in the British West Indies.†—*Sup.*)

[What follows is extracted from a memorial of the Legislature of Louisiana to Congress, in 1840. It will be found to contain an interesting account of the condition of the sugar-growing interest of the United States.

That from 1816 to 1828 the annual production increased from 15,000 hhds. of 1,000 to 45,000 hhds.

That in 1828, the capital invested and the power used, in this branch of industry, was estimated as follows:

208 estates,	$34,000,000	Animal power, about	12,000 horses and oxen.
Manual power, about	21,000 hands.	Mechanical, about	1,640 horse power.

That from 1828 to 1830, 383 new estates were undertaken, which required a further outlay of about $16,000,000: making a total outlay for 691 estates of about $50,000,000.

That under the tariff of 1816, Louisiana was already supplying one half of the sugars required for the consumption of the United States, and was bidding fair soon to meet the entire consumption.

That before these 383 estates could be brought into full operation, the tariff of 1834 was adopted; that 156 estates have already been compelled to abandon their sugar works, under the effect of this act; that its further action cannot fail to annihilate this important branch of national industry.

That the sugar estates yet in operation, number 525.

That the power used thereupon is estimated as follows:

Manual, about	40,000 hands.
Mechanical	10,000 horses.

That the annual expenses of a well-regulated plantation are computed at $50 per hand.

That these estates, with their increased machinery, have required, at a low valuation, a cash investment of at least $52,000,000.

That the annual average crops do not exceed 70,000 hhds. or 70 millions of pounds of sugar, and 250,000 gallons of molasses.

That the product of such a crop, at 6 cents for sugar and 20 cents for molasses, would be $4,900,000.

That deducting expenses therefrom, say $50 per hand, $2,000,000.

There would remain nett, $2,900,000, or 5 57-100 per cent. on the capital invested.

That the nett product of the same crop, at 5½ cents, and 18, would be $2,480,000, or 4 76-100 per cent.

That the nett product, at 5 and 17, would be $2,096,000, or 4 per cent.

That the nett product, at 4 and 16, would be $1,460,000, or about 2 80-100 per cent.

From which it is evident that Louisiana, with its uncertain climate and expensive operations, cannot produce sugar under 5½ cents; while in the West India Islands, with their genial climate and cheap operations, muscavadoes can be produced, so as to yield a fair remuneration, at 2½ a 3 cents.

That under these circumstances the enormous investments of capital in the cultivation of sugar since 1816, would not have taken place, had not a continuation of the revenue tax, then laid upon foreign sugar, been implicitly relied upon. . . .

That during the last 10 years, prices in Havanna, for muscovadoes, have ruled as follows:

April,	1830	6 a 8 reals per arroba,	3 a 4	cents.
—	1831	5 a 6 — — —	2½ a 3	—
—	1832	6½ a 7½ — — —	2½ a 3	—
—	1833	4½ a 6 — — —	2 37-7 a 3	
—	1834	5½ a 7½ — — —	2 87-7 a 3½	
—	1835	8 a 9½ — — —	4 a 4 62-7	
—	1836	12½ a 14 — — —	6½ a 7	—
—	1837	5 a 8 — — —	2½ a 4	—
—	1838	7 a 8½ — — —	3½ a 4½	—
—	1839	6½ a 8 — — —	2½ a 4	—

That owing to an early winter, the crop of Louisiana for 1835-6 was reduced to 25,000 hhds., and prices advanced to 11 cents.

That the crops of the West India Islands and Cuba had been at that period as large as usual; that yet muscovadoes advanced in Havanna to 6½ a 7 cents. or nearly cent. per cent. That the Louisiana crop for 1836 and '37 was an average one, and prices receded in Havanna to 2½ a 4 cents, and in New Orleans to 5½ a 6 cents.—*Am. Ed.*]

* The French government recently published a very complete and useful work on the colonies of France, entitled *Notices Statistiques sur les Colonies Françaises.* 2 tomes, 8vo. Paris, 1837.

† For further particulars respecting the sugar trade, the reader is referred to the able statement recently issued by Mr. Cook, of Mincing Lane.

For the exports of sugar from the port of New Orleans, see article NEW ORLEANS.—*Am. Ed.*]

SULPHUR, or BRIMSTONE (*Fr. Soufre*; *Ger. Schwefel*; *It. Zolfo, Solfo*; *Sp. Azufre*; *Arab. Kibrest*), a crystallised, hard, brittle substance, commonly of a greenish yellow colour, without any smell, and of a weak though perceptible taste; its specific gravity is from 1·9 to 2·1. It burns with a pale blue flame, and emits a great quantity of pungent suffocating vapours. In some parts of Italy and Sicily it is dug up in a state of comparative purity. That which is manufactured in this country is obtained by the roasting of pyrites. It is denominated *rough* or *roll sulphur*, from its being cast in cylindrical moulds, and contains 7 per cent. of orpiment. The Italian roll sulphur does not contain more than 3 per cent. of a simple earth; and is, therefore, in higher estimation than the English. When roll sulphur is purified, it receives the name of *sublimed sulphur*, and is in the form of a bright yellow powder.—(*Thomson's Chemistry, &c.*)

Sulphur is of great importance in the arts. It is used extensively in the manufacture of gunpowder, and in the formation of sulphuric acid, or oil of vitriol. It is also used extensively in medicine, and for other purposes. The entries for home consumption in 1834 and 1835 amounted, at an average, to 530,168 cwt. a year. The duty on refined or roll brimstone varies from 6*s.* to 9*s.* 9*d.* a cwt., whereas on rough it is only 6*d.*; so that the imports consist almost wholly of the latter. Of 507,866 cwt. imported in 1834, 485,756 cwt. came from Italy or rather Sicily. The price of rough brimstone in bond in the London market, in November, 1836, varied from 7*l.* to 7*l.* 10*s.* a ton.

(SWEDEN.

Duties in Sweden on some of the principal Articles of Import, according to the Tariff issued 30th June, 1835.

Articles.	Quantity for Duty.	Import Duty. Swed. Money.	English Money.
		Rixd. s. rs.	£. s. d.
Sugar:—			
Muscovado, brown and yellow	1 ship.	0 8 0	0 0 11 3/4
Cru bad lump and Havannah white		0 4 0	0 0 5 1/2
Coffee		0 8 0	0 0 1 1/4
Tobacco leaf		0 4 0	0 0 5 1/4
Segars	100 st.	1 0 0	0 1 5
Cut, Kardweer, loose or packed	1 ship.	0 12 0	0 0 6
Rasster		0 32 0	0 1 1 1/2
Spun or Negrohead		0 8 0	0 0 11 3
Stums		0 2 0	0 0 0 3
Tea		0 4 [illegible]	0 0 5 1/2
Wine in cask	1 kann	0 24 [illegible]	0 0 [illegible]
bottle		1 0 0	0 1 1
Bottles to pay according to the kind of glass.			
Spirits, Hollands, brandy, rum, arrack, and not exceeding 12° strength	1 kanne	0 32 0	0 1 1 1/2
over 12° —		1 0 0	0 1 5
Porcelain Imitation, white, yellow, not painted, plates or dishes	1 ship.	0 8 0	0 0 9 1/2
other pieces		0 6 0	0 0 7 1/2
Real, white, or one coloured		0 8 0	0 0 9 1/2
Gilt or coloured, or painted with flowers and figures		0 12 0	0 0 4
Cotton		0 0 4	0 0 0 1/2
Cotton goods:			
Calico and like fabrics prohibited		prohibited.	
Cambric and like, above 76 threads per inch, fine, and from 6 to 9 qrs. wide (Swedish quarters)	1 ell	0 6 0	0 0 7 1/2
Corderoy and cordet, not exceeding 4 quarters wide		0 16 0	0 0 4 1/2
Gauze, lawn, muslin — 6 —		0 8 0	0 0 9
Jean — 5 —		0 6 0	0 0 7 1/2
Cotton velvet — 4 —		0 8 0	0 0 9 1/2
Shawls of dyed yarn or printed under 7 qrs. square, exclusive of fringe		prohibited.	
Fancy, above 7 qrs. square, exclusive of fringe	1 sq. ell	0 8 0	0 0 9 1/2
Woollen goods:—			
Woollen cloth prohibited		prohibited.	
Frize, frisad, duffel, and Kalmuk	1 ell	1 0 0	0 1 1
Cassimere, not exceeding 6 quarters wide,			
White, black, yellow, or red	1 ell	0 24 0	0 0 10
Other colours		prohibited.	
Blankets	1 ship.	0 24 0	0 0 10
Flannel not exceeding 6 1-2 qrs. wide	1 ell.	0 10 0	0 0 4 1/2
Bombazette and bombasin — 5 —		0 8 0	0 0 1 1/4
Camlet — 6 —		0 4 0	0 0 1 3/4
Merinos — 9 —		0 6 0	0 0 2 1/2
Woollen with a mixture of cotton or flax:			
Bombasin lustre, not exceeding 6 qrs. wide	1 ell	0 4 0	0 0 1 3/3
Flannel		prohibited.	
Other kinds, not exceeding 6 qrs. wide	1 ell	0 8 0	0 0 3 1/2
Shawls under rixdol. 6-32		prohibited.	
of rixdol. 6-32 and upwards value (20 per cent.)	100 rixdls.	20 0 0	20 per cent. ad.
Linen goods:—			
Sail and tent cloth	1 ell	3 8 0	0 0 3 1/2
Duck		0 12 0	0 0 5
Linen of different qualities, from rixdol. 0-8 to rixdol. 0-16			
Silk goods:—			
Crape, say, craped crape	1 ship.	6 24 0	0 10 10
Gauze or plain crape		5 16 0	0 8 10 3/4
Velvet		4 0 0	0 6 0
Taffeta, levantin, satin, &c.		prohibited.	
Other kinds of silk goods (long measure, all goods)		0 0 0	0 10 0
Shawls of gauze or other thin stuff		0 0 0	0 13 4
Bourse de Soie		6 32 0	0 11 1 1/2
Other descriptions		prohibited.	
Silk with a mixture of cotton, wool, or flax:—			
All descriptions of long-measure goods	1 ship.	3 16 0	0 5 6 3/4
Shawls of less value than rixdol. 10		prohibited.	
more — 10 (20 per cent.)	100 rixdls.	20 0 0	20 per cent. ad.
Iron goods:—			
Pots and kettles of 1 1-2 inch thick and under, stoves, grates, rails, &c.	1 ship.	8 0 0	1 13 4
Castings for machinery, wheels or in pieces		6 0 0	0 10 0
Not specified		88 16 0	2 15 6
Anchors and anchor storks		12 24 0	1 0 10
Kedges, grapples, bolts, hammers		20 0 0	0 15 4
Bar and hoop iron		prohibited.	
Plates under 3-8ths of an inch, and above 6 lispounds each		9 0 0	0 15 0
Chains		12 24 0	1 0 10

Navigation Law of Sweden.—A new navigation law was passed for Sweden on the 29th of October, 1823. The following extracts from an Ordinance, issued on the 22nd of December of the same year, should be attended to by all merchants and ship-owners engaged in the trade with Sweden:—

"The masters of foreign as well as Swedish vessels, who take in goods destined for Sweden at a foreign port where a Swedish consul is stationed, are required before their departure to produce to the consul a duplicate, signed by them, of the manifest of the cargo, along with the original bills of lading, after the consul has compared the bill of lading with the manifest, and found them to agree, and added his attestation thereof in the manifest, these papers, of which the bills of lading are to have a string drawn through the whole, and the consul's seal affixed thereon, are to be returned to the captain.

"The bills of lading for cargoes coming from an European port, and not shipped in bulk, must state the mark and number, with the gross weight and cubic contents of each package, according to the weights and measures in use at the port of loading. A captain, Swede or foreigner, in charge of a sea-going vessel from a port where a Swedish consul is stationed, is required, on giving in at the custom-house a list of his cargo, to deliver at the same time a duplicate of his manifest, attested as stated in the first paragraph, or otherwise he will be subjected to a fine of one hundred rix-dollars.

"A captain, foreign or Swedish, destined to a port in Sweden not enjoying the privilege of receiving goods in bond, and having on board his vessel goods for re-exportation not admitted for consumption in Sweden, must show proof by passport, certificate, or other duly authenticated document from the port of loading, that he intended to proceed with such goods to a foreign port therein specially named, or otherwise such goods will be liable to confiscation."

N. B.—The ports enjoying the privilege of receiving goods in bond, prohibited as well as permitted, are the following:—Stockholm, Gothenberg, Carlshaven, Landscrona, and Soderkoping.

Statement of the Commerce and Navigation of Sweden with Foreign Countries in 1823.

Countries.	Commerce.						Navigation.					
	Value of Merchandise imported from Foreign Countries.			Value of Merchandise exported from Sweden.			Tonnage of the Ships arrived at Sweden.			Tonnage of the Ships sailed from Sweden.		
	By Swedish Ships.	By Foreign Ships.	Total.	By Swedish Ships.	By Foreign Ships.	Total.	Swedish Ships.	Foreign Ships.	Total.	Swedish Ships.	Foreign Ships.	Total.
	Rixd. bs.	*Rixd. bs.*	*Rixd. bs.*	*Rixd. bs.*	*Rixd. bs.*	*Rixd. bs.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*	*Tons.*
Norway	780,788	1,033,113	1,713,900	344,275	409,172	753,447	5,754	17,923	23,677	10,587	7,587	24,174
Finland	14,463	1,264,163	1,278,626	96,501	279,643	383,044	234	22,645	22,879	1,217	24,895	26,112
Russia	1,010,140	62,275	1,067,326	289,271	6,439	294,660	3,214	984	4,229	4,041	660	4,701
Prussia	32,270	84,803	109,073	585,167	130,884	715,711	3,641	1,296	4,937	4,338	1,144	5,482
Mecklenburg	79,091	6	79,097	414,448	43,368	457,309	4,136	722	4,858	4,199	686	4,885
Denmark	1,900,844	243,709	1,444,553	1,897,107	162,242	2,049,349	21,827	5,017	26,904	27,3 9	1,436	8,794
Hamburg	2,601,295	27,671	2,628,966	77,546	23,320	700,866	7,126	2,263	9,389	5,740	176	9,696
Lubeck										5,770		
Bremen	23,238	-	23,236	101,606	-	101,606	-	-	-	479	-	479
Netherlands	220,053	25,620	245,673	416,237	330,227	746,164	2,336	4,101	6,437	4,334	4,888	9,222
Belgium	56,207	-	56,207	136,818	-	136,818	-	-	-	4,451	-	4,451
Great Britain	430,243	914,906	1,295,149	1,642,114	2,479,320	4,081,393	4,490	13,323	17,813	7,710	18,187	25,897
France	226,327	956	227,195	1,260,950	225,124	1,486,074	2,291	3,629	5,920	16,993	9,065	24,958
Spain	175,510	2,389	177,917	94,589	-	94,589	4,647	295	4,942	9,458	-	9,458
Portugal	186,641	102	186,743	823,193	-	823,193	7,093	216	7,309	10,346	76	10,422
Sardinia	-	-	-	52,824	-	52,824	-	-	-	606	-	606
Tuscany	32,271	-	32,271	42,960	-	42,960	421	-	421	1,411	-	1,411
Two Sicilies	5,547	-	5,547	-	-	-	-	-	-	895	-	895
Austria	-	-	-	50,746	-	50,746	-	-	-	647	-	647
Egypt	-	-	-	98,575	13,000	95,575	-	-	-	1,317	152	1,469
Algiers	-	-	-	63,425	-	63,425	-	-	-	371	-	371
Brazil	1,893,790	1,040	1,894,830	239,518	520	240,138	2,607	-	2,607	4,192	-	4,192
West Indies	208,978	15,536	224,914	4,975	94,457	99,132	198	-	198	188	-	307
Other Places	619,131	527,310	1,146,441	1,666,307	1,284,963	3,951,300	1,245	800	2,045	6,903	6,100	13,003
Totals	9,660,728	4,224,913	13,885,641	10,490,988	6,442,096	16,902,979	73,633	73,636	146,274	136,399	75,182	211,580

(SWEETS.—An excise duty was imposed on sweets—that is, on home-made wines, mead, or metheglin, &c.—manufactured for sale, so early as 1696. In 1803 it amounted to 4*s.* a barrel; the produce of the duty varying from that year to 1816 from about 21,000*l.* to about 33,000*l.* a year. But in 1816 it fell off to little more than half its previous amount. This sudden decline was doubtless occasioned by the great increase in the consumption of Cape wine, consequent to the reduction of the duty on it, in 1814, from about 6*s.* to about 2*s.* 6*d.* a gallon. In 1817 it was attempted to revive the manufacture of home-made wine, by taking a third from the duty on sweets; which amounted, after the reduction, to about 1*s.* 0½*d.* a gallon; and in 1826 it was further reduced to 6*d.* But the ease with which the article may be made by private individuals, and the decisive check given, by the introduction of Cape and other foreign wines, to the use of home-made substitutes, prevented these reductions from having any material influence; and in 1832 the duty had dwindled to 3,721*l.* Under these circumstances, the Commissioners of Excise Inquiry wisely recommended the abolition of the duty, which has been effected by the act 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 77.—(*Fifth Report by the Commissioners of Excise Inquiry*, p. 18., &c.)—*Sup.*)

SYDNEY, the capital of New South Wales, and of the British settlements in New Holland, or Australia, in lat. 33° 55′ S., lon. 150° 10′ E. Population (December, 1835) about 20,000. Sydney is situated on a cove on the south side of Port Jackson, about 7 miles from its mouth. The water is of sufficient depth to allow the largest ships to come close to the shore. The inlet or harbour, denominated Port Jackson, is one of the finest natural basins in the world. It stretches about 15 miles into the country, and has numerous creeks and bays; the anchorage is every where excellent, and ships are protected from every wind. The entrance to this noble bay is between 2 gigantic cliffs not quite 2 miles apart. On the most southerly, in lat. 33° 51′ 30″ S., lon. 151° 16′ 30″ E., there is a light house, the lantern of which is elevated 67 feet above the ground, and about 345 above the sea. Owing

to a want of attention at first, the streets of Sydney were laid out and the houses built, according to the views of individuals, without any fixed or regular plan. But latterly this defect has been to a considerable degree remedied in the old streets; and the new ones are systematically laid out. The town covers a great extent of land; almost every house having a considerable piece of ground attached to it. There are different joint stock banks at Sydney; and there is also a savings' bank. Schools for the instruction of poor children have been established; and there are, besides, two establishments dignified with the pompous title of colleges, numerous seminaries, some of them said to be very well conducted, for the education of the middle and upper classes. There are several periodical publications.

Population, &c.—The British settlements in New South Wales were originally intended to serve as penal establishments, to which convicts might be transported, and employed in public and private works; and are still used for this purpose. The first vessel with convicts arrived at Botany Bay in January, 1788; but it having been found to be quite unsuitable as a site for a colony, the establishment was removed to Port Jackson. The progress of the colony has been much more rapid than might have been anticipated, considering the character and habits of the convicts annually landed upon its shores, the difficulties which the great distance from England interpose in the way of an emigration of voluntary settlers, and the inferiority of the soil. Owing to the circumstance of the great majority of the convicts and other emigrants being males, a great disproportion has always existed between the sexes in the colony, which has materially retarded its progress, and been, in other respects, productive of very pernicious results. Government, however, availing itself of the assistance of benevolent individuals at home, and in the colony, has within these few years endeavoured to lessen the disproportion referred to, by sending out considerable numbers of young unmarried females, free of expense. Much, it was obvious, of the influence of this measure, would depend on the discrimination with which the female emigrants were selected; and various precautions were taken by the organisation of committees, and otherwise, to exclude from amongst them all whose character was found to be in any degree suspicious. It was not, however, to be expected that these precautions should be completely successful; and the most conflicting accounts have been received as to the conduct of the females on their landing, and the influence of their immigration on the colony. There can be no question, indeed, that the latter has, in many respects, fallen short of the anticipations of its promoters; and that, whether from want of due care in the selection, or from the force of circumstances, many of the emigrants have fallen into vicious courses. On the whole, however, we have no doubt that the measure has been decidedly advantageous; and that it will tend both to increase the population, and to improve the morals of the colony.

According to a census taken on the 2d of September, 1833, the population of the colony, exclusive of aborigines, was as follows:—

		Males.	Females.	Total.
Free		22,798	13,442	36,240
Bond		21,846	2,698	24,544
		44,644	16,150	60,794

At the above date, the population of Sydney amounted to 16,232, and that of Parramatta to 4,637.

The immigration into the colony from the 1st of January, 1832, to the 31st of December, 1835, has been,

		1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
Free	Men	519	836	571	651
	Women	706	1,146	566	650
	Children	481	701	397	311
Convicts	Men	2,487	3,498	3,704	3,423
	Women	381	656	487	179
	Total	5,974	6,811	4,725	5,154

The total population of the colony, on the 31st of December, 1835, was estimated at 80,000.

Climate.—The climate of such parts of New South Wales as have been explored by the English is particularly mild and salubrious. The high summer heat indicated by the thermometer has not the relaxing and enfeebling effect that a similar high temperature has in India and many other countries. Fearless of damps, and unmolested by noxious insects, the traveller may throw himself under the shade of the first tree that invites him, and sleep in safety. On the other hand, however, the climate has the serious defect of being too dry. It seems to be subject to the periodical recurrence of severe droughts. These prevail sometimes for 2, 3, or even 4 years together. The last "great drought" began in 1826, and did not terminate till 1829. Very little rain fell during the whole of this lengthened period, and for more than 6 months there was not a single shower! In consequence, the whole surface of the ground was so parched and withered, that all minor vegetation ceased; and even culinary vegetables were raised with much difficulty. It well nigh ruined many of the settlers; nor is the colony as yet quite recovered from its effects.—(*Breton's Excursions in New South Wales*, p. 266.; *Sturt's Southern Australia*, vol. i. p. 2.) There was, also, a pretty severe drought in 1835. This is, in fact, the great drawback upon the colony; and were it more populous, the droughts would expose it to still more serious difficulties.

Soil, Products, &c.—The fertility of the soil in most parts of New Holland that have been explored with any care is very far, indeed, from corresponding with the glowing descriptions of some of its casual visitors, whose imaginations seem to have been dazzled by the magnificence of its botanical productions, and the clearness and beauty of the climate. The truth is, that the bad land seems to bear a much greater proportion to the good in New Holland, than in almost any other country with which we are acquainted. Different theories have been framed to account for the fact; but of the fact itself there seems no manner of doubt. Of course, it is not to be supposed but that in a country of such vast extent there must be some fertile districts; but along the east coast, with which we are best acquainted, these seem to be much more confined than might have been expected; and the little experience we have had on the west side, at Swan River and other places, does not seem to lead to any more favourable conclusions. It is true that only a comparatively small part of the interior has as yet been explored; and it is not improbable that in the hitherto undiscovered regions of this vast continent, land suitable for tillage may be found. At present, however, it would appear that the soil and climate, not of New South Wales only, but of New Holland generally, are much better fitted for pastoral than for agricultural pursuits. The colony is mainly indebted for the introduction of the sheep farming system to the example and exertions of John Macarthur, Esq. Its success has exceeded the expectations of the most sanguine. The growth and exports of wool have increased with a rapidity hitherto unexampled in the history of industry. In 1822, only 159,880lbs. of wool were exported; in 1825, the exports amounted to 411,600 lbs.; in 1830, to 899,750 lbs.; and in 1835, to no fewer than 3,273,353 lbs.; being an increase of about 800 per cent. in the interval between 1825 and 1835! And considering the attention that is now universally paid to the improvement of the breed of sheep, the efforts made by the colonists to increase their numbers, and the all but boundless extent of pasture land over which they may be diffused, it is impossible to conjecture to what extent the production of wool may be carried. Under these circumstances, we need not wonder that some of the best informed individuals belonging to the colony are of opinion that the inhabitants would equally

ensure their security and their profit, were they to devote their entire attention to their flocks, fisheries, and commerce, depending for supplies of corn, flour, &c., on the imports from America, Madagascar, India, the Philippine Islands, Van Diemen's land, &c.

Imports and Exports.—The trade of Sydney, in 1832, 1834, and 1835, has been as under :—

		Great Britain.	British Colonies.	Foreign States and Fisheries.	Totals.
		£.	£.	£.	£.
Imports	1832	434,289	61,280	218,401	713,973
	1834	606,263	194,370	197,727	991,960
	1835	519,508	67,244	97,849	684,581
Exports	1834	466,738	125,911	56,491	647,640
	1835	Gross amount of imports	—	exports	1,099,488
			—		679,574

In the above sum of 991,960*l.*, being the imports for 1834, is included the sum of 194,370*l.*, the value of whale and other oil brought into the colony; but this being almost wholly the produce of the industry of the colonies, ought certainly to be excluded from the imports, the real amount of which, in 1834, will, consequently, be 797,590*l.* The value of the imports in 1835, when corrected in the same way, may be taken at about 680,000*l.* The excess of the imports over the exports is a consequence of the expense incurred by this country on account of the convict establishments. In 1833-34 this item amounted, for New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, to 971,916.

We subjoin a return of the quantities of the principal articles imported into Sydney from the 1st of January to the 31st of December, 1834.

Biscuits	pairs	18,111	Hardware	*L.* val.	38,471	Rum	gals.	276,512
Beef and pork	gals.	286,756	Hats and caps	—	12,622	Brandy	—	51,546
Bread and flour	lbs.	545,999	Hops	lbs.	125,561	Gin	—	40,798
Canvas and bagging	yds.	262,018	Hosiery	*L.* val.	14,941	Sugar	lbs.	7,485,781
Coals and staves	tons	2,459	Iron and steel	tons	1,179	Tea	—	7,0,945
Coffee and cocoa	lbs.	23,199	Lead	lbs.	164,977	Tobacco	—	286,286
Copper	—	118,578	Linen	yds.	288,350	Wheat	bush.	15,589
Cordage	—	288,966	Rice	lbs.	407,680	Wine	gals.	221,467
Cottons	yds.	1,647,889	Salt provisions	—	5,147,159	Woollens	yds.	305,795
Gunpowder	lbs.	94,180	Salt	tons	2,450			
Haberdashery	*L.* val.	44,942	Silk	yds.	20,988			

The principal articles and their value exported in 1833, 1834, and 1835 were—

Articles.	1833.		1834.		1835 *	
	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.	Quantities.	Values.
		£.		£.		£.
Wool	1,784,908 lbs.	104,147	2,246,930 lbs.	217,981	2,278 859 lbs.	204,698
Oil, viz. sea	787,443 gals.	184,884	969,312 gals.	196 021	753,928 gals.	151,739
sperm	108,034 —	7,575	162,532 —	15,514	872,304 —	18,367
black	647 cwts.	2,146	1,080 cwts.	6,120		
whalebone						
Timber, viz.	1,096,497 feet	13,189	989 490 feet	7,541		
cedar	147,170 —		50,065 —			
blue gum	3,23,503 —		42,467 —			
ironbark	4,930 cwts.	5,811	7,890 cwts.	5,549		
Flax (New Zealand)						

Arrivals.—In 1834, 245 ships, of the burden of 57,402 tons, entered Port Jackson; of these 58 ships, tonnage 20,906, were from Great Britain, 112 ships, tonnage 23,720, from British colonies, and 75 ships, tonnage 15,896, from foreign states. In 1835 there arrived 208 ships, of the burden of 3,989 tons.

Fishery.—The fishery is said not to have been profitable for some time past. This is ascribed partly to the heavy expenses attending the outfit of a vessel at Sydney, where labour is dear, and capital may as probably be invested at a high interest; and partly to the increasing scarcity of the fish, and the consequent greater difficulty of the catch.

We are unable to decide as to the exact degree of weight that should be given to this statement. Probably it is a little exaggerated; though, on the whole, we are inclined to think that it has some considerable foundation in fact.—(*Carmichael's Hints on Emigration*, p. 27. Sydney edition.)

The trade carried on between New South Wales and New Zealand is daily becoming of more and more importance. The imports of flax from the latter into this country are now, as we have already seen, of considerable value and importance.

Colonial Income.—We subjoin an account of the revenue of New South Wales for the 7 years ending with 1835.

Revenue of New South Wales, from the 1st of January, 1829, to the 31st of December, 1835.

Head of Revenue.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Customs	79,136 8 8	81,078 15 1	89,905 4 1	96,282 3 4	111,124 13 2	127,566 11 2	145,352 13 9
Duty on spirits distilled in the colony	228 15 0	710 7 6	1,135 0 0	1,007 0 0	1,350 5 0	1,690 7 0	1,267 10 0
Post-office collections	1,324 15 7	1,769 14 9½	2,163 0 2	2,574 3 2	2,968 10 11	3,725 2 0	4,310 15 9
Auction duty, and licenses to auctioneers	1,276 7 1½	1,462 18 8½	1,899 7 4½	1,455 15 10½	1,588 2 9	2,566 6 10	3,219 16 2
Licenses to retail malt and spirituous liquors	3,725 0 0	5,100 0 0	6,550 0 0	7,786 0 0	9,124 10 0	9,977 10 0	10,023 0 0
Licenses to hawkers and pedlers						45 0 0	14 0 0
Crown lands	2,309 10 0	1,985 19 11½	3,617 17 5	15,683 6 1	36,372 2 9	43,482 3 9	89,380 9 4
Rents of tolls, ferries, and market dues and governm. out premises	3,231 12 9½	4,138 0 7	4,806 18 6	5,267 3 1	5,271 12 9	5,577 15 8	4,131 18 10
Fees of public offices	6,625 9 9½	6,481 19 4	7,055 13 1½	5,856 3 6	6,099 9 11	5,194 9 5	7,400 5 3
Fines levied by courts of justice	726 12 6	758 8 1	760 15 5½	74 10 8	190 6 5	690 0 7½	1,462 7 4
Proceeds of the sales of government property	2,221 14 5	501 6 1½	1,699 16 3½	2,155 15 7½	1,497 2 4	875 13 0	631 17 9
Collection by the agent of the clergy and school estates						1,199 13 7	4,712 1 4
Fire rents						253 17 9	268 11 9
Miscellaneous	998 10 3	776 14 8½	2,172 2 6	796 3 4½	688 10 0	976 19 11	3,549 12 8
Totals	102,784 16 2	104,729 4 1½	121,965 14 11	136,909 15 6½	164,089 5 10	205,535 10 2½	273,744 13 10

It is seen from this statement that the revenue of the colony is rapidly increasing; and were it not for the heavy expenses necessarily incurred on account of the conveyance and superintendence of convicts, it would be more than adequate to meet the outgoings.

* The returns for 1835 have not been derived from the Custom House, and may not, therefore, be quite accurate; but the error must be inconsiderable.

Consumption of Spirits.—We need not be surprised, considering how the population is made up, that drunkenness should be rather prevalent in New South Wales, and the consumption of spirits proportionally great. In 1835 there were entered for consumption in the colony as follows: viz., rum 234,783 proof gallons, brandy 30,433 do., gin 16,267 do., other foreign and British spirits 1,205 do., and spirits produced in the colony, 8,460 do., making in all 291,138 gallons; which, taking the population at 80,000, gives an average annual supply of 3 5-6th gallons to each individual. It has been proposed to lessen this consumption by increasing the customs duties on imported spirits, and prohibiting distillation in the colony. But the former are already high; and it is all but certain that their further increase, and the prohibition of home distillation, would give rise to an extensive smuggling trade, and be injurious to the revenue without being in other respects of any material service.

Monies, Weights, and Measures.—Accounts are kept in sterling money; but Spanish dollars are most abundant. They pass current at 5s. each. The weights and measures are the same as those of England.

Rates of Agency, Commission, and Warehouse Rent, agreed to at a Meeting of the New South Wales Chamber of Commerce, 1828.

Commission.

1. On all sales or purchases of ships and other vessels, houses, or lands, where no advance on them has been made, 2 1-2 per cent.
   On all other sales, purchases, or shipments, 5 per cent.
   On goods consigned and afterwards withdrawn, or sent to public auction, if no advance on them has been made, 2 1-4 per cent
2. On giving orders for the provision of goods, 2 1-2 per cent.
3. On guaranteeing sales, bills, bonds, or other engagements, 2 1-2 per cent.
4. On the management of estates for others, 5 per cent.
5. On procuring freight or charter, and on freight collected, 5 per cent.
6. On insurances effected, 1-2 per cent.
7. On settling losses, partial or general, 1 per cent.
8. On effecting remittances, or purchasing, selling, or negotiating bills of exchange, 1 per cent.
9. On the recovery of money, 2 1 2 per cent. If by law or arbitration, 5 per cent.
10. On collecting house rent, 5 per cent.
11. On attending the delivery of contract goods, 2 per cent.
12. On becoming security for contracts, 5 per cent.
13. On ships' disbursements, 5 per cent.
14. On obtaining money on respondentia, 2 per cent.
15. On letters of credit granted, 2 1-2 per cent.
16. On purchasing, selling, receiving from any of the public offices, lodging in ditto, delivering up or exchanging government paper or other public securities, 1-2 per cent.
17. On all items on the debit or credit side of an account, on which a commission of 5 per cent. has not been previously charged in the same account, including government paper, 1 per cent.
18. On entering and clearing ships at the Custom house, each, 1 guinea.
19. On the dishonour of foreign bills, exclusive of protest and other law expenses, a re-exchange of 2s per cent.

Warehouse Rent.

On all measurement goods, 1s. per ton of 40 cubic feet, per week.
On liquids, 1s. 1d. per tun of 252 gallons (old measure) per week.
On sugar, rice, salt, and similar articles, 6d. per ton per week.
On grain, 4d. per bushel for first month, and 1-2d. per bushel per month afterwards.
On iron, lead, &c., 4d. per ton per week.

Duties levied at Sydney under Acts of Parliament.

Articles upon which levied.	Present Duties levied.	Articles upon which levied.	Present Duties levied.
Spirits made or distilled from grain the produce of the colony	8s. per gallon.	Spirits, of the plantations in N. America, imported direct from the U. K.	10s. 2 6/10 d. per gal.
Ditto from sugar and molasses	10s. 2 1-2d. per do.	All other spirits	10s. 2 1-2d. per do.
Spirits, the produce and manufacture of the U. K., or of the plantations in the W. Indies, imported direct from the U. K.	7s. 9 6/10 d.	Tobacco imported unmanufactured	1s. 6d. per lb.
		Ditto manufactured, and snuff	8s. per do.
		Foreign goods imported	5 per cent. ad val.

Shipping Charges in Port Jackson, &c.

Pilotage Rates, payable to licensed pilots on ships and vessels from and to a distance of 2 leagues out to sea. Into and out of any port or harbour in New South Wales, for which a pilot shall be appointed; vessels registered in Sydney, not exceeding 50 tons, or while employed in the coasting trade from one part of New South Wales to another, and steam vessels, while so employed, excepted, unless the assistance of a pilot be required and received.

For every vessel drawing	L. s. d.	For every vessel drawing	L. s. d.	For every vessel drawing	L. s. d.
7 feet or under	4 0 0	13 feet and under 14 feet	6 10 0	19 feet and under 20 feet	9 10 0
8 — and under 9 feet	4 5 0	14 — — 15 —	7 0 0	20 — — 21 —	10 0 0
9 — — 10 —	4 10 0	15 — — 16 —	7 10 0	21 — — 22 —	11 0 0
10 — — 11 —	5 0 0	16 — — 17 —	8 0 0	22 — — 23 —	12 0 0
11 — — 12 —	5 10 0	17 — — 18 —	8 10 0	And so on, 1l. for every additional foot.	
12 — — 13 —	6 0 0	18 — — 19 —	9 0 0		

Harbour Dues and Charges, payable to the harbour master for repairing on board and appointing the place of anchorage of ships and vessels entering any port or harbour in New South Wales; or for the removal of the same from one place of anchorage or mooring to another, not being for the purpose of leaving the port; vessels registered in Sydney, under 50 tons, or while employed in the coasting trade from one port of New South Wales to another, excepted.

For every vessel under	L. s. d.	For every vessel of	L. s. d.	For every vessel of	L. s. d.
100 tons	0 5 0	200 tons and under 300 tons	0 15 0	400 tons and under 500 tons	1 5 0
160 — and under 200 tons	0 10 0	300 — — 400 —	1 0 0	500 — and upwards	1 10 0

Customs Charges payable to the collector or other officer of customs, for the entry inwards, or clearance outwards, of ships and vessels at any port or harbour of New South Wales, where an officer of customs is stationed; vessels under 50 tons, registered in Sydney, excepted; viz.

	Entry. L. s. d.	Clearance. L. s. d.
For every steam vessel employed in the coasting trade, from one port of New South Wales to another	0 1 8	0 1 8
For every vessel registered in Sydney, and so employed, if above 50 and not exceeding 100 tons	0 4 0	0 4 0
For every vessel so employed, if above 100 tons	0 10 0	0 10 0
For every other ship or vessel	0 15 0	0 15 0

Light-house Dues, payable to the collector of customs, Sydney, on ships and vessels above 50 tons, arriving at Port Jackson, towards the maintenance of the light-house at the entrance thereof; viz.

	L. s. d.
On every ship or vessel above 50 and not exceeding 100 tons, employed in the coasting trade from one port of New South Wales to another	0 2 0
On every steam vessel, the ton register measurement	0 0 1-4
On every other ship or vessel, the ton register measurement	0 0 1

Wharfage Rates, payable to the collector of customs, on articles landed at the King's Wharf, Sydney:—

For every	L. s. d.
Ton or butt	0 2 0
Pipe or puncheon	0 1 0
Hogshead	0 0 9
Barrel	0 0 6
Cask or keg of smaller size	0 0 3
Crate, cask, or case of hardware, earthenware, or ironmongery	0 0 6
Bale, case, or box, not exceeding 1-2 ton measurement	0 0 6
Ditto, exceeding 1-2 ton	0 1 0
Chest of tea	0 0 3
1-2 chest or box of tea	0 0 1 1-2
Bag of sugar	0 0 1 1-2
Bag of coffee	0 0 1 1-2
Package of rice	0 0 1 1-2
Basket of tobacco	0 0 3
Bag of hops	0 1 0
Pocket of hops	0 0 6
Bushel of grain	0 0 1
Dozen of oars	0 0 3
100 deals	0 2 6
6 staves	0 1 0
Dozen of spades and shovels	0 1 0
Ton of iron, steel, lead, or other metal, including shot	0 2 6
Ton of salt	0 1 6
Ton of flax	0 1 0
Ton of cordage	0 2 6
Ton of potatoes	0 1 6
Bottle of paint, oil, or turpentine	0 0 2
Millstone	0 2 0
Four-wheeled carriage	0 5 0
Two-wheeled carriage	0 3 0
Small package, not otherwise enumerated	0 0 3
Ton of heavy goods, not otherwise enumerated	0 2 6

Postage of Single Letters from Sydney.

	d.
To Parramatta	4
Emu Plains (Penrith)	7
Windsor	7
Liverpool	5
Campbell Town	7
Newcastle	4
Port Macquarie	4
Bathurst	9
And at corresponding rates from other places.	

Double and treble letters to be charged proportionably to the aforesaid rates. Letters the weight of an ounce to be charged 4 times the rate of postage of a single letter.

Newspapers printed in New South Wales or Van Diemen's Land, 1d. each.

Letters from and to New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land to pay a sea postage of 8d., and all other *Ship Letters* a sea postage of 4d., in addition to the inland postage payable thereon.

Parcels of Newspapers, printed Prices Current, or other periodical Publications, exported or imported, to be charged a sea postage at the rate of 1d. for every 4 ounces of their weight.

Auction Duty.

For each and every 100l. arising from the sale by auction of any estate, goods, or effects whatsoever, 1l. 10s.

Licences.

	L. s.
Auctioneers, annually	3 0
Beer and spirits, to retail, do.	25 0
Distilling, do.	25 0
Hawkers, do.	10 0
Carts	1 0

Emigration to New South Wales holds out several advantages to the industrious emigrant, which, however, are partially at least, if they be not wholly, countervailed by sundry disadvantages. There is at all times a pretty brisk demand for additional labour; wages, though not extravagant, are high; provisions, except in years of drought, are moderately cheap; and above all, the climate is mild, healthy, and suitable for European constitutions. The great drawbacks are,—the immense distance from Europe, and the consequent cost of the voyage; the general inferiority and high price of the land; the frequent recurrence of droughts; and the large amount of convict population.—The greater mildness and salubrity of the climate appears to be the principal, or rather perhaps the only recommendation, in favour of emigrating to Australia rather than to Canada or the United States. Whether, however, this be a sufficient counterpoise to the peculiar disadvantages attending it, is a point which we do not presume to decide, but which deserves the most serious consideration from intending emigrants. It seems to be the unanimous opinion of every one acquainted with the colony, and entitled to be heard upon such a subject, that, "*in every case, emigrants of every sort will find it for their interest to come out married.*"—(*Carmichael's Tract*, Sydney edit. p. 57.)

Expense of the Voyage.—This, of course, differs, at different periods; but, speaking generally, it may be estimated, inclusive of provisions, at about 16*l.* for adults, and 8*l.* for children. This is about three times the cost of the voyage to Quebec; the expense of conveying an adult to the latter not generally exceeding 5*l.*, and children in proportion.

Wages.—It is always very difficult to obtain authentic information as to the state of wages in any country, but especially in a colony. The owners of lands in the colonies, and the shipowners engaged in the trade with them, being generally interested in the promotion of emigration, endeavour to set its advantages, of which high wages are probably one of the greatest, in the most striking point of view. The accounts of wages furnished by such persons being consequently liable to suspicion, we have endeavoured, when we had occasion to allude to such subjects, to supply our readers with statements derived from official or other sources less liable to be biassed. Even these, however, have not always proved so accurate as could have been wished. In the former impressions of this work we inserted in this place an account of the rates of wages at Sydney embodied in an official paper issued from the Colonial Office, in July, 1831, by the commissioners for facilitating emigration. But we regret to say that the apparently well-founded confidence we had in it has turned out to be not a little misplaced. The Rev. Henry Carmichael, one of the Professors in the Australian College, Sydney, has shown in his valuable tract, already referred to, entitled *Hints to Emigrants to New South Wales*, that the commissioners had been deceived by erroneous information, and that the statements they put forth were "calculated very seriously to mislead," and that, in point of fact, they did mislead, very many individuals, who, on arriving at Sydney, found the wages far below what they had been led to expect.

A committee, consisting of the most intelligent mechanics at Sydney, drew up, in 1833, a report on the eligibility of New South Wales as a place of resort for emigrant mechanics, in which, among other things, they declare that the account of the rate of wages published by the Emigration Commissioners, "is extravagant and ridiculous." "Common labourers," they say, "do not earn more than 6*s.* to 7*s.* per week, with rations and lodgings; mechanics out of doors do not average more than 15*l.* to 20*l.* per annum, with rations, &c.; mechanics of the highest qualifications, in Sydney, do not average more than 2*l.* per week the year round. Agricultural labourers, capable of managing a farm in the capacity of bailiff, not more than 15*l.* to 20*l.* per annum, with rations, and but to live in; all persons of higher grades and similar occupations cannot get more than 40*l.* to 60*l.* per annum and rations."

In corroboration of the accuracy of these statements, Mr. Carmichael gives the substance of a letter from William M'Pherson, Esq., collector of internal revenue, and secretary of the Emigrants' Friend Society, dated the 18th of June, 1832.

"Good mechanics," says he, "can earn, in Sydney, from 30*s.* to 6*l.* per week, without board or lodging; and in the country from 2*l.* to 3*l.* per annum, with house and rations."[a]

"Common labourers in Sydney obtain about 14*s.* per week, without board or lodging; and in the country, about 12*l.* per annum, with board (or rather hut) and rations."[b]

"Wages given to farm servants vary with their qualifications; 50*l.* a-year, with a house and rations, may be considered the highest sum given to overseers of a superior description, and 20*l.* to 25*l.* to those of humbler pretensions.

"Their being married or single makes, in general, no difference in the rate of wages, unless where the females are expected to perform any domestic duties; but rations are usually given to the wife and children of a married overseer as well as to himself."[c]

"Good ploughmen, or shepherds, obtain from 15*l.* to 20*l.* with a horse and rations.

"Wages of domestic servants are—

Of a single man	•	•	from *L.* 12 to *L.* 20
Of a single woman	•	•	— 8 • 16
Of a married couple	•	•	— 30 • 50

"N.B.—A married pair of emigrants may easily find a small house, containing 2 apartments, to accommodate them on their arrival, at a weekly rent of from 7*s.* to 10*s.*; and an unmarried man may lodge and board for 10*s.* 6*d.* per week."—(*Carmichael's Tract*, pp. 50, 51. Sydney ed.)

Mr. Carmichael gives in the 2d edition of his tract, published at Sydney, in January, 1836, the following details as to the descriptions of workmen that were then most in demand in the colony with the wages they were accustomed to earn:—

Axe-hafters, 6*s.* to 8*s.* per day.—See Shipwrights.

Bricklayers, 6*s.* to 10*s.* per thousand for making.—Good workmen will always find employment.

Bricklayers, 6*s.* to 7*s.* per day.—Ditto, ditto.

Blacksmiths, 30*s.* to 42*s.* per week.—Good workmen in demand.

Brewers, Maltsters, 3*s.* to 4*s.* per day.—Brewers are increasing. Common labourers employed.

Chimney-sweepers, *printed Prices Current*, and *other periodical Publications*, exempt.

Clothes, *Necessaries*, imported, to be charged a sum at the rate of 1*d.* for every 4 lbs. of their weight.

Coachmakers, 25*s.* to 30*s.* per week.—Market glutted at present.

Coal-heavers, 5*s.* to 6*s.* per day.—Work usually done by shipwrights.

Coopers, 7*s.* to 8*s.* per day.—Employment uncertain. Yet the mining trade is good, and consequently ought to promise employment for coopers.

Compositors, 35*s.* to 36*s.* per week.—A few steady men wanted to supplant drunkards.

Cabinet makers and Upholsterers, 8*s.* to 7*s.* per day.—Not at present in demand except as carpenters.

Cooks, 5*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* per week; and rations.—Men usually employed. Careful servants of this description, of sober and steady habits, wanted.

Coppersmiths, 30*s.* to 40*s.* per week.—Good workmen would find employment.

Dairy Women, 10*l.* to 15*l.* per annum, lodging and rations.—In extreme demand.

Engineers, 24*s.* to 42*s.* per week, and rations.—The class of men here meant are properly engine-men and blacksmiths. In the wages here specified no allowance is made for over time.

Farriers.—No regular wages. See blacksmiths.

Fencers, 20*s.* to 40*s.* per week.—The labourers here meant are employed in making post-and-rail fences, which are usually paid by piece-work, at the rate of from 2*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* per rod.

Field Labourers, 8*s.* per day, or 5*s.* per week, and rations.—All kinds of field labourers in demand.

Gardeners, 15*l.* to 40*l.* per annum, and rations. See vine-dressers.

Glaziers, 5*s.* 6*d.* to 6*s.* 6*d* per day.—Although much glazing is done in the colony, the division of labour is not extensive enough to encourage any glazier to emigrate as a separate tradesman.

Harness makers, 5*s.* per day.—Principally supplied by importation. Yet harness-making may be expected in the course of time to be strictly colonial, and therefore to employ many hands.

Joiners, 5*s.* 6*d.* to 6*s.* 6*d.* per day.—Good workmen in demand.

Iron-founders, 24*s.* to 40*s.* per week.—Good workmen would find employment.

Locksmiths, 5*s.* to 7*s.* per day.—A few good general workmen would find employment.

Millwrights, 5*s.* to 8*s.* per day.—The sort of hands wanted are men who have been accustomed to fit up wooden gear.

Milkmen, 10*l.* to 15*l.* per annum, and rations.—All kinds of husbandry men in demand.

Nailers, 40*s.* per week, and upwards.—Good workmen sure to find employment. Nails have been imported largely of late.

Parchment-makers; sheep-skins 1*d.* to 2*d.* each.—In the course of time, parchment is likely to be manufactured for exportation. At present, there is at least one parchment-maker in Sydney; two could not support themselves by their trade.

Plasterers, 42*s.* per week.—In demand. An excellent trade.

Ploughmen, 10*l.* to 15*l.* per annum, lodging and rations.—All agricultural labourers, shepherds, sheep-shearers, &c. may be so raised.

Plumbers, 6*s.* to 7*s.* per day.—One or two might find employment.

Potters, raised as labouring men.—An extensive manufactory of coarse earthenware is just established, capable of supplying the wants of the colony. One or two good hands might find employment.

Printers and pressmen, 25*s.* to 30*s.* per week.—Sober steady men needed to supplant drunkards.

Quarrymen, 4*s.* to 6*s.* per day.—Always find employment.

Saddlers, 4*s.* to 6*s.* per day.—Chiefly supplied by importation. See harness makers.

Sawyers, 6*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* per 100 feet.—Good workmen in great request.

Shipwrights, 7*s.* to 8*s.* per day.—Plenty of employment for good workmen.

Shoemakers, 5*s.* to 7*s.* per day.—In considerable demand. A good trade. Most work on their own hook. Some earn 10*s.* per day.

Sailors, 50*s.* to 60*s.* per month.—Always in demand.

Smiths, 5*s.* 6*d.* to 7*s.* per day.—Good workmen will find employment.

Stone-masons, Stone setters, } 4*s.* 6*d.* to 7*s.* per day.—In great demand.

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[a] "The rations allowed to free labourers may be rated per week as follows, viz.—

	Lbs.	oz.		*Lbs.*	oz.
Flour • •	10	0	Tobacco • •	0	2
Beef and mutton	10	0	Salt • •	0	2
Tea } •	0	2	Soap • •	0	3
Sugar } † •	1	0	Milk † • •	7	quarts

† This latter (the milk), being given in lieu of tea and sugar. So that labourers, if well-behaved and industrious, are sure to raise themselves above the station which they occupy at home."

Tailors, 6s. to 7s per day.—In demand. Piece-work one-third higher than in England.

Turners.—A few might work profitably on their own account.

Vine dressers, 70l. to 40l. or upwards per annum, according to qualifications.—Gardeners always in demand. The vine begins to be extensively cultivated, and proper and skilful vine-dressers are likely to find encouragement.

Wheelwrights, 5s. to 6s. per day, or 18l. to 20l. per annum, and rations.—General workmen always find employment.

The above embraces all those departments of mechanical and common labour for which there is at present any adequate demand in the colony.

Prices.—A knowledge of the prices of the principal articles of subsistence is as necessary to enable any one to form a correct estimate of the advantages likely to be realised by emigrating, as a knowledge of the wages of labour. Provisions at Sydney are, generally speaking, cheap except in seasons of drought; but as these are unfortunately of frequent recurrence, the labourer is exposed to considerable vicissitudes. We give below an account of the average prices of the principal articles of provision at Sydney during the alternate months of 1835. It must, however, be remembered that that was a season of rather severe drought, which has a powerful influence over prices. In ordinary seasons, butcher's meat, at Sydney, does not exceed from 1*d.* to 2*d.* per lb., and bread (loaf of 4 lbs.) 5*d.*

The prices of the principal articles of provision in the market of Sydney, in January, 1839, a plentiful season, were as follows:—

Articles.	Prices.	Articles.	Prices.
	L. s. d. — *L. s. d.*		*L. s. d.* — *L. s. d.*
Beef, per lb. per quarter	0 0 1½ to 0 0 2	Goose	0 4 0 to 0 6 0
Do. joint, per lb.	0 0 2½ — 0 0 3	Fresh butter, per lb.	0 1 0 — 0 1 3
Veal do.	0 0 5 — 0 0 0	Salt do. do.	0 0 8 — 0 1 0
Mutton, do.	0 0 2½ — 0 0 3	Cheese	0 0 4 — 0 0 8
Do. carcase	0 0 1½ — 0 0 2	Wheat, per bushel	0 3 4 — 0 4 0
Pork, joint	0 0 4½ — 0 0 5	Maize	0 3 6 — 0 4 0
Do. carcase	0 0 2½ — 0 0 3	Barley	0 2 3 — 0 3 0
Couple of fowls	0 1 6 — 0 2 3	Oats	0 2 3 — 0 2 9
Do. of ducks	0 2 6 — 0 4 0	Hay, per ton, from English seed	6 0 0 — 8 0 0
Turkey	0 6 0 — 0 6 2	Do. do. colonial	4 0 0 — 5 0 0

Rations for Convicts.—The weekly rations of the convicts are 12 lbs. of wheat, or 9 lbs. of flour, or 8 1/2 lbs. of maize and 9 lbs. of wheat, or 7 lbs. of 3d flour; 7 lbs. of beef or mutton, or 4 1-2 lbs. of salt pork; 2 oz. of salt; 2 oz. of soap.

The clothing to which they are entitled consists of 2 frocks or jackets; 3 pair of shoes, of stout and durable leather; 3 shirts; 2 pair of trowsers; 1 hat or cap.

Insurance.—Different joint stock insurance companies have been established at Sydney, for the insurance of ships, houses, and lives. The Australian Marine Insurance Company divided 15 per cent. nett profit for the year ending 31st December, 1835. The customary premium on vessels engaged in the whale fishery, is from 8 to 10 guineas for 12 months, or from 8 to 14 guineas for the voyage.

Banking would seem to be one of the most profitable modes in which capital can be invested in New South Wales. Four joint stock banking companies were carrying on business at Sydney in December, 1835. Of these, the bank of New South Wales, established in 1816, is the most ancient. All of them issue notes payable on demand; and their profits vary from 15 to 23 per cent. on the paid up capital. They allow from 4 to 5 per cent. interest on deposits. Subjoined is a state of the affairs of the Bank of New South Wales on the 31st December, 1835:—

Debtor.	*L. s. d.*	Creditor.	*L. s. d.*
Capital paid up	83,920 0 0	Coin and bullion	53,159 6 5
Notes out	31,209 0 0	Bills	188,146 6 7
Deposits	122,008 2 2	Mortgage	3,296 2 3
Profit	8,350 0 0	Charges	350 0 0
Unclaimed div.	214 12 6		
Total	245,601 15 2	Total	245,601 15 2

Dividend 10 1-2 per cent. for the half year, being 21 per cent. per annum.

Average Prices of the undermentioned Articles of Market Produce at Sydney during the Year 1835.

Articles.	January.	March.	May.	July.	September.	November.	December.
	s. d. — *s. d.*	*s. d.* — *s. d.*	*s. d.* — *s. d.*	*s. d.* — *s. d.*	*s. d.* — *s. d.*	*s. d.* — *s. d.*	*s. d.* — *s. d.*
Wheat per bush.	5 10 to 6 0	5 9 to 6 0	9 0 to 9 0	9 0 to 9 0	14 to 0 0	8 0 to 0 0	8 6 to 0 0
Maize —	3 0 - 3 6	3 0 - 3 6	4 6 - 5 6	4 9 - 5 6	6 9 - 10 0	7 4 - 7 8	7 8 - 0 0
Barley —	3 6 - 4 6	3 6 - 4 0	3 0 - 4 0	3 6 - 4 3	4 9 - 5 6	4 8 - 4 0	4 0 - 4 6
Potatoes per cwt.	8 0 - 9 0	9 0 - 10 0	11 0 - 16 0	10 0 - 13 0	10 0 - 14 0	16 0 - 20 0	10 0 - 14 0
Butter (fresh) per lb.	1 5 - 1 8	1 4 - 1 6	1 5 - 1 10	2 0 - 2 6	2 8 - 2 10	2 6 - 3 0	2 6 - 0 0
Do. (salt) —	1 0 - 0 0	1 0 - 1 2	1 4 - 0 0	1 0 - 1 8	2 0 - 2 8	1 10 - 2 8	1 10 - 2 3
Cheese —	0 6 - 0 0	0 6 - 0 0	0 5 - 0 0	0 6 - 0 0	0 6 - 0 0	8 0 - 9 0	0 8 - 0 0
Bread 4 lb. loaf	0 7½ - 0 0	0 7 - 0 0	0 9 - 0 0	0 10 - 0 11	1 3 - 1 7	0 11 - 0 0	0 11 - 0 0
Beef (joints) per lb.	0 2½ - 0 3	0 2 - 0 3½	0 3½ - 0 0	0 3½ - 0 0	0 6 - 0 0	0 6 - 0 6½	0 4½ - 0 5
Mutton do. —	0 3 - 0 4	0 3 - 0 4½	0 4½ - 0 0	0 4½ - 0 0	0 6 - 0 0	0 6 - 0 6½	0 4½ - 0 5
Veal do. —	0 6 - 0 0	0 5 - 0 6½	0 6 - 0 0	0 6 - 0 0	0 6 - 0 0	0 8 - 0 0	0 8 - 0 0
Pork do. —	0 6 - 0 0	0 6 - 0 0	0 6½ - 0 0	0 6 - 0 0	0 6 - 0 0	0 8 - 0 0	0 8 - 0 8
Hay per cwt.	8 6 - 10 0	8 6 - 10 0	7 0 - 8 0	7 0 - 11 0	15 - 20	13 0 - 14 0	12 - 13 0
Straw per load	15 0 - 18 0	15 0 - 18 0	16 0 - 19 0	16 0 - 18 0	20 0 - 25 0	25 0 - 30 0	24 0 - 29 0
Geese each	3 6 - 4 0	3 6 - 4 0	3 6 - 5 0	3 9 - 5 0	4 0 - 5 0	5 3 - 5 8	4 0 - 5 0
Ducks —	2 0 - 0 0	2 0 - 0 0	1 4 - 1 8	1 6 - 2 0	1 9 - 2 3	2 6 - 3 0	2 9 - 0 0
Fowls —	1 6 - 2 0	1 6 - 2 0	1 0 - 1 8	1 3 - 0 0	1 6 - 1 9	2 3 - 2 6	2 3 - 0 0
Turkeys —	3 6 - 4 0	3 6 - 4 0	4 0 - 5 6	4 0 - 5 3	6 - 7 0	6 9 - 7 6	6 6 - 8 3
Eggs per doz.	1 0 - 1 2	1 0 - 1 2	1 9 - 2 3	1 10 - 2 6	1 0 - 1 6	1 6 - 2 0	2 0 - 2 3
Tea per lb.	2 0 - 0 0	2 0 - 0 0	2 0 - 0 0	2 0 - 0 0	2 0 - 0 0	2 3 - 0 0	2 0 - 0 0
Coffee —	2 0 - 0 0	2 0 - 0 0	2 0 - 0 0	2 0 - 0 0	1 10 - 0 0	2 0 - 0 0	1 10 - 0 0
Sugar (soft) —	0 3 - 0 3½	0 3 - 0 3½	0 3 - 0 3	0 3½ - 0 0	0 3 - 0 0	0 3 - 0 0	0 3 - 0 0
Soap (colonial) —	0 4 - 0 0	0 4 - 0 0	0 4 - 0 0	0 5 - 0 0	0 8 - 0 0	0 9 - 0 0	0 8 - 0 0
Candles do. mould do.	0 8 - 0 0	0 8 - 0 0	0 8 - 0 0	0 9 - 0 0	0 10 - 1 0	0 9 - 0 0	0 8 - 0 0

Granting of Land in Australia.—We have previously given (vol. i. p. 437.) a copy of the terms on which lands are now granted to emigrants to New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land. They are not very explicit. All land is to be sold by auction; the *minimum* or upset price is to be 5*s.* an acre; and government has a *discretionary power* of fixing a higher minimum price on superior lots, and of declining to sell them till that price be obtained. Even were there nothing to object to the *principle* of this plan, if any thing so very vague deserve that name, in its practical operation it can hardly fail to generate every species of abuse. The local government, having the power of limiting the quantity of land to be put up to auction, has it completely in its power to fix its price; for it may either increase the quantity of land so that it shall fetch no more than the upset price, or it may limit it so that it shall fetch any greater sum. Such auctions must in reality be a mere farce; it is not possible that they can be conducted on a fair principle. The price must, in every instance, really depend on the pleasure of the sellers, and not on the competition of the buyers. Supposing the local authorities to be uniformly actuated by the sincerest desire to deal fairly by every one, by what test are they to discover the probable number of offerers at different periods, the amount of their funds, and the intensity of their desire to purchase? And yet,

without knowing all these things, they cannot decide upon the quantity of land to be put up, so as to have any thing like a fair [illegible]. And supposing them to be influenced by the partialities and weaknesses incident to humanity, how easy, when they wish to oblige, will it be for them to increase the number of [illegible] put up, and conversely! Even when the regulations are *bonâ fide* carried into effect, the delay that compliance with them necessarily involves is found to be exceedingly injurious. According to the rule originally laid down by government, all parcels of land desired to be put up to sale were to be advertised for *three* months previously to the sale taking place. The period for advertising has now, however, been reduced to *one* month; but, notwithstanding this judicious abbreviation, the delays that have still to be undergone before completing a purchase are loudly and justly complained of. An emigrant, on arriving at New South Wales, has to fix his family at Sydney, where lodgings and living are usually very high. He has then to make inquiries as to the best place for fixing himself; and having at length succeeded in finding a location which he thinks suitable to his views, he applies to have it put up to auction. But here he has most likely to encounter new difficulties. Almost all the land in the vicinity of the settled districts is either occupied on payment of a small rent to government, under leases which determine the moment it is purchased, or by trespass, that is, by *squatting*, or forcible possession. Both classes of occupiers are in general very unwilling to quit; so that the chances are, that, when the sale comes on, the emigrant, unless he retire a great distance into the wilderness, will have powerful competitors to contend with, and may not be able to conclude a purchase; and should such be the case, he has nothing for it but to begin his operations anew! On the whole, we have been assured by undoubted authority that about *five* months may be taken as a fair average of the period that must elapse before an emigrant arriving in New South Wales can complete the purchase of a parcel of land from government; and as he has to keep his family all the while at Sydney, his means are either greatly narrowed or wholly exhausted; so that it not unfrequently happens that the small capitalist, who left England in the expectation of becoming a proprietor and wool-grower in New South Wales, finds himself, about a year after, a pauper in the town of Sydney! Hence it is that the existing regulations, the high price demanded for land, and the difficulty of getting a location, have put an almost total stop to the immigration of the most valuable class of persons; that is, of small capitalists. They are by no means so unfavourable to speculators, and persons of large capital; and the former and paupers now constitute the principal part of the free emigrants to the colony.

To obviate the chance of abuse, and the practical difficulties now stated, the better way, as it appears to us, would be to get a *large tract* of country surveyed, and divided into lots, and to fix prices on these according to the estimate formed of their various advantages, assigning them in absolute property to the *first applicant* ready to pay down the price and to conform to the regulations as to occupancy, &c. To prevent persons on the spot monopolising the best lands, it might be enacted that no more than a certain number of acres should be assigned to one individual, and that under the condition of residence or occupancy.

We confess, however, that we entertain serious doubts as to the soundness of the principle involved in this plan, even supposing it could be fairly and easily carried into effect; and these doubts have not been in any degree lessened by the extravagant eulogies lavished upon it. It would seem, indeed, to be supposed that all the evils incident to colonisation have resulted from the settlers getting land on too easy terms; and that all that was required for the establishment of a colony on the best possible foundation, was, to sell its land at a high price; in other words, to make it as like an old country as possible! It says little for the public discernment, that opinions of this sort should have obtained any currency. We concede, indeed, that nothing can be more injurious to a colony than the making of large grants of land to individuals who either do not intend to settle upon them, or are unable to clear and bring any considerable portion of them into cultivation. But because such inconveniences have resulted from the injudicious granting of land, it does not, therefore, follow that it should be sold at a high price, or even at any price at all. In making grants of land, regard ought to be always had to the means and the intentions of the grantee; that is, the grant should depend partly on the probable amount of his available capital, and partly on the purposes to which he means to apply it. And it might be properly enough stipulated, that if, at the end of some fixed period, certain improvements were not made, buildings erected, &c., it should revert to the Crown. But the more we reflect on the subject, the greater are our doubts as to the policy of exacting any price for land, particularly in such a country as New South Wales. Considering the very inferior quality of most of the land in that colony, 5*s.* an acre seems quite extravagant as a minimum price; and, instead of being made the lowest point in the scale, it should rather have been made the highest. At all events, if an upset price of 5*s.* an acre be not a great deal above the mark in New Holland, it must be a great deal below it in Upper Canada. It would not really be more absurd to set about establishing a uniform rate by which to regulate the sale of land in Essex and the Hebrides, than it is to apply the same scale to all our colonial possessions. We have already seen that an emigrant may be conveyed to Quebec for 5*l.*, while it costs 16*l.* to convey him to Sydney; and

supposing an emigrant's family to consist, servants included, of *seven* grown up persons, h
would save 77*l.* on the mere expenses of the voyage by going to Canada rather than to Ne
South Wales! It does appear to us that government should pay some regard to this ci
cumstance in fixing the price of land in Australia. In our view of the matter, it would b
both just and expedient to allow all emigrants to Australia who made purchases of land,
deduction from its price equivalent to the sum which the passage out costs them over an
above what it would have cost them to go to America. This would be a great relief to smal
capitalists; and, even with this regulation, the balance would still incline, in the opinion o
most persons, very much in favour of Canada.

But, however modified, the principle of the measure is, we apprehend, radically bad. I
the Americans exacted the same price for their public lands that we do, something might b
found to say in favour of extending the principle to Canada. They, however, do nothing o
the sort; but sell much better land at a decidedly lower price. Hence, if this preposterou
scheme do not discourage emigration, it will assuredly turn the tide from our own colonie
to the United States. And though it had no such effect, it would still be highly objection
able; inasmuch as it cripples the resources of the colonist at the very moment when the
are most indispensable, and deprives him of funds which he would have laid out better than
it is easy to suppose, they can be laid out by government. The mode of letting land b
fine, that is, by the receipt of a large sum of money on the tenant's entry to a farm,—th
rent during the currency of the lease being proportionally small,—has been severely cen
sured by all the best agricultural writers; and for the very sufficient reason, that it deprive
the tenant, on entering into his farm, of the greater part of his capital, and disables him fro
undertaking any considerable improvements at the very time it is most essential he shoul
set about making them. And yet we are loudly called upon to do the same thing by th
settlers in a new colony,—who, for the most part, emigrate only because they have little o
no capital,—that is so justly condemned at home. This precious project has actually been
trumpeted forth as a signal discovery that was to be productive of the very greatest utility
and a society has been formed to promote colonisation, on the avowed principle of rendering
it much more difficult than it has ever hitherto been for a colonist in the lower walks of lif
to acquire land and become independent! If slaves could be imported into a colony of thi
sort, there might be some chance of its succeeding. But while land of the *very best quality*
may be had in the valley of the Mississippi for about a dollar an acre, or less, we think bet
ter of the common sense of our countrymen, than to suppose that any one able to carry him
self across the Atlantic will resort to Australia under the auspices of any company of the sor
now alluded to.

In compiling this article we have made use of the *Report of Mr. Bigge on the Agriculture and Trad
of New South Wales*, being *Parl. Paper*, No. 136. Sess. 1823; *Report of Commissioners of Inquiry*, Parl.
Paper, No. 328. Sess. 1831; *Papers laid before the Finance Committee*; the excellent *New South Wale
Calendar and Directory for* 1830; the works of *Messrs. Sturt, Breton*, and others; the tract of Mr.
Carmichael, &c.; but we are indebted for by far the most interesting portion of our information to
exceedingly valuable private communications from the colony.

SYRA, the ancient Syeros, one of the islands of the Greek Archipelago, in the group
called the Northern Cyclades. It is from 7 to 8 miles long, and 4 broad. Though rugged,
it is tolerably well cultivated, and produces corn, wine, cotton, olives, figs, &c. The popu-
lation, in 1830, is set down by Mr. Urquhart at 4,500; but we have been assured that it is,
at present, little if at all short of 7,000. Pherycides, one of the most celebrated of the ancient
Greek philosophers, the disciple of Pittacus, and the master of Pythagoras, was a native of
this island.

The port is on the east side of the island, in lat. 37° 26′ 30″ N., lon. 24° 55′ E. It afford
excellent anchorage for vessels of light draught, and is capable of accommodating a few even
of the largest ships. In consequence partly of the advantages it enjoys through the pos-
session of its port, but more of its central situation, Syra has recently become a considerable
commercial *entrepôt*; and has attracted a good deal of the carrying trade that formerly cen-
tered at Smyrna, Constantinople, &c.

A few miles to the east of Syra, lies Delos. This island, regarded in antiquity with peculiar vene-
ration, from its being the birthplace of Apollo and Diana, is no less celebrated in the commercial than
in the religious history of ancient Greece. Its sacred character, by insuring its immunity from hostile
attacks, and its central situation, made it a favourite mart for the products of the states of Greece,
Asia Minor, Phœnicia, Egypt, &c. Religion, pleasure, and trade had all their votaries at its festivals;
which were famous throughout the ancient world for the splendour of the rites and processions, and
the magnitude of the business transacted. It were too much to expect that Syra should ever attain
to equal importance, even as an *entrepôt*. But as she enjoys most of those advantages of position that
contributed to render Delos one of the principal emporiums of antiquity, it may be hoped, now that
there is a reasonable prospect of good order and freedom being again established in Greece, that she
may also acquire some commercial celebrity. It may be worth while mentioning, as strikingly evinc-
ing the mutability of human affairs, that, at present, both the great and the little Delos are uninha-
bited. And Tournefort states, that the inhabitants of Mycone were, in the early part of last century,
in the habit of holding the greater Delos for the purposes of pasturage, paying to the Grand Seignior a
rent of 20 crowns a year for that famous island!—(*Tournefort, Voyage du Levant*, 4to ed. tome i. pp.
290—325. There is a good account of the religious rites celebrated at Delos, though but a very indiffer-
ent one of its commerce, in the *Travels of Anacharsis*.)

T.

TACAMAHAC, a resin obtained from the *Fagara octandra*; and likewise, it is supposed, from the *Populus balsamifera*. It is imported from America in large oblong masses wrapt in flag leaves. It is of a light brown colour, very brittle, and easily melted when heated. When pure, it has an aromatic smell, between that of lavender and musk; and dissolves completely in alcohol, water having no action upon it.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

TAGANROG, a city of European Russia, on the north coast of the Sea of Azof, near the mouth of the river Don, lat. 47° 12′ 40″ N., lon. 38° 39′ E. Population from 7,000 to 8,000. It has a naval hospital, a lazaretto, &c.; and there are annual fairs in May, August, and November. Taganrog is a place of considerable commercial importance. It owes this distinction to its situation, which makes it the emporium of the extensive countries traversed by the Don (the ancient *Tanais*), one of the principal European rivers; and which, there is reason to think, will at no very distant period be connected with the Wolga, and consequently with the Caspian Sea, by the completion of the canal projected by Peter the Great. Civilisation is in a very backward state in these regions; but it is making a constant, though not a very rapid progress; and as it proceeds, Taganrog will necessarily rise in importance. The principal exports are grain, particularly wheat, of which large quantities are sometimes shipped; iron and hardware from Tula; with cordage, linen and sail-cloth, copper, tallow, leather, furs, wax, ashes, caviar, isinglass, &c. The imports are comparatively trifling, and consist principally of wine, oil, fruit, drysalteries, cotton and woollen goods, dye stuffs, tobacco, sugar, coffee, &c. By far the largest part of the trade is carried on with Constantinople, Smyrna, and other Turkish ports; but a good deal is also carried on with the different Italian ports. We subjoin an

Official Account of the principal Articles imported into and exported from Taganrog, in 1830 and 1832.

Imports.				Exports.			
Articles.	1830.	1832.		Articles.	1830.	1832.	
Cochineal . . .	poods	. .	3	Copper . . .	poods	1,141	2,913
Coffee . . .	—	526	7	Cordage . . .	—	19,101	122,345
Cotton goods . . .	val. rou.	. .	1,223	Flax . . .	—	27	. .
Drysalteries . . .	—	. .	66,057	Grain, wheat . . .	chetwrs.	437,508	868,041
Fish . . .	—	. .	1,197	rye . . .	—	770	1,050
Fruit . . .	—	. .	1,068,159	oats . . .	—	6,730	183
Lead . . .	poods	322	. .	barley . . .	—	1,593	3,440
Logwood . . .	—	. .	4	Hemp . . .	poods	. .	9
Olive oil . . .	—	26,250	23,980	Hides, dressed . . .	—	1,456	810
Precious stones . . .	val. rou.	. .	200	Iron . . .	—	176,912	5,612
Sugar . . .	poods	2,707	5,998	Leather, dressed . . .	val. rou.	132	960
Tobacco . . .	—	22	236	undressed . . .	poods	2,714	9,512
Wine . . .	hhds.	. .	12,698	Linseed . . .	chetwrs.	4	4,588
Champagne . . .	bottles	. .	1,127	Oil, hemp and linseed . . .	poods	164	457
				Potashes . . .	—	139	1,587
				Tallow . . .	—	1,022	5,165
				Timber, deals, &c. . . .	val. rou.	90	421
				Sail-cloth . . .	pieces	1,441	2,676
				Raven-ducks . . .	—	2,067	2,060
				Wax . . .	poods	606	2,985

Total estimated value of imports in 1830, 2,581,153 roubles; ditto of exports, 11,011,616 roubles; so that the exports exceed the imports by the sum of 8,430,463 roubles.

Arrivals and Departures of Ships in 1830 and 1832.

Arrived.	1830.	1832.	Sailed.	1830.	1832.
From	*Ships.*	*Ships.*	To	*Ships.*	*Ships.*
Austria . . .	5	2	Austria . . .	1	3
Ionian Islands . . .	1	. .	France . . .	2	21
Italian States . . .	7	19	Greece . . .	2	10
Malta . . .	. .	1	Ionian Islands . . .	6	6
Russian ports . . .	. .	1	Italian States . . .	26	103
Turkey . . .	400	294	Malta . . .	3	5
			Russian ports . . .	1	. .
Total . . .	413	317	Turkey . . .	367	176
			Total . . .	408	324

The Turkish vessels are generally of but small burden.

Moneys, Weights, and *Measures,* same as those of PETERSBURGH; which see.

Sea of Azof.—The navigation of this sea, the *Palus Mœotis* of antiquity, is impeded by numerous shoals, and can neither be entered nor safely navigated by vessels drawing more than 11 or 12 feet water. Its greatest depth in the middle is about 7 fathoms; but it shoals gradually to the sides, and at Taganrog there is only from 9 to 10 feet water. Its depth is, however, materially affected by the direction and strength of the winds. The only entrance to this sea is by the Straits of Yenikalé, the *Bosphorus Cimmerius* of the ancients, a narrow and difficult passage, having in some places not more than 13 feet water. Owing to the great quantity of fresh water poured into the Sea of Azof, and its limited magnitude, its water is brackish merely. It is unnavigable from November to April, during the greater part of which time it is generally frozen over.—(*Norie's Sailing Directions for the Mediterranean and Black Seas; Annuaire du Commerce Maritime* for 1833, p. 161. &c.) We avail ourselves of this opportunity to lay before our readers the following details with respect to the

TRADE, ETC. OF THE CASPIAN SEA.

Quantity and Value of the Articles imported from Foreign Ports into the Russian Ports of the Caspian, in 1831.

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.	Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
	Poods.	Roubles.		Poods.	Roubles.
Rice		26,875	Madder	16,168	466,452
Fish and caviar		25,641	Dry-saltories		56,254
Fruit		84,263	Isinglass		36,711
Tobacco, spices, and sundry provisions		15,200	Cotton goods		945,491
Medicinal drugs		2,154	Silk goods		191,344
Raw cotton	15,246	165,368	Woollen goods, shawls, girdles, &c.		27,316
Cotton twist	1,227	224,163	Furs		74,287
Raw silk	5,930	1,471,790	Sundries		23,681
Twisted silk	94	5,763	Total		3,913,241

Account of the Quantity and Value of the Articles exported from Russian Ports on the Caspian, to Foreign Ports on ditto, in 1831.

Articles.	Quantities.	Value.	Articles.	Quantities.	Value.
		Roubles.			Roubles.
Brandies, and other spirits . vedros	3,181	24,727	Hempen and flaxen goods		40,035
Salt . . . . poods	43,400	39,900	Cotton goods		718,626
Sugar in loaves and candied	2,447	76,718	Silk goods		27,775
Tea . . . . —	260	48,911	Woollens		7,946
Spices, fruit, butter, flour, and other provisions		192,560	Russian cloth . . archeens	11,376	32,091
Drugs and dry-saltories		165,984	Writing paper		12,870
Copper . . . . poods	10,116	210,650	Tallow candles . . poods	2,436	10,910
Iron . . . . —	138,594	548,582	Gold and silver articles		21,345
Other metals		48,700	Hardware		126,262
Tanned leather (yuefts) . skins	69,700	98,700	Earthenware		38,234
Leather manufactured goods		63,705	Trunks and cordovan		26,811
Raw hides . . . skins	770	4,160	Looking glasses		7,113
Colouring materials		121,434	Wooden ware		5,985
Cotton twist . . . poods	130	5,700	Sundry manufactures		28,125
Raw silk . . . . —	882	126,280	Furs		41,925
Feathers, wax, teeth, isinglass, &c.		12,121	Sundries		1,760
Linens		25,388	Total		2,771,100

Shipping.—Arrivals at, and Departures from, the Russian Ports of the Caspian, in 1831.

Arrived.				Departed.			
At what Port.	Number of Ships.	Tonnage.	From what Place.	From what Port.	Number of Ships.	Tonnage.	To what Place.
Astrakhan	18	4,198	From Russian ports	Astrakhan	24	9,150	To Russian ports
Baku	22			Baku	24		
Astrakhan	23	6,918	From Persian ports	Astrakhan	15	3,544	To Persian ports
Baku	23			Baku	26		
Astrakhan	10	1,440	From Mangishlak	Astrakhan	18	1,756	To Mangishlak
Total	179	12,550		Total	191	14,450	

N. B.—Of the vessels here described, only 1 Persian arrived, and 1 ditto departed, of burden unknown.

Magnitude of the Caspian Sea. Ports, &c.—The Caspian Sea, or rather lake (the *Mare Hyrcanum* of the ancients), extends lengthwise from N. to S. about 740 miles, varying in breadth from 112 to 275 miles. In some parts, particularly on the southern shores, it is so very deep that a line of 450 fathoms will not reach the bottom; whereas, in the northern parts, and opposite to the mouths of the Wolga, it is comparatively shallow; and owing to the frequent occurrence of shoals, it is not safely navigated by vessels drawing more than 10 or 12 feet water. Its level had been variously estimated by Olivier and Lowitz, at from 64 to 53 feet below that of the Black Sea; but according to the recent observations of M. Humboldt, the difference of level between them is no less than 300 feet! We confess, however, that we are not without our doubts as to the perfect accuracy of this statement; and would not have been inclined to attach much weight to it had it proceeded from any inferior authority. The water of the Caspian is not salt, but brackish merely; it has no tides, but gales of wind raise a very heavy sea. It is extremely prolific of fish and seals. The value of the sturgeon caught in the Russian fisheries amounts to a very large sum. (See STURGEON FISHERY.) They proceed in shoals up the rivers, where they are captured without the least apparent diminution of their numbers. The salmon is remarkably fine; and herrings are in such abundance, that, after a storm, the shores of the Persian provinces of Ghilan and Mazunderan are nearly covered with them.—(*Kinnier's Memoir of the Persian Empire*, p. 6.; *Memoir on the Caspian Sea, in Malte-Brun's Geography; Humboldt, Fragmens de Geologie, &c.*)

Astrakhan is situated on an island of the Wolga, more than 50 miles from the mouth of that river; and owing to the extensive command of internal navigation it possesses, it is a place of very considerable commercial importance. Baku, acquired by the Russians in 1801, is, however, the best port on the western side of the Caspian. It is situated on the southern shore of a peninsula that projects far into the sea, in lat. 40° 22′ N., lon. 51° 10′ E. The harbour is spacious and convenient; and its central and advanced position gives it superior advantages as a trading station. Prodigious quantities of naphtha are procured in the vicinity of Baku. It is drawn from wells, some of which yield from 1,000 to 1,500 lbs. a day. It is used as a substitute for lamp oil; and when ignited emits a clear light, with much smoke

and a disagreeable smell. Large quantities are exported in skins to the Persian and Tartar ports on the south and east shores of the sea.

Vessels.—The largest class of vessels by which the Caspian Sea is navigated are called by the Russians *schuyts*, and belong wholly to Astrakhan and Baku; their burden varies from 90 to 150, and, in some instances, 200 tons. They are not built on any scientific principle, and are constructed of the worst materials, that is, of the timber of the barks that bring grain down the Wolga to Astrakhan. There are supposed to be, in all, about 100 sail of these vessels. There is a second class of vessels employed in the trade of the Caspian, called *rasshivas*. They carry from 70 to 140 tons, and sail better than the schuyts. Their number is estimated at about 50. Exclusive of the above, there are great numbers of small craft employed in the coasting trade, in the rivers, in the fisheries, and in acting as lighters to the schuyts. Steam boats have been introduced upon the Wolga; and one has been launched on the Caspian itself. The masters and crews of the vessels employed on this sea are, for the most part, as ignorant as can well be imagined. They are generally quite incapable of making an observation, or of keeping a reckoning; so that accidents frequently occur, that might be avoided by the most ordinary acquaintance with the principles of navigation.—(These statements are made, partly upon official, and partly upon private authority; the latter may, however, be safely relied on.)

The trade of this great sea is entirely in the hands of the Russians; by whom it is carried on from the ports of Astrakhan and Baku, with the Persian ports of Astrabad, Balfroosh, &c. on the south; and with the Tartar ports of Mangishlak, Balkan, &c. on the east. It is very insignificant, compared with what it ought to be. On the whole, however, a gradual improvement is taking place; and whatever objections may, on other grounds, be made to the encroachments of Russia in this quarter, there can be no manner of doubt that, by introducing comparative security and good order into the countries under her authority, she has materially improved their condition, and accelerated their progress to a more advanced state.

Account of the Value of the Foreign Trade of the Port of Baku, on the Caspian Sea, during the Eight Years ending with 1831.

Articles.	1824.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.
	Roubles.	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*	*Roubles*	*Roubles.*	*Roubles.*
Imports.								
Raw silk	267,680	445,097	190,823	915,056	1,019,521	776,742	893,761	776,548
cotton	26,230	10,970	2,960	12,827	118,558	93,490	103,029	48,397
Cotton twist	32,894	24,825	1,900	57,916	199,895	91,478	8,735	7,063
goods	551,477	547,816	554,615	1,259,495	1,754,164	908,673	675,693	530,697
Silk goods	54,832	39,492	56,100	191,383	148,546	123,590	99,309	99,303
Earth, girdles, and other woollens	2,780	15,696	7,697	11,248	24,915	42,315	68,282	7,210
Drugs, tobacco, fish, fruit, indigo, &c.	104,981	75,061	59,486	297,760	460,866	208,052	117,436	248,963
Total value of Imports - Rou.	1,090,879	1,160,957	841,969	2,755,784	3,687,967	2,184,668	2,000,315	1,702,460
Exports.								
Rubbia	300,740	238,707	111,890	274,980	362,965	457,242	(no particulars.)	
Salt	125,840	2,970	970	25,695	47,540	66,170	6,560	33,960
Indigo	506,975	270,980	8,250	526,970	466,057	91,379	(no particulars.)	
Drugs, gold thread, spices, writing paper, furs, &c.	89,678	128,890	108,520	268,204	276,220	442,988	(no particulars.)	
Total value of exports - Rou.	1,023,233	646,547	229,730	1,345,849	752,742	1,047,173	266,527	506,016

TALC, a species of fossil nearly allied to mica. It is soft, smooth, greasy to the feel, and may be split into fine plates or leaves, which are flexible, but not elastic. It has a greenish, whitish, or silver-like lustre. The leaves are transparent, and are used in many parts of India and China, as they were used in ancient Rome—(*Plin. Hist. Nat.* lib. xxxvi. c. 22.)—in windows instead of glass. In Bengal, a seer of talc costs about 2 rupees, and will sometimes yield a dozen panes 12 inches by 9, or 10 by 10, according to the form of the mass, transparent enough to allow ordinary subjects to be seen at 20 or 30 yards' distance. It should be chosen of a beautiful pearl colour; but it has, in general, either a yellowish or faint blue tinge. Its pure translucent flakes are frequently used by the Indians, for ornamenting the baubles employed in their ceremonies. Talc is employed in the composition of *rouge végétal*. The Romans prepared with it a beautiful blue, by combining it with the colouring fluid of particular kinds of testaceous animals. Talc is met with in Aberdeenshire, Perthshire, and Banffshire in Scotland; and in various parts of the Continent, where rocks of serpentine and porphyry occur. The talc brought from the Tyrolese mountains is called in commerce Venetian talc. Several varieties are found in India and Ceylon.—(*Thomson's Chemistry; Rees's Cyclopædia; Milburn's Orient. Com.; Ainslie's Mat. Indica.*)

TALLOW (Fr. *Suif*; Ger. *Talg*; It. *Sevo, Sego*; Rus. *Salo, toplenoe*; Sp. *Sebo*), animal fat melted and separated from the fibrous matter mixed with it. Its quality depends partly on the animal from which it has been prepared; but more, perhaps, on the care taken in its purification. It is firm, brittle, and has a peculiar heavy odour. When pure, it is white, tasteless, and nearly insipid; but the tallow of commerce has usually a yellowish tinge; and is divided, according to the degree of its purity and consistence, into candle and soap tallow.

Tallow is an article of great importance. It is manufactured into candles and soap; and

be extensively used in the dressing of leather, and in various processes of the arts. Besides our extensive supplies of native tallow, we annually import a very large quantity, principally from Russia. The exports of tallow from Petersburgh amount, at an average, to between 3,500,000 and 4,000,000 poods, of which the largest portion by far is brought to England; the remainder being exported to Prussia, France, the Hanse Towns, Turkey, &c.

We borrow from the work of Mr. Borrisow, on the Commerce of Petersburgh, the following details with respect to the tallow trade of that city:—

Tallow is divided into different sorts; namely, white and yellow *candle tallow*, and common and Siberian *soap tallow*; although it is allowed that the same sort often differs in quality.

Tallow is brought to Petersburgh from the interior; and the best soap tallow from Siberia, by various rivers, to the lake Ladoga; and thence, by the canal of Schlusselburg, to the Neva.

An *ambare*, or warehouse, is appropriated to the reception of tallow, where, on its arrival, it is selected and assorted (*bracked*). The casks are then marked with three circular stamps, which state the quality of the tallow, the period of selecting, and the name of the selector (*bracker*).

The casks in which white tallow is brought have a singular appearance; their form being conical, and their diameter at one end about 2½ feet, and at the other only 1½ foot: the casks of yellow tallow are of the common shape. There are also others, denominated ¼ casks.

To calculate the tare, the tallow is removed from a certain number of casks, which are weighed, and an average tare is thence deduced for the whole lot. A cask weighs 8½, 9, 10, or 11 per cent., but the average is generally about 10 per cent. of the entire weight of tallow and cask.

Yellow candle tallow, when good, should be clean, dry, hard when broken, and of a fine yellow colour throughout. The white candle tallow, when good, is white, brittle, hard, dry, and clean. The best white tallow is brought from Woronesch. As for soap tallow, the more greasy and yellow it is, the better the quality. That from Siberia is the purest, and commonly fetches a higher price than the other sorts.

Formerly the oil and tallow warehouses were the same; and this occasioned great difficulties in shipping, because all vessels or lighters taking in tallow or oil were obliged to haul down to the *ambare*, and wait in rotation for their cargoes. The consequence was, that when much business was doing, a vessel was often detained for several weeks at the *ambare* before she could get her cargo on board. Now the tallow and oil warehouses are separated, and every article has its own place. When a shipment of tallow is made, the agent is furnished by the selector (*bracker*) with a sample from each cask.

Captains, in order to obtain more freight, usually load some casks of tallow upon deck; but it is more for the interest of the owner to avoid this if possible, because the tallow loses, through the heat of the sun, considerably both in weight and quality.

One hundred and twenty poods of tallow, gross weight, make a Petersburgh last, and 63 poods an English ton.

Of 1,177,908 cwt. of tallow imported in 1829, 1,164,180 came from Russia, 6,143 from the United States, 2,799 from Turkey, 1,992 from France, and 1,626 from Sweden.

We subjoin an official account of the export of tallow from Russia in 1832.

Exports of Tallow from Russia in 1832.

From	Poods.	To	Poods.	To	Poods.
Petersburgh	3,717,426	Sweden	11,801	Austria	13,722
Riga	54,016	Prussia	300,352	Turkey	194,006
Archangel	96,220	Denmark	2,521	America	7,744
Odessa	291,172	Elsineur*	11,778	Caspian Sea	53
Taganrog	5,165	Hanse Towns	51,074	Asia	45
Radzivilof	12,500	Holland	41,038	Georgia	25
Astrakhan	47	Great Britain	3,500,547	Sundry	5,355
Sundry	25,583	France	57,776	Total	4,205,919
		Spain, Portugal, and Italy	3		
Total	4,205,919				

The exports of tallow from Petersburgh, in 1833, amounted to above 4,100,000 poods (see *antè*, p. 392.), being the largest quantity ever shipped in 1 year. The shipments to Great Britain were about 3,000,000 poods. Supposing the tallow to have been worth, when delivered to the shipper, 35*l.* a ton, its total value will have been 2,306,150*l.*! This statement shows the great importance of this trade.

The price of tallow fluctuated very much during the war. This was occasioned, principally, by the obstacles that were at different periods thrown in the way of supplies from Russia. The price of tallow is also affected by the state of the seasons. Some very extensive speculations have at various periods been attempted in tallow; but seldom, it is believed, with much advantage to the parties.

Account of the Price of Tallow in the London Market, in the Month of January each Year, from 1813.

Years.	Yellow Soap.	Petersburgh.	Years.	Yellow Soap.	Petersburgh.
	s. d. s. d.	s. d. s. d.		s. d. s. d.	s. d. s. d.
1813	88 0 to 90 0	80 0 to 0 0	1824	31 0 to 32 0	34 0 to 0 0
1814	98 0 — 100 0	94 0 — 96 0	1825	None.	37 0 — 0 0
1815	89 0 — 0 0	83 0 — 0 0	1826	—	35 0 — 35 3
1816	89 0 — 0 0	85 0 — 0 0	1827	36 6 to 0 0	37 0 — 0 0
1817	84 0 — 84 6	82 0 — 0 0	1828	37 9 — 38 0	37 6 — 0 0
1818	77 0 — 78 0	74 0 — 75 0	1829	30 9 — 0 0	32 6 — 32 0
1819	78 0 — 0 0	74 0 — 0 0	1830	34 0 — 0 0	35 3 — 0 0
1820	55 0 — 56 0	51 0 — 52 0	1831	45 9 — 0 0	46 9 — 0 0
1821	51 6 — 0 0	47 0 — 0 0	1832	46 0 — 0 0	
1822	44 0 — 0 0	39 0 — 0 0	1833	47 6 — 0 0	
1823	37 0 — 37 6	33 0 — 0 0			

The following is a statement of the prices per cwt. of foreign and British tallow in the London market on the 24th of March, 1834:—

	s. d. s. d.
Petersburgh &c. duty (3s. 2d.) paid, cwt.	44 0 to 44 3
Delivery first 3 months, 1834	43 6 — 43 9
Free on board, 1833, ton	37l. 10s.—37l. 15s.
Soap, cwt.	41 6 — 0 0
Odessa	0 0 — 0 0
Siberia	42 6 — 0 0
Petersburgh on board, ton	37l. 10s. — 0 0

	Market	Lotter	Committee.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
Town tallow, cwt.	46 0 to 0 0	46 0	
Russian candle	45 6 — 0 0	46 0	
Melted stuff	31 0 — 0 0	31 6	
Rough ditto	31 0 — 0 0	31 0	
Whitechapel Market, stone,	2 8 — 0 0	0 0	
St. James's ditto	2 8 — 0 0	0 0	
Average	2 8 — 0 0	2 8	

* The ships, receive, at Elsineur, orders for their ultimate destination, and most of them are for Great Britain.

TALLY TRADE, the name given to a system of dealing carried on in London and other large towns, by which shopkeepers furnish certain articles on credit to their customers, the latter agreeing to pay the stipulated price by certain weekly or monthly instalments.

In the metropolis there are about 60 or 70 tally-shops of note; and from 500 to 600 on a smaller scale. They are also spread over the country to a considerable extent, particularly in the manufacturing districts. The customers of the tally-shops are mostly women; consisting, principally, of the wives of labourers, mechanics, porters, &c., servant girls, and females of loose character. Few only of the more respectable classes have been infatuated enough to resort to them. Drapery goods, wearing apparel, coals, household furniture, hardware, &c. are furnished; and even funerals are performed; but few or no articles of food, except tea, are sold upon the tally plan.

We believe that this is the very worst mode in which credit is afforded. The facility which it gives of obtaining an article when wanted, and the notion so apt to be entertained that the weekly or monthly instalments may be paid without difficulty, makes those who resort to the tally-shops overlook the exorbitant price, and usual bad quality, of the articles they obtain from them; and generate habits of improvidence that seldom fail to involve the parties in irretrievable ruin. It is not going too far to say that nine tenths of the articles supplied by tally-shops might be dispensed with. As already observed, women are the principal customers; and it is not easy to exaggerate the mischief that has been entailed on the families of many industrious labourers by their wives having got entangled with tally-shops. They buy goods without the knowledge of their husbands; and these are not unfrequently pawned, and the proceeds spent in gin. So destructive, indeed, is the operation of the system, that the establishment of a tally-shop in any district is almost certain to occasion an increase in the paupers belonging to it. Even the unmarried females who do not pay are demoralised and ruined by the system; because, if a woman who buys three gowns, pays for the 2 first, and runs away from the payment of the last, she gains nothing *in point of sowing*, while she becomes indifferent to an act of dishonesty. As tally debts can only be collected whilst a supply of goods is kept up, as soon as that supply is stopped, the debtor either flies to another district, or awaits a summons. Where the wife has contracted the debt, she usually appears before the commissioners, who in general order the debt to be paid by weekly or monthly instalments. But it often occurs, from the wife not being able to keep up such payments, that execution issues, and the poor husband is frequently arrested and lodged in prison for a debt, of the existence of which he was entirely ignorant. In this way, numbers of the working classes are completely ruined; they lose their employment, and themselves and families are reduced to beggary. The intelligent keeper of Whitecross-street prison (Mr. Barrett) states, that from 150 to 200 persons are annually imprisoned there for tally-shop debts, in sums from 10*s.* to 5*l.*, and that in one year 30 prisoners were at the suit of one tally-shop alone! Such imprisonments, however, are now much decreased, in consequence, as is believed, of the Court of Requests discouraging the tally system, by ordering claims of *this* kind to be paid by *extremely small* instalments, and these at *very distant* intervals; and also in consequence of no composition being allowed by the charities for the relief of poor prisoners with reference to such debts.

It is estimated that in London alone about 850,000*l.*, or nearly 1,000,000*l.* sterling is annually returned in this trade. From his large profits (generally from 25 to 40 per cent.), it is obvious that in a few transactions the tally-shop keeper becomes independent of the existing debt; and with capital and good management, it is said that some have realised considerable sums of money in this business.

According to the custom of the trade, Mondays, Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Thursdays, are the days set apart for collecting money from the customers. The tally-man sends round his collector through the different "walks," and the amount of a collection, which keeps the collector engaged from morning till night, even in a good tally concern, seldom exceeds 4*l.* a day. The payments are invariably made in *shillings* and *sixpences*—but the people seldom or never pay at the tally-shops; they rarely call there unless something else is wanted. The tally-shop keeper trusts one party on the recommendation of another; but guarantees are never required—certainly no *written* guarantees; and a verbal guarantee is, according to Lord Tenterden's act, not binding. It is part of the collector's business, besides getting money, to beat up for fresh customers in his walk.

The greater number of the small tally concerns are kept by Scotchmen; it is a curious fact, that when a "Tally-walk" is to be sold, which is often the case, a Scotchman's walk will bring 15 per cent. more than an Englishman's! It is believed to contain a better description of customers.

From the causes above mentioned, assisted, perhaps, by the salutary influence of Savings' Banks, this obnoxious trade is understood to be rather on the wane. It will never, however, be completely rooted out, except by adopting the plan we have previously suggested—(see CREDIT,)—for placing all small debts beyond the pale of the law; and the fact, that the adoption of this plan would have so beneficial a result, is an additional and powerful recommendation in its favour. In cases where failures take place, the creditors of a tally shop

keeper are in general *terrified* into the acceptance of a small composition. The very sight of the tally Ledgers, from 10 to 20 in number, containing debts from 5*s.* to 5*l.*, dotted over the pages, like a small pattern on a piece of printed cotton, and spread over every district in and round London, determines the creditors to accept of any offer, however small, rather than encounter the collection of such disreputable assets. In an affair of this kind recently concluded, where the business was under the management of a respectable accountant in the city, the whole debts due to the concern, good, bad, and doubtful, amounted to 9,700*l.*, while the number of debtors was 7,600! giving an average of 22*s.* 10*d.* each.

N. B.—This article has been compiled wholly from *private*, but *authentic, information.*

TAMARINDS (Ger. *Tamarinden*; Fr. *Tamarins*; It. and Sp. *Tamarindo*; Arab. *Umblie*; Hind. *Tintiri*), the fruit of the *Tamarindus Indica*, a tree which grows in the East and West Indies, in Arabia, and Egypt. In the West Indies the pods or fruit, being gathered when ripe, and freed from the shelly fragments, are placed in layers in a cask, and boiling syrup poured over them, till the cask be filled: the syrup pervades every part quite down to the bottom; and when cool, the cask is headed for sale. The East India tamarinds are darker coloured and drier, and are said to be preserved without sugar. When good, tamarinds are free from any degree of mustiness; the seeds are hard, flat, and clean; the strings tough and entire; and a clean knife thrust into them does not receive any coating of copper. They should be preserved in closely covered jars.—(*Thomson's Dispensatory.*) The duty on tamarinds produced, in 1832, 788*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.*

TAPIOCA, a species of starch or powder prepared from the roots of the *Jatropha manihot*, an American plant. The roots are peeled, and subjected to pressure in a kind of bag made of rushes. The juice which is forced out is a deadly poison, and is employed by the Indians to poison their arrows; but it deposits gradually a white starch, which, when properly washed, is innocent. What remains in the bag consists chiefly of the same starch. It is dried in smoke, and afterwards passed through a kind of sieve. Of this substance the cassava bread is made.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

TAR (Fr. *Goudron*; Ger. *Theer*; It. *Catrame*; Pol. *Smola gesta*; Ras. *Degot, Smola shitkaja*; Sw. *Tjära*), a thick, black, unctuous substance, chiefly obtained from the pine, and other turpentine trees, by burning them in a close smothering heat.

The tar of the north of Europe is very superior to that of the United States, and is an article of great commercial importance. The process followed in making it has been described as follows by Dr. Clarke:—"The inlets of the gulf (Bothnia) every where appeared of the grandest character; surrounded by noble forests, whose tall trees, flourishing luxuriantly, covered the soil quite down to the water's edge. From the most southern parts of Westro-Bothnia, to the northern extremity of the gulf, the inhabitants are occupied in the manufacture of tar; proofs of which are visible in the whole extent of the coast. The process by which the tar is obtained is very simple: and as we often witnessed it, we shall now describe it, from a tar-work we halted to inspect upon the spot. The situation most favourable to the process is in a forest near to a marsh or bog; because the roots of the fir, from which tar is principally extracted, are always most productive in such places. A conical cavity is then made in the ground (generally in the side of a bank or sloping hill); and the roots of the fir, together with logs and billets of the same, being neatly trussed in a stack of the same conical shape, are let into this cavity. The whole is then covered with turf, to prevent the volatile parts from being dissipated, which, by means of a heavy wooden mallet, and a wooden stamper worked separately by two men, is beaten down and rendered as firm as possible above the wood. The stack of billets is then kindled, and a slow combustion of the fir takes place, without flame, as in making charcoal. During this combustion the tar exudes; and a cast iron pan being at the bottom of the funnel, with a spout which projects through the side of the bank, barrels are placed beneath this spout to collect the fluid as it comes away. As fast as the barrels are filled, they are bunged, and ready for immediate exportation. From this description it will be evident that the mode of obtaining tar is by a kind of distillation *per descensum*; the turpentine, melted by fire, mixing with the sap and juices of the fir, while the wood itself, becoming charred, is converted into charcoal. The most curious part of the story is, that this simple method of extracting tar is precisely that which is described by Theophrastus and Dioscorides; and there is not the smallest difference between a tar-work in the forests of Westro-Bothnia, and those of ancient Greece. The Greeks made stacks of pine; and having covered them with turf, they were suffered to burn in the same smothered manner; while the tar, melting, fell to the bottom of the stack, and ran out by a small channel cut for the purpose."

Of 10,752 lasts of tar imported in 1831, 7,779 were brought from Russia, 1,086 from Sweden, and 1,243 from the United States. The last contains 12 barrels, and each barrel 31½ gallons.

Tar produced or manufactured in Europe is not to be imported for home consumption, except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which it is the produce, or from which it is imported, under penalty of forfeiting the same, and 100*l.* by the master of the ship.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 54.)

TARE, an abatement or deduction made from the weight of a parcel of goods, on account of the weight of the chest, cask, bag, &c. in which they are contained. Tare is distin-

guished into *real tare*, *customary tare*, and *average tare*. The first is the actual weight of the package; the second, its supposed weight according to the practice among merchants; and the third is the medium tare, deduced from weighing a few packages, and taking it as the standard for the whole. In Amsterdam, and some other commercial cities, tares are generally fixed by custom; but in this country, the prevailing practice, as to all goods that can be unpacked without injury, both at the Custom-house and among merchants, is to ascertain the real tare. Sometimes, however, the buyer and seller make a particular agreement about it. We have, for the most part, specified the different tares allowed upon particular commodities, in the descriptions given of them in this work.—(For the tares at Amsterdam, Bordeaux, &c., see these articles; see also ALLOWANCE.)

TARE, VETCH, OR FITCH, a plant (*Vicia sativa*, Lin.) that has been cultivated in this country from time immemorial; principally for its stem and leaves, which are used in the feeding of sheep, horses, and cattle; but partly, also, for its seed. Horses thrive better upon tares than upon clover and rye grass; and cows that are fed upon them give most milk. The seed is principally used in the feeding of pigeons and other poultry. In 1829, we imported 87,101 bushels of tares, principally from Denmark and Prussia.

TARIFF, a Table, alphabetically arranged, specifying the various duties, drawbacks, bounties, &c. charged and allowed on the importation and exportation of articles of foreign and domestic produce.

We intended at one time to have given the tariffs of some of the principal foreign states, and had some of them translated for that purpose; but, as the duties and regulations in them are perpetually changing, they would very soon have become obsolete, and would have tended more to mislead than to instruct. The circulars issued by foreign houses usually specify the duties on importation and exportation. But the reader will find under the articles DANTZIC, HAVRE, NEW YORK, TRIESTE, &c., pretty full details as to the principal foreign tariffs. Subjoined is the British tariff.

TARIFF (BRITISH).—1st of January, 1834.

DUTIES OF CUSTOMS INWARDS.

Duties Inwards.—The first column of the following Table contains an account of the existing duties payable on the importation of foreign products into Great Britain for home use, as the same were fixed by the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 56. The next column exhibits the duties payable on the same articles in 1819, as fixed by the act 59 Geo. 3. c. 52.; and the third and last column exhibits the duties as they were fixed in 1787, by Mr. Pitt's Consolidation Act, the 27 Geo. 3. c. 13. The reader has, therefore, before him, and may compare together, the present customs duties with the duties as they stood at the end of the late war, and at its commencement. No table of the sort is to be met with in any other publication. We owe it to the kindness of Mr. J. D. Hume, of the Board of Trade, under whose direction it has been prepared. The duties are rated throughout in Imperial weights and measures.

A Table of the Duties of Customs payable on Goods, Wares, and Merchandise imported into the United Kingdom from Foreign Parts.

Nota.—Goods on which duties are payable by measures of capacity, are rated according to the Imperial gallon and bushel.

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan., 1834.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.*
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
A.			
Aceta sold. See Vinegar.			
Acorns. See Seed.			
Agate, or cornelians, for every 100*l.* value	10 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
or, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	60 0 0	
Alkali, not being barilla, viz.			
any article containing soda or mineral alkali wherof mineral alkali is the most valuable part, (such alkali not being otherwise particularly charged with duty,) viz.			
if not containing a greater proportion of such alkali than 20 per cent., per cwt.	0 11 4	0 11 4	1 8 0
if containing more than 20 per cent., and not exceeding 25 per cent. of such alkali, per cwt.	0 15 0	0 15 0	1 8 0
if containing more than 25 per cent. and not exceeding 30 per cent. of such alkali, per cwt.	0 18 4	0 18 4	1 8 0
if containing more than 30 per cent., and not exceeding 40 per cent. of such alkali per cwt.	1 3 4	1 3 4	1 8 0
if containing more than 40 per cent. of such alkali per cwt.	1 10 0	1 10 0	1 8 0
natural alkali, imported from places within the limits of the East India Company's charter, per cwt.	0 2 0	As above.	28 5 0 per cent.
Alkanet root, per cwt.	0 2 0	4 13 4	1 3 0
Almond paste, for every 100*l.* of the value	60 0 0	60 0 0	27 10 0
Almonds, viz.			
bitter, cwt.	0 4 0	1 11 8	0 14 0
Jordan, per cwt.	2 0 0	4 16 0	2 6 8
of any other sort, per cwt.	1 0 0	2 7 6	1 3 2
Aloes, per lb.	0 0 2	0 2 6	0 1 2
the produce of, and imported from any British possession, per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 3	0 0 6
Alum, per cwt.	0 17 6	0 17 6	0 7 2
rock, per cwt.	0 11 8	0 11 8	0 3 0
Amber, rough, per lb.	0 0 6	0 1 3	0 1 3
manufactures of amber, not otherwise enumerated or described, per lb.	0 12 0	60 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent
Ambergris, per oz.	0 0 6	0 5 0	0 2 0
Anchovies, per lb.	0 0 2	0 1 0	0 0 1 1-2
Angelica, per cwt.	0 4 0	4 13 4	0 18 8
Annatto, per cwt.	0 1 0	2 6 8	Free.
roll, per cwt.	0 4 0	5 12 0	

* By act 27 Geo. 3. c. 13., and 28 Geo. 3. c. 27., certain goods were allowed to be imported from France and Holland, on payment of duty, until the 10th of May, 1800, although prohibited to be imported from other countries.

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan., 1854.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Antimony, viz.			
ore, per ton	0 1 0	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
crude, per cwt.	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 5 0
regulus, per cwt.	0 10 0	1 0 0	0 10 0
Apples, per bushel	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 0 1
dried, per bushel	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 0 1
Aquafortis, per cwt.	0 14 0	0 14 0	0 1 0
Argol, per cwt.	0 2 6	0 4 6	Free.
Arseniosbie, per lb.	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 0 3
Arquebusade water. See Spirits.			
Arrowroot, per lb.	0 0 3	0 0 3	
the produce of, &c. imported from any British possession, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 10 3	27 10 0 per cent.
Arsenic, per cwt.	0 3 0	0 14 3	0 4 6
Asafœtida. See Gum.			
Ashes, viz.			
pearl and pot, per cwt.	0 5 0	0 11 3	0 5 3
imported from any British possession	Free.	0 11 3	Free.
soap, weed, and wood, per cwt.	0 1 3	0 1 3	0 0 3
and otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
Asphaltum, per cwt.	0 4 0	4 15 3	0 10 3
Asses, each	0 10 0	0 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.
B.			
Beans, per cwt.	1 8 0	2 10 0	2 7 0
Balm of Gilead. See Balsam.			
Balsam, viz.			
Canada, per lb.	0 0 1	0 1 3	0 0 3
capivi, per cwt.	0 4 0	11 4 3	4 4 0
Peru, per lb.	0 1 0	0 4 3	0 1 6
Riga, per lb.	0 1 0	0 1 3	0 1 6
and further, as foreign spirits, for every gallon	1 10 0	1 10 3	
Tolu, per lb.	0 2 0	0 4 3	0 1 6
Balm of Gilead, and all balsams not otherwise enumerated or described, per lb.	0 4 0	0 4 3	0 1 6
Bandstrings twist, the dozen knots, each knot containing 36 yards	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 0 3
Barilla, per ton	2 0 0	See Alkali.	0 5 0
Bark, viz.			
for tanners' or dyers' use, per cwt.	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 1
imported from any British possession, per cwt.	0 0 1	0 0 3	Free.
Peruvian and cascarilla, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 3	0 0 3
of other sorts, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 3	0 0 3
extract of, or of other vegetable substances to be used only for tanning leather, per cwt.	0 3 0	0 3 0	27 10 0 per cent.
imported from any British possession, per cwt.	0 0 1	0 3 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Bar wood, per ton	0 5 0	0 15 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Basket rods, the bundle (not exceeding 5 feet in circumference at the butt)	0 1 0	0 3 3	0 1 6
Baskets, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
Bast ropes, twines, and strands, per cwt.	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 1 10
Bast or straw hats or bonnets. See Hats.			
platting, or other manufacture of bast or straw, for making hats or bonnets. See Platting.			
Beads, viz.			
amber, per lb.	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 4 6
orange, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	31 4 0	31 19 4
coral, per lb.	0 16 10	0 15 10	0 4 6
crystal, per 1,000	1 3 6	1 3 6	0 13 3
jet, per lb.	0 2 3	0 2 3	0 1 6
not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
Beans, kidney or French beans, per bushel	0 0 10	0 0 10	27 10 0 per cent.
Beef, salted (not being corned beef), per cwt.	0 12 0	Prohibited.	Prohibited.
Beef wood, unmanufactured, imported from New South Wales, per ton	0 5 0	5 16 0 per cent.	26 0 0 per cent.
Beer, viz.			
mum, per barrel, containing 32 gallons	3 1 1	1 1 3	0 5 0
spruce, per barrel, containing 34 gallons	3 6 0	1 6 0	0 11 0
or ale of all other sorts, per barrel, containing 32 gallons	2 13 0	0 13 0	0 5 0
Beer was subject also to the following duties of excise, until 5 April, 1830, viz spruce beer, ale, mum, and all other kinds of beer, per barrel, 34 gallons imp.		1 19 0	0 16 0
Benjamin, or benzoin, per cwt.	0 4 0	11 4 0	2 16 0
Berries, viz.			
bay, juniper, yellow, and any other sort not otherwise enumerated, per cwt.	0 2 0	Bay 0 11 1	Bay 0 4 3
Birds, viz. singing birds, per dozen	0 5 0	1 5 6	0 11 0
Bitumen Judaicum, per cwt.	0 4 0	0 5 0	0 2 6
Blacking, per cwt.	3 12 6	4 15 4	0 18 0
Bladders, per dozen	0 0 6	5 12 0	0 17 6
Blubber. See Train oil, in Oil.		0 0 6	0 0 1½
Bones of cattle and other animals, and of fish, except whale fins, whether burnt or not, or as animal charcoal, for every 100l. value	1 0 0	1 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Bonnets. See Hats.			
Books, viz.			
being of editions printed prior to the year 1801, bound or unbound, per cwt.	1 0 0	6 10 0 bound.	0 19 3 bound.
being of editions printed in or since the year 1801, bound or unbound, per cwt.	5 0 0	5 0 0 unbound.	0 8 10 unbound.
Note.—For the description of books prohibited to be imported, see the act for the regulation of the customs (s. 52. s. 53.), and acts for securing copyrights.			
Boots, shoes, and calashes, viz.			
women's boots and calashes, per dozen pairs	1 10 0		
if lined or trimmed with fur or other trimming, per dozen pair	1 16 0		
women's shoes, with cork or double soles, quilted shoes and clogs, per dozen pair	1 6 0		
if trimmed or lined with fur or any other trimming, per dozen pair	1 9 0	Leather 75 0 0 per cent. Of silk prohibited.	Prohibited.
women's shoes of silk, satin, jeans, or other stuffs, kid, morocco, or other leather, per dozen pair	0 18 0		
if trimmed or lined with fur or any other trimming, per dozen pair	1 4 0		
children's boots, shoes, and calashes, not exceeding 7 inches in length, to be charged with 2 3ds of the above duties.			
men's boots, per dozen pair	2 14 0		
men's shoes, per dozen pair	1 4 0		
children's boots and shoes not exceeding 7 inches in length, to be charged with 2 3ds of the above duties.			
Boracic acid, per cwt.	0 4 0	50 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.

Articles	Duty, 1 Jan., 1824.	Duty, 1825.	Duty, 1787
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Lost or found, per cwt.	0 4 0	0 14 0	1 0 0
unlock, per cwt.	0 10 0	0 9 0	0 12 0
Jalap, lb.			
if cork or stone, empty, per dozen and further, full or empty, per cwt.	0 2 2	0 2 2	0 1 5
if glass covered with wicker, per dozen quarts content and further, per cwt.	0 6 0	0 4 0	
if glass or common glass, not of less content than 1 pint, and not being phials, empty, per dozen quarts content	1 1 0	1 0 0	0 10 0
Bottles of common glass were, by act 54 Geo. 3. c. 97, subject also to the excise duty of 8s. 6d. per cwt. until 1 April, 1825.	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 4 6
if glass or common glass, full, comprising all bottles of not greater content than 1-2 pint as of the content of 1-2 pint, and all bottles of greater content than 1-2 pint, and not of greater content than 1 pint, as a reputed pint, as of the content of 1 pint or a reputed pint, viz.			
imported from any British possession, per dozen quarts content	0 1 0	0 0 0	0 4 5
imported from any foreign place, viz.			
containing wine or spirits, per dozen quarts content	0 4 0	0 0 0	0 4 5
not containing wine or spirits, per dozen quarts content	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 4 5
Excise duty on common glass bottles, see above.			
if glass, not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100l. value	25 0 0	} 25 0 0 per cent	25 0 0 per cent.
and further, per cwt.	4 0 0		
Note.—Flasks in which wine or oil is imported, and glass bottles or flasks in which mineral or natural fruits is imported, are not subject to duty.			
Jams of all sorts, for every 100l. value	25 0 0	25 0 0	27 10 0
Ice used, per ton	5 0 0	7 10 0	2 15 0
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per ton	1 0 0	1 15 4	2 15 0
See Note at the end of Wood.			
Iron, viz.			
manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100l. value	25 0 0	25 0 0	Prohibited.
powder of, for japanning, per lb.	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 2 6
Irish wood, per ton	2 0 0	22 0 0 per cent.	Free.
Isinglass wood, per ton	0 2 6	0 16 0	0 Free.
imported from a British possession, per ton	0 2 0	0 16 0	Free.
Ivory or elephant, per 1,000	1 2 6	1 2 6	0 7 8
Jessamine, per cwt.	0 0 6	0 15 0	} 0 6 8
refined, or in rolls, per cwt.	0 6 0	1 0 0	
in flour, per cwt.	0 0 9	1 2 9	
Indigo, viz.			
rough and in the tufts, and not in any way sorted, per lb.	0 0 2½	0 0 7 dozen lbs.	0 0 1½
in any way sorted or arranged in colours, and not entirely rough and in the tufts, per lb.	0 0 3½	0 12 0 dozen lbs.	0 0 2½
Note.—If any part of the bristles in a package be such as is to be subject to the higher duty, the whole contents of the package shall be subject to the higher duty.			
Inscale of gold or silver, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	Prohibited.	Prohibited.
Irons, all works of art made of bronze, per cwt.	1 0 0	50 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
powder, for every 100l. value	25 0 0	50 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
Ivory, viz.			
great teeth, per lb.	0 2 0	0 2 2	0 1 7
small or sea teeth, per lb.	0 1 0	0 4 5	0 2 7
Jellies and foreign coin, of gold or silver, and ore of gold or silver, of which the major part in value is gold or silver	Free.	Free.	Free.
Intrusion, per load containing 60 bundles	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 4 6
Joist per cwt.	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 2 6
Jolaus, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	Prohibited.	Prohibited.
C.			
Cable, not being iron cables, tarred or untarred, per cwt.	0 10 9	1 1 6	0 2 6
not being iron cables, in actual use of a British ship, and being fit and necessary for such ship, and not or until otherwise disposed of	Free.	1 1 6	0 2 6
if, and when otherwise disposed of, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	1 1 6	0 2 6
Cambrics. See Linen.			
Camomile flowers, per lb.	0 0 3	0 0 6	27 10 0 per cent.
Camphor, per cwt.	0 1 0	7 0 0	1 17 4
refined, per cwt.	2 0 0	14 0 0	3 14 8
Canvas, per ton	0 5 0	0 15 0	25 0 0 per cent.
Candles, viz.			
spermaceti, per lb.	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 1 4
tallow, per cwt.	2 2 4	2 2 4	1 12 8
wax, per lb.	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 1 8
Candlewick, per cwt.	4 2 8	4 2 8	1 12 8
Canella alba, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 6	27 10 0 per cent.
Canes, viz.			
bamboo, per 1,000	0 5 0	1 14 0	2 1 3
rattans, not ground, per 1,000	0 5 0	1 0 0	0 19 3
reed canes, per 1,000	0 5 0	1 6 6	0 11 0
walking canes or sticks, mounted, painted, or otherwise ornamented, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	50 0 0	1 15 6 per 1000.
walking canes or sticks, per 1,000	0 5 0	4 0 0	1 15 6
Cantharides, per lb.	0 1 0	0 2 6	0 1 0
Canutchouc, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 0 6	27 10 0 per cent.
Capers, including the pickle, per lb.	0 0 6	0 1 0	0 0 2
Capsicum. See Pepper			
Cardamoms, per lb.	0 1 0	0 2 0	0 0 9
mixed or preparation of. See Extract.			
Cards, viz. playing cards, the dozen packs	4 0 0	4 0 0	Prohibited.
Carmine, per oz.	0 0 6	0 4 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Carobs. See Succinum.			
Carriages, of all sorts, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Casks, empty, for every 100l. value	50 0 0	50 0 0	0 5 3 per ton.
Cassia, viz.			
buds, per lb.	0 1 0	0 2 6	0 0 4
lignea, per lb.	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 0 3
lignea, per lb.	0 1 0	0 2 6	0 0 4
imported from any British possession, per lb.	0 0 6	0 2 6	0 0 4
Castor, per lb.	0 0 6	0 2 6	0 2 0
Casts of busts, statues, or figures, per cwt.	0 2 6	0 5 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Catechu. See Terra Japonica.			
Catsup, the gross, containing 12 dozen knots	0 6 4	0 6 4	0 2 6

Duty, 1787.
£. s. d.
27 10 0 per cent.
0 4 8
0 2 4
0 2 4
0 4 8
0 2 0
Free.
0 0 8
} 27 10 0 per cent.
0 4 8
0 2 8
Free.
0 0 7
27 10 0
27 10 0 per cent.
2 7 0
0 2 8
0 0 8
0 2 8
0 1 6
0 1 6
0 1 6
0 1 6
0 2 8
0 2 8
0 0 1
Free.
0 0 8
27 10 0 per cent.
27 10 0 per cent.
27 10 0 per cent.
0 1 6
27 10 0
0 1 10
0 4 8
24 15 4
0 4 8
0 15 8
0 1 8
27 10 0
27 10 0 per cent.
Prohibited.
26 0 0 per cent.
0 5 8
0 11 0
0 5 8
0 16 8
2 16 0
Duty 0 4 8
0 11 0
0 2 6
0 16 8
0 17 8
0 0 1½
27 10 0 per cent.
0 19 8 bound.
0 8 10 unbound.
} Prohibited.
27 10 0 per cent.

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1834.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
Caviar, per cwt.	0 13 0	0 12 0	0 4 5
Cedar wood, per ton	2 10 0	} 20 0 0 per cent.	25 0 0 per cent.
Cedar wood, imported from any British possession, per ton	0 10 0		
Chalk, viz.			
prepared, or otherwise manufactured, and not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100*l.* value	40 0 0	40 0 0	37 10 0
unmanufactured, and not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	20 0 0	37 10 0
Cheese, per cwt.	0 10 6	0 10 6	0 1 6
Cherries, per cwt.	0 18 8	0 18 8	0 4 5
dried, per lb.	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 4 5
Chicory, and any other vegetable matter applicable to the uses of chicory or coffee, roasted or ground, per lb.	0 0 6	20 0 0 per cent.	37 10 0 per cent.
Chillies. *See* Pepper.			
China root, per lb.	0 0 3	0 1 3	0 0 5
Chinas, or porcelain ware, viz.			
plain, for every 100*l.* value	15 0 0	75 0 0	} 47 10 0
painted, gilt or ornamented, for every 100*l.* value	30 0 0	75 0 0	
Caps, manufactures of, to make hats or bonnets. *See* Plaiting.			
Chocolate. *See* Cocoa paste.			
Cider, per tun	21 10 0	14 5 0	7 7 10½
Cider and perry, by act 27 Geo. 3. c. 13., were also subject to an excise duty of 21*l.* 7*s.* 9 1-2*d.* per tun, which was altered by 43 Geo. 3. c. 69. to 21*l.* 9*s.* 4 3-4*d.* per tun, and so continued until 5 April, 1825, when the same was added to the duty of customs.			
Cinders, per ton	2 0 0	2 0 0	37 10 0 per cent.
Cinnabaris nativa, per lb.	0 0 1	0 2 0	0 1 6
Cinnamon, per lb.	0 1 6	0 2 6	0 4 5
imported from any British possession, per lb.	0 0 6	0 2 6	0 4 5
Citrate of lime, per lb.	0 0 2	0 1 6	37 10 0 per cent.
Citric acid, per lb.	0 0 6	20 0 0 per cent.	37 10 0 per cent.
Citron preserved with salt, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	20 0 0	37 10 0
preserved with sugar. *See* Succades.			
Citron water. *See* Spirits.			
Civet, per oz.	0 4 9	0 4 9	0 2 0
Clinkers. *See* Bricks.			
Clocks, for every 100*l.* value	25 0 0	50 0 0	37 10 0
Cloves, per lb.	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 2 8
imported from any British possession in Asia, Africa, or America, per lb.	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 2 8
Coals, per ton	2 0 0	2 0 0	0 16 10
Cobalt, per cwt.	0 1 0	20 0 0 per cent.	37 10 } per cent.
Cocculus indicus, per lb.	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 0
extract or preparation of. *See* Extract.			
Cochineal, per lb.	0 0 6	0 2 6	Free.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 10	Free.
dust, per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 5	Free.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 2½	Free.
Cocoa, per lb.	0 0 6	Excise.	0 0 6
the produce of, and imported from any British possession, per lb.	0 0 2	Excise.	0 0 6
husks and shells, per lb.	0 0 1	Prohibited.	Prohibited.
paste or chocolate, per lb.	0 4 4	} Prohibited.	Prohibited.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 4		
Cocoa and coffee were also subject to a duty of excise, viz.			
of the produce of any British possession, per lb.	" "	0 1 3	0 0 6½
of the produce of any other place, per lb.	" "	0 2 6	0 1 3
Note.—The above excise duties were transferred to the customs duties in 1825.			
Cocus wood. *See* Ebony.			
Cotilla. *See* Flax.			
Coffee, per lb.	0 1 3	Excise. 0 2 6	0 0 4
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, in America, per lb.	0 0 6	} 0 1 0	0 0 4
the produce of, and imported from, Sierra Leone, per lb.	0 0 3		0 0 4
imported from any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, per lb.	0 0 3	} 0 1 6	0 0 4
imported from any other place within those limits, per lb.	0 1 0		0 0 4
Coffee was also subject to a duty of excise, see Cocoa, *supra*.			
Coin, viz. copper. *See* Copper.			
foreign, of gold or silver. *See* Bullion.			
Coir rope, twine, and strands, per cwt.	0 5 0	1 1 6	0 3 6
old, and fit only to be made into mats, per ton	0 5 0	50 0 0 per cent.	37 10 0 per cent.
Colocynth, per lb.	0 0 2	0 1 3	0 0 6
Columba root, per lb.	0 0 2	0 2 0	0 0 6
Comfits, per lb.	0 1 0	0 2 6	0 0 6
Copper, viz.			
ore, per cwt.	0 12 0	1 1 0	0 0 9
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession in America, per cwt.	0 1 0	1 1 0	0 0 9
old, fit only to be remanufactured, per cwt.	0 15 0	1 9 2	37 10 0 per cent.
in plates and copper coin, per cwt.	1 10 0	3 0 0	0 16 0
unwrought, viz. in bricks or pigs, rose copper, and all cast copper, per cwt.	1 7 0	2 14 2	0 10 6
in part wrought, viz. bars, rods, or ingots, hammered or raised, per cwt.	1 15 0	3 15 6	2 2 0
manufactures of copper, not otherwise enumerated or described, and copper plates engraved, for every 100*l.* value.	30 0 0	50 0 0	Prohibited.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, viz.			
ore, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0	23 5 0 per cent.
old, fit only to be remanufactured, per cwt.	0 9 2	0 9 2	37 16 3 per cent.
in plates and copper coin, per cwt.	0 15 0	0 15 0	
unwrought, viz. in bricks or pigs, rose copper, and all cast copper, per cwt.	0 9 2	0 9 2	} 37 16 3 per cent.
in part wrought, viz. bars, rods, or ingots, hammered or raised, per cwt.	1 11 3	1 11 3	
manufactures of copper, not otherwise enumerated or described, and copper plates engraved, for every 100*l.* value	30 0 0	30 0 0	Prohibited.
Copperas, viz.			
blue, per cwt.	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 2 4
green, per cwt.	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 1 3
white, per cwt.	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 4 5

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1854.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
Coal, viz.			
in fragments, per lb.	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 0 3
whole, not polished, per lb.	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 3 0
polished, per lb.	0 5 6	0 5 6	0 1 6
of British fishing or taking, per lb.	0 0 6	0 5 6	0 1 6
Cordage, tarred or untarred (standing or running rigging, in use excepted), per cwt.	0 10 0	1 1 0	0 3 6
Cork, in actual use of a British ship, and being fit and necessary for such ship, and not or until otherwise disposed of	Free.	1 1 6 per cwt.	0 3 6
if and when otherwise disposed of, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	1 1 6 per cwt.	0 3 6
Corfal waters. *See* Spirits.			
Cork, per cwt.	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 3 6
Corks, ready made, per lb.	0 7 0	0 7 0	0 0 6 per gross
Corn. *See* vol. i. p. 498.			
Cotton, viz.			
manufactures of, for every 100*l.* value	10 0 0	30 0 0	44 0 0
articles of manufactures of cotton, wholly or in part made up, not otherwise charged with duty, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	30 0 0	44 0 0
manufactures imported from places within the limits of the East India Company's charter, viz.			0 5 8 per piece.
plain white calico and dimity, for every 100*l.* value	10 0 0	27 10 0	16 10 0 per cent.
muslins plain, and Nanquin cloths, for every 100*l.* value	10 0 0	27 10 0	18 0 0
articles manufactured of cotton wool, not otherwise charged with duty, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	27 10 0	44 0 0
wool, or waste of cotton wool. *See* Wool.			
Crinkeries, per gallon	0 0 1	0 1 5	27 10 0 per cwt.
Cuprea, for every 100*l.* value	40 0 0	40 0 0	27 10 0
Cream of tartar, per cwt.	0 2 0	0 15 10	0 4 8
Crystal, viz.			
rough, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.
cut, or in any way manufactured, except beads, for every 100*l.* value	30 0 0	30 0 0	
Cubebs, per lb.	0 0 6	0 2 0	0 0 2
Cucumbers, viz.			
pickled. *See* Pickles.			
preserved in salt and water, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	30 0 0	27 10 0
Cubs, per ton	2 0 0	2 0 0	0 13 7
Cummin, per cwt.	2 4 4	2 4 4	1 2 4
D.			
Damask. *See* Linen.			
Dates, per cwt.	0 10 0	4 16 8	2 6 8
Derelict. Foreign goods derelict, jetsam, flotsam, lagan, or wreck, brought or coming into Great Britain or Ireland, are subject to the same duties, and entitled to the same drawbacks, as goods of the like kind regularly imported.			
Dragydium. *See* Scammony.			
Diamonds	Free.	Free.	Free.
Diaper. *See* Linen.			
Dice, per pair	1 6 2	1 6 2	Prohibited.
Dorra, per lb.	0 1 3	0 1 3	0 0 6
Drawings. *See* Prints.			
Drugs, not particularly charged, per cwt.	0 10 0	30 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
E.			
Earthenware, not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 10*l.* value	15 0 0	75 0 0	41 16 0
Ebony of all sorts, per ton	5 0 0	24 14 0	0 13 3
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per ton	0 3 0	0 15 0	0 10 8
See note at the end of Wood.			
Eggs, per 120	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 0 5
Embroidery and needlework, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	Prohibited.	Prohibited.
Enamel, per lb.	0 7 2	0 7 2	0 2 4
Essence, viz.			
being oil. *See* Essential oil, in Oil.			
of spruce, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
not otherwise enumerated or described, per lb.	0 4 6	0 4 6	27 10 0 per cent
Euphorbium, per cwt.	0 6 0	3 14 8	0 18 8
Extract or preparation of cardamoms, cocculus Indicus, grains, viz. Guinea grains of Paradise, liquorice, nux vomica, for every 10*l.* value	75 0 0	75 0 0	27 10 0
opium, pepper, viz. Guinea pepper, for every 100*l.* value	25 0 0	75 0 0	27 10 0
Peruvian or Jesuits' bark, per lb.	0 5 0	0 5 0	27 10 0 per cent.
quassia, for every 100*l.* value	50 0 0	75 0 0	27 10 0
ratix rhatanies, per lb.	0 5 0	0 5 0	27 10 0 per cent.
vitriol, for every 100*l.* value	25 0 0	75 0 0	27 10 0
Extract or preparation of any article not being particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	30 0 0	27 10 0
or, and in lieu of any of the above duties, at the option of the importer, per lb.	0 10 0	Option not existing.	
F.			
Feathers, viz.			
for beds, in beds or not, per cwt.	2 4 0	4 8 8	1 6 0
ostrich, dressed, per lb.	1 10 0	2 15 6	0 8 10
undressed, per lb.	0 10 0	1 0 0	0 4 5
not otherwise enumerated or described, viz.			
dressed, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	30 0 0	27 10 0
undressed, for every 100*l.* value	10 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
Figs, per cwt.	1 1 6	1 1 6	0 12 10
Fish, viz.			
cod, per ship's lading	18 1 8	18 1 8	4 13 6
lobsters	From.	Free.	Free.
oysters, per bushel	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 0 6
stock fish, per 120	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 2 1
sturgeon, per keg, not containing more than 6 gallons	0 9 0	0 9 0	0 3 4
turbots	Free.	Free.	Free
fresh fish, of British taking, and imported in British ships or vessels	Free.	Free.	Free.
cured fish, of British taking and curing, and imported in British vessels	Free.	Free.	Free.
Fishing nets, old. *See* Rags.			
Flax, and tow or oakum of hemp or flax, dressed, per cwt.	0 0 1	10 14 6	5 4 6
undressed, per cwt.	0 0 1	0 0 6	Free.
Flocks, per cwt.	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 3 10
Flotsam. *See* Derelict.			
Flower roots, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Flowers, artificial, not made of silk, for every 100*l.* value	25 0 0	30 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1824.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
Fossils, not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.
specimens of. *See* Specimens.			
Frames for pictures, prints, or drawings, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Frankincense. *See* Olibanum.			
Fruit, raw, not otherwise enumerated, for every 100*l.* value	5 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Fustic, per ton	0 4 6	1 4 6	Free.
imported from any British possession, per ton	0 2 0	1 4 6	
G.			
Galls, per cwt.	0 2 0	0 11 2	Free.
Gamboge, per cwt.	0 4 0	2 6 8	Free.
Garcels, per lb.	0 10 0	0 10 0	2 16 0
cut, per lb.	1 10 0	1 10 0	0 4 5
Gauze of thread, for every 100*l.* of the value	20 0 0	50 0 0	0 18 3
Gentian, per cwt.	0 4 0	2 16 0	27 10 0
Ginger, per cwt.	2 15 0	2 13 0	0 9 4
preserved, per lb.	0 1 3	0 5 2	1 8 6
the produce of and imported from any British possession, per cwt.	0 11 0	1 3 0	27 10 0 per cent.
preserved, per lb.	0 0 1	0 2 2	0 11 0
Ginseng, per cwt.	0 4 0	2 3 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Glass, viz.			3 14 8
crown glass, or any kind of window glass, (not being plate glass or German sheet glass,) per cwt.	2 6 8	4 18 0	
German sheet glass, per cwt.	10 0 0	4 18 0	
plate glass, superficial measure, viz.			
not containing more than 9 square feet, per square foot	0 6 0		
containing more than 9 square feet, and not more than 14 square feet, per square foot	0 8 0	0 6 7	20 0 0 per cent.
containing more than 14 square feet, and not more than 36 square feet, per square foot	0 9 6		
containing more than 36 square feet, per square foot	0 11 0		
glass manufactures not otherwise enumerated or described, and old broken glass fit only to be remanufactured, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	20 0 0	
and further, for every cwt.	4 0 0		
Glass imported was by act 27 Geo. 3. c. 13. free of excise duty, but by the following acts subject, in addition to the customs duty, to an excise duty of 6*l.* 6*s.* per cwt., viz. 43 Geo. 3. c. 69., 2*l.* 2*s.*; 46 Geo. 3. c. 30., 1*l.* 1*s.*; 58 Geo. 3. c. 94., 3*l.* 3*s.* In the year 1825, the above excise duties were added to the customs duties.			
Gloves (of leather), viz.			
habit gloves, per dozen pair	0 4 0	Prohibited.	Prohibited.
men's gloves, per dozen pair	0 5 0		
women's gloves or mitts, per dozen pair	0 7 0		
Glue or gelatine, per cwt.	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 4 5
clippings or waste of any kind fit only for making glue, for every 100*l.* value	1 0 0	0 4 9 per cwt.	0 1 4½ per cwt.
Grains, viz.			
Guinea grains, per lb.	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 0 2
extract or preparation of. *See* Grains, in Extract.			
of Paradise, per lb.	0 2 0	0 2 0	27 10 0 per cent.
extract or preparation of. *See* Grains, in Extract.			
Granilla, per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 10	Free.
Grapes, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Grease, per cwt.	0 1 8	0 1 8	Free.
Greaves, for dogs, per cwt.	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 0 11
Guinea wood, per ton	0 5 0	0 15 0	33 0 0 per cent.
Gum, viz.			
storax, per cwt.	0 6 0	11 4 0	2 2 0
ammoniacum, per cwt.	0 6 0	7 0 0	1 17 4
animi, per cwt.	0 6 0	2 6 8	1 1 0
Arabic, per cwt.	0 6 0	0 12 0	2 16 0
cashew, per cwt.	0 6 0	0 7 6	27 10 0 per cent.
copal, per cwt.	0 6 0	2 6 8	2 14 8
elemi, per cwt.	0 6 0	2 14 8	1 2 4
guiacum, per cwt.	0 6 0	10 5 4	4 4 0
kino, per cwt.	0 6 0	2 2 0	27 10 0 per cent.
cake lac, per cwt.	0 6 0	2 6 8	0 9 4
lac dye, per cwt.	0 6 0	2 16 0	27 10 0 per cent.
lac lake, per cwt.	0 6 0	0 9 4	27 10 0 per cent.
seed lac, per cwt.	0 6 0	2 16 0	0 18 3
shell lac, per cwt.	0 6 0	2 14 8	0 18 3
stick lac, per cwt.	0 1 0	1 0 0	Free.
oppoponax, per cwt.	0 6 0	19 12 0	7 9 4
sagapenum, per cwt.	0 6 0	4 18 4	1 17 4
sandarach, per cwt.	0 6 0	0 19 0	0 7 0
sarcocolla, per cwt.	0 6 0	4 13 4	1 17 4
Senegal, per cwt.	0 6 0	0 12 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Tacamahaca, per cwt.	0 6 0	11 4 0	2 2 0
tragacanth, per cwt.	0 6 0	2 12 0	1 2 0
not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged, per cwt.	0 6 0	50 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
Gunpowder, per cwt.	2 0 0	2 0 0	1 15 3
Gypsum, per ton	1 11 3	1 11 3	Free.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per ton	0 1 3	0 1 3	27 10 0 per cent.
H.			
Hair, viz.			
camels' hair or wool, per lb.	0 0 1	0 1 3	0 0 3
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession	Free.	0 1 3	0 0 3
cow, ox, bull, or elk hair, per cwt.	0 0 6	0 18 4	0 0 3
goats' hair. *See* Wool.			
horse hair, per cwt.	0 0 6	20 0 0 per cent.	4 4 0
human hair, per lb.	0 1 0	0 5 0	0 2 0
not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100*l.* value	5 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
articles manufactured of hair, or any mixture thereof, from any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter, for every 100*l.* value	0 0 0	27 10 0	27 16 3
manufactures of hair or goats' wool, or of hair or goats' wool and any other material, and articles of such manufacture wholly or in part made up, not particularly enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Hams, per cwt.	1 5 0	2 16 0	2 7 0

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan., 1834.	Duty, 1842.	Duty, 1787.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
Hat strings or hats strings, silvered, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	0 6 4 per gross.	0 2 6 per gross.
Hats or bonnets, viz.			
lace, chip, cane, or horse hair hats or bonnets, each hat or bonnet not exceeding 23 inches in diameter, per dozen	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 3 6
each hat or bonnet exceeding 23 inches in diameter, per dozen	2 0 0	2 0 0	0 7 0
straw hats or bonnets, each hat or bonnet not exceeding 23 inches in diameter, per dozen	2 8 0	2 8 0	0 2 9
each hat or bonnet exceeding 23 inches in diameter, per dozen	6 16 0	6 16 0	0 5 6
made of, or mixed with felt, hair, wool, or beaver, per hat	0 10 6	0 10 6	Prohibited.
Hay, the load containing 36 trusses, each truss being 56 lb.	1 4 0	1 4 0	0 11 0
Hemp for brushes, per cwt.	0 9 2	0 9 2	0 4 6
Hellebore, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 2	0 0 1½
Hemp, dressed, per cwt.	4 15 0	4 15 0	2 4 0
rough or undressed, or any other vegetable substance of the nature and quality of undressed hemp, and applicable to the same purposes, per cwt.	0 0 1	0 9 2	0 3 6
Hides, viz.			
horse, mare, gelding, buffalo, bull, cow, or ox hides, viz.,			
not tanned, tawed, curried, or in any way dressed, viz.			
dry, per cwt.	0 4 8	} 0 0 10 per hide.	0 0 9 per hide.
wet, per cwt.	0 2 4		
the produce of, and imported from, the west coast of Africa, each hide not exceeding 14 lbs. weight, per cwt.	0 2 4	0 0 6 per hide.	0 0 9 per hide.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, viz.			
dry, per cwt.	0 2 4	} 0 0 10 per hide.	0 0 9 per hide.
wet, per cwt.	0 1 2		
tanned and not otherwise dressed, per lb.	0 0 6	0 1 0	0 0 5
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 3	0 1 0	0 0 5
cut or trimmed, per lb.	0 0 9	0 1 0	0 0 5
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 4½	0 1 0	0 0 5
and pieces of such hides, tawed, curried, or in any way dressed, per lb.	0 0 9	75 0 0 per cent.	} 77 0 0 per cent.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 4½	75 0 0 per cent.	
cut or trimmed, per lb.	0 1 2	75 0 0 per cent.	
the produce of, and imported from any British possession, per lb.	0 0 7	75 0 0 per cent.	
Note.—Hides, raw or undressed (except horse hides), imported from the British colonies in America, were exempted from duty in act 27 Geo. 3. c. 13.			
Hilts. See Tilts.			
Hob hides, per lb.	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 0 10
Honey or Rumia hides, tanned, coloured, shaved, or otherwise dressed, per hide	0 5 0	0 1 8 per lb.	0 0 0 per lb.
pieces tanned, coloured, shaved, or otherwise dressed, per lb.	0 2 6	0 1 8 per lb.	0 0 8
Hides or pieces of hides, raw or undressed, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, imported from any British possession in America, for every 100*l.* value	5 17 6	5 17 6	Free.
Hides or pieces of hides, raw or undressed, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Hides or pieces of hides, tanned, tawed, curried, or in any way dressed, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	75 0 0	77 0 0 per cent.
Hoops, per 100	1 3 0	1 3 0	0 11 0
Hoary, per cwt.	0 15 0	0 15 0	} 0 8 10 per barrel, 42 gallons.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per cwt.	0 5 0	0 15 0	
Herd of cattle, for every 100*l.* value	1 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Horns, viz.			
of iron, per cwt.	1 3 9	1 3 9	0 11 5
of wood, viz.			
not exceeding 6 feet in length, per 1,000	0 5 0	0 15 0	0 5 11
exceeding 6 feet and not exceeding 9 feet in length, per 1,000	0 7 6	0 15 0	0 5 11
exceeding 9 feet and not exceeding 12 feet in length, per 1,000	0 10 0	0 15 0	0 5 11
exceeding 12 feet, and not exceeding 15 feet in length, per 1 000	0 12 6	0 15 0	0 5 11
exceeding 15 feet in length, per 1,000	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 5 11
Hops, per cwt.	3 11 0	3 11 0	5 18 10
Horns, horn, and pieces of horns, not otherwise charged with duty, per cwt.	0 2 4	0 5 0	0 1 10 per 100.
Horn tips, per 100	0 2 4	0 5 0	0 0 7
Horses, mares, or geldings, each	1 0 0	6 13 0	2 4 0
Hungary water. See Spirits.			
I. and J.			
Jalap, per lb.	0 0 6	0 2 0	0 0 9
Japanned or lacquered ware, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	62 10 0	49 10 0
Jet, per lb.	0 0 2	0 2 0	0 0 9
Jetsam. See Derelict.			
Jewels, emeralds, rubies, and all other precious stones (except diamonds), viz.			
set, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	50 0 0	Free.
not set, for every 100*l.* value	10 0 0	20 0 0	Free.
India rubbers. See Caoutchouc.			
Indigo, per lb.	0 0 4	0 0 5	} Free.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 5	
Ink for printers, per cwt.	0 10 0	1 1 0	0 8 10
Iron, unwrought, per lb.	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 0 3½
wrought, per lb.	0 5 2	0 5 2	0 2 5½
Iron, viz.			
in bar., or unwrought, per ton	1 10 0	6 10 0	2 16 2
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per ton	0 2 6	1 2 2	Free.
slit or hammered into rods, and iron drawn or hammered less than 5-4 of an inch square, per cwt.	0 5 0	1 0 0	} Prohibited.
cast, for every 100*l.* value	15 0 0	30 0 0	
hoops. See Hoops			

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1834.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	L. s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.
Iron—cast or wrought.			
old broken, and old cast iron, per ton	0 12 6	0 17 6	0 12 6
ore, per ton	0 5 0	0 8 9	0 8 9
pig iron, per ton	0 10 0	0 17 6	27 10 0 per cent.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per ton	0 1 3	0 2 0	Free.
chromate of iron, per ton	0 5 0	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
wrought, not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	20 0 0	Prohibited.
Isinglass, per cwt.	2 7 6	2 7 6	
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per cwt.	0 15 10	0 15 10	0 0 5½
Juice of lemons or oranges, per gallon	0 0 0½	0 1 6	0 0 4
of limes, per gallon	0 0 0½	0 1 6	0 0 3½
Junk, old. *See* Rags, old.			
K.			
Kelp. *See* Alkali.			
L.			
Lac, viz. stick lac, per cwt.	0 1 6	1 0 0	Free.
Lace, viz. thread lace, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	40 0 0	0 17 9 per lbs. pic.
Lacquered ware. *See* Japanned ware.			
Lagan. *See* Derelict.			
Lamp black, per cwt.	1 0 0	2 0 0	1 16 8
Lapis calaminaris, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 2 0	0 3 8
Lard, per cwt.	0 2 0	0 4 0	Free.
Latten, per cwt.	0 4 0	1 8 0	0 13 8
shaven, per cwt.	0 6 0	2 10 0	1 2 0
Lavender flowers, per lb.	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 0 4
Lead, viz.			
black, per cwt.	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 6 8
chromate of lead, per lb.	0 2 0	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
ore, per ton	1 5 0	1 16 0	0 17 8
pig, per ton	2 0 0	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
red, per cwt.	0 6 0	0 8 4	0 8 8
white, per cwt.	0 7 0	0 10 4	0 4 5
Leather, viz. pieces of leather, or leather cut into shapes, or any article made of leather, or any manufacture whereof leather is the most valuable part, not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	75 0 0	Prohibited.
Leaves of gold, per 100 leaves	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 1 8
Leaves of roses, per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 10	0 0 3
Leeches, for every 100*l.* value	5 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
Lemons. *See* Oranges.			
peel of, per lb.	0 0 5	0 0 8	27 10 0 per cent.
preserved in sugar. *See* Succades.			
Lentiles, the bushel	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 0 0½ per lb.
Lignum, viz.			
quassia. *See* Quassia.			
vitæ, per ton	2 0 0	4 12 8	3 5 0
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per ton	0 10 0	0 11 2	
See Note at the end of Wood.			
Linen, or linen and cotton, viz.			
cambrics, and lawns, commonly called French lawns, the piece not exceeding 8 yards in length, and not exceeding 7-8ths of a yard in breadth, and so in proportion for any greater or less quantity			
plain	0 6 0	0 11 6	0 5 0
bordered handkerchiefs	0 6 0		
lawns of any other sort, not French, viz.			
not containing more than 60 threads to the inch of warp, per square yard	0 0 9		
containing more than 60 threads to the inch of warp, per square yard	0 1 0		
damasks and damask diaper, viz.			
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 2 1½		
from 5 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 2 0		
drillings, ticks, and twilled linens, viz.			
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 0 8½		
from 5 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 0 8		
sail cloth, per square yard	0 0 7½		
plain linens, and diaper, not otherwise enumerated or described, and whether chequered or striped, with dyed yarn or not, viz.			
not containing more than 20 threads to the inch of warp,			
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 0 2½		
from 5 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 0 2½		
containing more than 20 threads, and not more than 24 threads to the inch of warp,			
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 0 3½		
from 5 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 0 3		
containing more than 24 threads, and not containing more than 30 threads to the inch of warp,			
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 0 4½		
from 5 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 0 4		
containing more than 30 threads, and not containing more than 40 threads to the inch of warp,			
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 0 5		
from 5 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 0 4½		
containing more than 40 threads, and not containing more than 60 threads to the inch of warp,			
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 0 3½		
from 5 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 0 3		
containing more than 60 threads, and not containing more than 80 threads to the inch of warp,			
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 0 10½		
from 5 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 0 10		
containing more than 80 threads, and not containing more than 100 threads to the inch of warp,			
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 1 0½		
from 5 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 1 0		
containing more than 100 threads to the inch of warp,			
until 6 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 1 7		
from 5 Jan. 1834, per square yard	0 1 6		
Note.—The duties were levied on the goods above mentioned by act 6 Geo. 4. c. 111.; previously to which they were chargeable with duties according to their length and breadth			

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1824.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Linen—continued.			
respectively, which, consequently, do not admit of being compared with the above. It may, however, be observed, that not a single entry has been made under this scale, since 1825; and the previous duties may be considered equally prohibitory.			
Or, and instead of the duties herein-before imposed upon linens according to the number of threads in the warp, at the option of the importer, for every 100*l.* value	40 0 0		
A few linens have been occasionally entered under this ad valorem duty.			
Note.—No increased rate of duty to be charged on any linen or lawns for any additional number of threads not exceeding two threads for each as are not of 30 threads to the inch, nor for any additional number of threads not exceeding 6 threads for each as are of 30 threads and upwards to the inch.			
sale, for every 100*l.* value	30 0 0	104 9 2	46 0 0
in actual use of a British ship, and fit and necessary for such ship, and not otherwise disposed of	Free.		
if and when otherwise disposed of, for every 100*l.* value	30 0 0	104 9 2	46 0 0
manufactures of linen, or of linen mixed with cotton or with wool, not particularly enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty, for every 100*l.* value	25 0 0	50 0 0	44 0 0
articles of manufactures of linen, or of linen mixed with cotton or with wool, wholly or in part made up, not otherwise charged with duty, for every 100*l.* value.	40 0 0	50 0 0	44 0 0
Liquid cakes, per cwt.	0 0 2	0 0 2	27 10 0 per cent.
Liquorice juice, or succus liquoritiæ, per cwt.	2 15 0	3 15 0	1 8 0
powder, per cwt.	5 10 0	5 10 0	2 12 1
root, per cwt.	2 3 4	2 3 4	1 8 10
extract or preparation of. *See* Extract.			
Liturge of gold, per cwt.	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 0 10
silver, per cwt.	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 0 5
Live creatures illustrative of natural history	Free.	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cwt.
Liverwort. *See* Lichen Islandicus, in Mosses.			
Lignumvitæ, per ton	0 4 6	0 9 2	Free.
imported from any British possession	0 3 0	0 9 4	
Lupines, per cwt.	0 5 0	0 5 0	0 2 4
Lute strings. *See* Catlings.			
M.			
Mace, per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 2
Mace, per lb.	0 4 6	0 4 6	0 4 0
imported from any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, per lb.	0 3 6	0 3 6	0 4 0
the produce of, and imported from, any other British possession, per lb.	0 3 6	0 3 6	0 4 0
Madder, per cwt.	0 2 0	0 15 0	Free.
root, per cwt.	0 0 6	0 5 0	
Maga Gracia ware, for every 100*l.* value	5 0 0	75 0 0 per cent	27 10 0
Mahogany, per ton	7 10 0	11 17 6	
imported from the Bay of Honduras, in a British ship cleared out from the port of Belize, per ton	1 10 0	3 16 0	2 4 0 per cent.
imported from any British possession, per ton	4 0 0	11 17 6	
See Note at the end of Wood.			
Manganese ore per ton	0 10 0	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
Mangoes. *See* Pickles.			
Mann, per lb.	0 0 3	0 1 3	0 0 6
Manuscripts, viz.			
book, per cwt.	0 18 9	6 10 0	0 19 3
letter, &, per cwt.	0 18 3	5 0 0	0 9 10
Map or charts, plain or coloured, each map or chart, or part thereof	0 0 6	0 2 0	0 0 6
Marble. *See* Stone.			
Marbles for children. *See* Toys.			
Marmalade, per lb.	0 1 3	0 1 3	0 0 3
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 1	0 1 3	0 0 3
Mast, per cwt.	0 6 0	7 9 4	1 8 0
Mats, viz.			
of bast, per 100	1 3 9	1 3 9	0 11 0
imported from any British possession, for every 100*l.* value	5 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	50 0 0	
Matting, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	50 0 0	0 0 2 per yard.
imported from any British possession, for every 100*l.* value	5 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Mattresses, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Maul or metheglin, per gallon	0 6 7	0 0 7	0 0 2
Note.—Maud or metheglin was, by act 43 Geo. 3. c. 69., subject to an excise duty of 6*s.* per gallon in addition to the customs duty, which continued until 5 April, 1825, when the excise was added to the customs duty.			
Medals of gold or silver	Free.	Free.	27 10 0
of any other sort, for every 100*l.* value	5 0 0	20 0 0	
Medlars, per bushel	0 1 0	0 5 0	0 2 4
Mercers. *See* Shopkeepers.			
Melting pots for goldsmiths. *See* Pots.			
Mercury, prepared, for every 100*l.* value	30 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Metal, viz.			
bell metal, per cwt.	1 0 0	1 0 0	1 11 1
leaf metal (except leaf gold), the packet containing 250 leaves	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 2
Metheglin. *See* Mead.			
Mill boards, per cwt.	2 3 2	2 3 2	0 10 0
Minerals not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
specimens of. *See* Specimens.			
Models of cork or wood, for every 100*l.* value	5 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Moss, viz.			
lichen Islandicus, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 3	27 10 0 per cent.
rock for dyers' use, per ton	0 5 0	1 15 0	0 5 0
not otherwise charged, for every 100*l.* value	5 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
Mother-of-pearl shells, for every 100*l.* value	5 0 0	20 0 0	0 0 4 per lb.
Mats, each	0 10 0	5 0 0	27 10 0 per cent
Mum. *See* Beer.			
Musical instruments, for every 100*l.* value.	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
Musk, per oz.	0 0 6	0 2 0	0 0 2
Myrrh, per cwt.	0 6 0	0 6 0	2 16 0

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1824.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
N.			
Natron. *See* Alkali.			
Needle work. *See* Embroidery.			
Nets, viz. old fishing nets, fit only for making paper or pasteboard. *See* Rags.			
Nicaragua wood, per ton	0 5 0	0 6 8	Free.
Nitre, viz. cubic nitre, per cwt.	0 0 6	50 0 0 per cent.	2 6 8
Nutmegs, per lb.	0 3 6	0 3 6	0 2 0
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 2 6	0 2 6	30 2 0
imported from any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, per lb.	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 2 0
Nuts, viz.			
cashew nuts and kernels, per cwt.	0 10 0	11 4 0	
castor nuts or seeds, per cwt.	0 6 6	5 13 0	
coker or cocoa nuts, the produce of any British possession, per 1,200 nuts	0 1 0	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
chesnuts, per bushel	0 2 0	0 4 0	0 1 5
pistachio nuts, per cwt.	0 10 0	4 13 4	1 5 0
small nuts, per bushel	0 2 0	0 4 0	0 0 3
walnuts, per bushel	0 2 0	0 4 0	0 0 3
not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
Nux vomica, per lb.	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 0 1½
extract or preparation of. *See* Extract.			
O.			
Oakum, per cwt.	0 0 1	0 4 9	0 2 3
Ochre, per cwt.	0 1 6	0 6 9	0 2 0 per bushel.
Oil, viz.			
of almonds, per lb.	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 0 8
of bays, per lb.	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 9 per cwt.
of castor, per lb.	0 1 3	0 1 3	
imported from any British possession, per lb.	0 0 3	0 1 3	
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per cwt.	0 2 6	7 0 0	0 2 6 per gallon.
chemical, essential, or perfumed, viz.			
of caraway, per lb.	0 4 0	0 2 6	0 0 7½
of cloves, per lb.	0 14 0	1 12 0	0 0 7½
of lavender, per lb.	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 1 6
of mint, per lb.	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 0 7½
of peppermint, per lb.	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 0 7½
of spike, per lb.	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 0 4
cassia, bergamot, lemon, otto of roses, thyme, and of all other sorts, per lb.	0 1 4	As below.	As below.
of cocoa nut, per cwt.	0 2 6	0 2 6	27 10 0 per cent.
fish oil. *See* Train oil, in Oil.			
of hemp seed, per tun	30 15 0	30 15 0	15 15 0½
imported from any British possession, per tun	1 0 0	30 15 0	
of linseed, per tun	30 15 0	30 15 0	30 0 9½
imported from any British possession, per tun	1 0 0	30 15 0	
of olives, per tun	8 0 0	18 15 7	8 8 10½
imported in a ship belonging to any of the subjects of the King of the Two Sicilies, per tun	10 10 0	18 15 7	
of palm, per cwt.	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 7 0
of paran, per tun	8 8 0	50 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
of rape seed, per tun	30 15 0	30 15 0	30 0 9½
imported from any British possession, per tun	1 0 0	30 15 0	
of cassia, per lb.	0 1 4	4 0 0	0 0 7½
of bergamot, per lb.	0 1 4	0 4 0	0 1 6
of cajaputa, per lb.	0 1 4	0 16 0	0 0 7½
of jessamine, per lb.	0 1 4	0 4 0	0 1 6
of cinnamon, per lb.	0 1 4	4 0 0	0 4 0
of aniseed, per lb.	0 1 4	0 4 0	0 1 6
of juniper, per lb.	0 1 4	0 2 0	0 0 6
of nutmegs, per lb.	0 1 4	2 0 0	0 0 7½
of neroli, per lb.	0 1 4	1 12 0	0 1 6
of pine, per lb.	0 1 4	0 0 3	0 0 1½
of rosewood, per lb.	0 1 4	4 0 0	0 6 0
of rosemary, per lb.	0 1 4	0 4 0	0 0 9
of sandal wood, per lb.	0 1 4	2 0 0	0 0 7½
of turpentine, per lb.	0 1 4	0 0 3	0 0 1½
of amber, per lb.	0 1 4	0 2 6	0 0 6
of sassafras, per lb.	0 1 4	0 2 6	0 1 0
of thyme, per lb.	0 1 4	0 4 0	0 1 8
of lemon, per lb.	0 1 4	0 4 0	0 1 6
rock oil, per lb.	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 0 3
seal oil. *See* Train oil, in Oil.			
seal oil, not otherwise enumerated or described, per tun	30 15 0	30 15 0	15 15 0½
imported from any British possession, per tun	1 0 0	30 15 0	
seed cakes, per cwt.	0 0 3	0 0 3	27 10 0 per cent.
of spermaceti. *See* Train oil, in Oil.			
train oil, blubber, spermaceti oil, and head matter, viz.			
the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea, taken and caught by the crews of British ships, and imported direct from the fishery, or from any British possession in a British ship, per tun	0 1 0	0 9 11	Free.
the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea, of foreign fishing, per tun	30 15 0	30 15 0	21 15 7
walnut oil, per lb.	0 0 6	0 0 6	27 10 0 per cent.
whale oil. *See* Train oil, in Oil.			
oil not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 100*l.* value	50 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Olibanum, per cwt.	0 6 0	2 7 6	1 1 0
Olives, per gallon	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 0 3
Olive wood, per ton	8 8 6	8 8 6	2 6 0
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per ton	0 12 4	0 12 4	
See Note at the end of Wood.			
Onions, per bushel	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 0 3
Opium, per lb.	0 4 0	0 9 0	0 1 6
extract or preparation of. *See* Extract.			
Orange flower water, per gallon	0 3 9	0 3 9	0 1 2½
Oranges and lemons, viz.			
the chest or box not exceeding the capacity of 5,000 cubic inches	0 2 6		
the chest or box exceeding the capacity of 5,000 cubic inches, and not exceeding 7,500 cubic inches	0 3 9	1 5 0 per 1,000 oranges, and lemons.	0 4 8 per 1,000 oranges and lemons.
the chest or box exceeding the capacity 7,500 cubic inches, and not exceeding 14,000 cubic inches	0 7 6		
for every 1,000 cubic inches exceeding the above rate of 14,200 cubic inches	0 0 7½		

Articles.	Duty 1 Jan., 1824.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Oranges and lemons—continued.			
from, per 1,000	0 15 0	1 5 0	0 4 5
or, and at the option of the importer, for every 100£. value	75 0 0	No option.	No option.
peel of, per lb.	0 0 6	0 0 6	27 10 0 per cent.
Orchal, archella, or archella, per cwt.	0 3 0	0 16 8	Free.
Ore not particularly charged, for every 100£. value	5 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
of gold or silver. *See* Bullion.			
specimens of. *See* Specimens.			
Orpiment, per cwt.	1 3 6	1 3 6	0 3 3
Orris or iris root, per cwt.	0 10 6	1 5 6	27 10 0 per cent.
Orsbeve, per lb.	0 0 6	0 1 3	0 0 6
Otto or attar or oil of roses. *See* Oil.			
P.			
Paddy. *See* Rice.			
Painter's colours not particularly charged, viz.			
unmanufactured, for every 100£. value	5 0 0	50 0 0	0 0 2 per lb.
manufactured, for every 100£. value	10 0 0	50 0 0	
Painting on glass, for every 100£. value	5 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
and further, for every cwt. of glass	4 0 0		
paintings on glass. Excise duty on glass. *See* Glass.			
Paper, viz.—Brown paper made of old rope or cordage only, without separating or extracting the pitch or tar therefrom, and without any mixture of other materials therewith, per lb.	0 0 8	0 0 10	0 2 11 per bundle.
printed, painted, or stained paper, or paper hangings, or flock paper, per square yard	0 1 0	0 1 7	76 0 0 per cent.
waste paper, or paper of any other sort, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, per lb.	0 0 8	0 1 7	
The description of paper and duties thereon, in act 27 Geo. 3. c. 13., are too numerous to state; particularly as the duties were prohibitory.			
Parchment, per dozen sheets	0 10 6	0 10 0	0 4 5
Pasteboards, per cwt.	2 2 2	2 2 2	0 10 0
Pearl barley, per cwt.	0 17 6	0 17 6	0 3 10
Pearls, for every 100£. value	5 0 0	5 0 0	Free.
Pears, per bushel	0 7 6	0 7 6	0 1 5
dried, per bushel	0 10 0	0 10 0	0 3 9
Pearls, for every 100£. value	20 0 0	50 0 0	
of state, for every 100£. value	20 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Peas, for every 100£. value	20 0 0	50 0 0	
Pepper of all sorts, per lb.	0 1 6	- -	0 0 3
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 1 0	- -	0 0 3
imported from any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, per lb.	0 1 0	- -	0 0 6½
imported from any other place within those limits, per lb.	0 1 2	- -	0 0 6½
Note.—Pepper of all sorts, in the year 1819, was subject to the excise duty of 2s. 6d. per lb., but transferred to the customs on the 5th of April, 1825.			
Perfumery not otherwise charged, for every 100£. value	20 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Perry, per ton	22 15 8	20 9 2	10 1 7
Excise duty on perry. *See* Cider.			
Pewter, manufactures of not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100£. value	20 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Pickles of all sorts, not otherwise enumerated or described, including the vinegar, per gallon	0 1 6	0 6 0	0 0 10½
Pictures, each	0 1 0	As below.	
and further, the square foot	0 1 0	As below.	As below.
being 200 square feet or upwards, each	10 0 0	As below.	
under 2 feet square, each	As above.	2 8 0	1 3 10
of 2 to 4 feet square, each	As above.	5 16 0	2 7 8
of 4 feet square and upwards, each	As above.	10 4 0	3 11 6
Pimento, per lb.	0 1 3	0 1 3	0 0 6
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 5	0 0 10	0 0 3
Pink root, per lb.	0 0 4	0 0 10	27 10 0 per cent.
Pitch, per cwt.	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 14 10½ per last.
the produce of any British possession, per cwt.	0 0 9	0 0 9	0 12 2½ per last.
Burgundy pitch, per cwt.	0 3 0	0 14 3	0 6 4
Jew's pitch. *See* Bitumen Judaicum.			
Plants, shrubs, and trees, alive	Free.	Free.	
Plaster of Paris, per cwt	0 1 0	0 3 6	0 1 2½
Plate, viz.			
battered, fit only to be remanufactured. *See* Bullion.			
of gold, per oz. Troy	3 16 3	3 16 3	
of silver gilt, per oz. Troy	0 6 4	0 6 4	Prohibited.
part gilt, per oz. Troy	0 6 0	0 6 0	
ungilt, per oz. Troy	0 4 8	0 4 8	
Platina, for every 100£. value	1 0 0	0 1 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
ore of platina, for every 100£. value	1 0 0	5 0 0	27 10 0
Plating or other manufactures to be used in or proper for making hats or bonnets, viz.			
of bast, chip, cane, or horse hair, per lb.	1 0 0	0 6 0	0 1 10
of straw, per lb.	0 17 0	0 17 0	0 1 10
Plums, dried or preserved, per cwt.	1 7 6	7 0 0	1 8 0
Pomatum, for every 100£. value	30 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Pomegranates, per 1,000	0 15 0	1 10 0	0 8 10
peels of, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 15 0	0 4 8
Pork, salted (not hams nor bacon, which see,) per cwt.	0 12 0	Prohibited.	Prohibited.
Potatoes, per cwt.	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 5 8
Pots, viz.			
melting pots for goldsmiths, per cwt.	0 3 2	0 3 2	0 0 7
of stone, for every 100£. value	30 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Powder, viz.			
hair powder, per cwt.	9 15 0	9 15 0	8 5 8
perfumed, per cwt.	15 13 0	15 13 0	
powder, not otherwise enumerated or described, that will serve for the same uses as starch, per cwt.	9 10 0	9 10 0	27 10 0 per cent
Precious stones. *See* Jewels.			
Prints and drawings, viz.			
plain, not above 1 foot square	0 0 1	0 1 0	
above 1 foot square, each	0 0 1	0 2 0	0 0 6
coloured, not above 1 foot square	0 0 2	0 2 0	
above 1 foot square, each	0 0 2	0 4 0	
Prunellos, per cwt.	1 7 6	7 0 0	1 8 0
Prunes, per cwt.	1 7 6	1 7 6	0 12 5
Q.			
Quassia, per cwt.	3 17 6	3 17 6	27 10 0 per cent
extract or preparation of. *See* Extract.			

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1824.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Quicksilver, per lb.	0 0 1	0 1 3	0 0 3
Quills, viz.			
goose quills, per 1,000	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 2 6
swan quills, per 1,000	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 3 0
Quinces, per 1,000	0 1 0	2 0 0	0 18 4
Quinine, sulphate of, per oz.	0 0 1	80 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
R.			
Radix, viz.			
contrayerva, per lb.	0 0 2	0 1 3	0 0 6
enulæ campanæ, per cwt.	0 15 0	1 15 0	0 6 4
eringii, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 6	0 0 1½
ipecacuanhæ, per lb.	0 1 0	0 4 0	0 1 3
rhatanie, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 3	27 10 0 per cent.
extract or preparation of. *See* Extract.			
senekæ, per lb.	0 0 2	0 1 3	0 0 3
serpentariæ, or snake root, per lb.	0 0 2	0 1 3	0 0 3
Rags, viz.			
old rags, old ropes or junk, or old fishing nets, fit only for making paper or pasteboard, per ton	0 6 0	1 6 0	Free.
woollen rags, fit only for manure, per ton	0 1 0	0 13 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Raisins, viz.			
of the sun, per cwt.	2 2 6	2 2 6	0 13 8
of any other sort, per cwt.	1 5 0	1 5 0	As below.
of all sorts, the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per cwt.	0 10 0	1 2 0	As below.
Smyrna, per cwt.	As above.	As above.	0 11 6
Lexia and Faro, per cwt.	As above.	As above.	0 5 0
Belvidere, per cwt.	As above.	As above.	0 3 3
other sorts, per cwt.	As above.	As above.	0 7 1
Rape cakes, per cwt.	0 0 2	0 0 2	27 10 0 per cent.
Rape of grapes, per ton	13 6 0	13 6 0	6 10 0
Raisin. *See* Spirits.			
Red wood, or Guinea wood, per ton	0 5 0	0 15 0	Free.
Rhatany root. *See* Radix rhatanie.			
Rhubarb, per lb.	0 1 0	0 4 0	0 1 6
imported from any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter, per lb.	0 1 0	0 2 6	0 1 6
Rice, viz.			
not being rough and in the husk, per cwt.	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 7 4 per cwt.
rough and in the husk, or paddy, per bushel	0 2 6	0 10 0 per cwt.	
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, viz.			
not being rough and in the husk, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 5 0	0 7 4 per cwt.
rough and in the husk, or paddy, per quarter	0 0 1	0 2 6 per cwt.	
Rocou. *See* Anatto.			
Ropes, new, *see* Cordage; old, *see* Rags; Coir, *see* Coir.			
Rosewood, per cwt.	0 10 0	1 0 0	22 0 0 per cent.
Rosin, or colophonia, per cwt.	0 4 9	0 4 9	0 2 3
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per cwt.	0 2 2	0 2 2	0 1 6
Rubies. *See* Jewels.			
S.			
Saccharum Saturni, per lb.	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 0 3
Saffower, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 2 9	Free.
Saffron, per lb.	0 1 0	0 7 6	0 2 6
Sago, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 14 6	1 5 0
Sails. *See* Linen.			
Sal, viz.			
ammoniac, per cwt.	0 1 0	2 16 0	Free.
limonum, per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 2	27 10 0 per cent.
prunelle, per cwt.	0 1 0	2 16 0	0 18 3
Salep, or Salop, per cwt.	0 1 0	7 0 0	1 5 0
Salt	Free.		
Saltpetre, per cwt.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 3
imported from the East Indies, per cwt.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 7
Sanguis draconis, per cwt.	0 4 0	0 0 6	2 14 6
Santa Maria wood, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	20 0 0	22 0 0 per cent.
Sapan wood, per ton	0 1 0	20 0 0 per cent.	
Sarsaparilla, per lb.	0 0 6	0 1 3	0 0 3
Sassafras, per cwt.	0 2 0	0 6 4	0 0 4
Saunders, red, per ton	0 1 0	0 15 0	Free.
white or yellow, per cwt.	0 1 0	4 13 4	1 6 0
Sausages or puddings, per lb.	0 0 4	0 1 3	0 0 3½
Scaleboards, per cwt.	0 2 2	0 2 2	0 11 0
Scammony, per lb.	0 2 6	0 6 4	0 2 6
Seed, viz.			
acorns, per bushel	0 1 0	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
ammi or ammois seed, per lb.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 2
aniseed, per cwt.	0 5 0	3 0 0	1 3 2
burnet seed, per cwt.	1 0 0	50 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
canary seed, per cwt.	2 0 0	3 0 0	0 16 6
caraway seed, per cwt.	1 10 0	1 0 0	0 5 0
carrot seed, per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 1½
carthamus seed, per lb.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 2
castor seed. *See* Nuts.			
cevadilla seed. *See* Sabadilla seed.			
clover seed, per cwt.	1 0 0	1 0 0	0 2 9
cole seed, per quarter	0 1 0	1 0 0	0 13 8
coriander seed, per cwt.	0 15 0	0 15 0	0 4 6
cummin seed, per cwt.	0 2 0	1 0 0	0 7 4
fennel seed, per cwt.	0 2 0	4 0 0	0 14 0
fenugreek seed, per cwt.	0 0 1	0 0 6	0 3 4
flax seed, per quarter	0 1 0	0 3 4	27 10 0 per cent.
forest seed per lb.	0 0 6	25 0 0 per cent.	
garden seed not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, per lb.	0 0 6	0 1 0	0 0 1½
grass seed of all sorts, per cwt.	1 0 0	50 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
hemp seed, per quarter	0 1 0	0 17 6	0 9 6½
leek seed, per lb.	0 1 6	0 1 0	0 0 1½
lettuce seed, per quarter	0 1 0	0 1 0 per lb.	0 0 1½ per lb.
linseed, per quarter	0 1 0	0 3 4	Free.
lucerne seed, per cwt.	1 0 0	3 0 0	0 2 9
mayz seed, per cwt.	2 0 0	3 0 0	0 15 6
millet seed, per cwt.	0 11 6	0 11 6	0 4 3
mustard seed, per bushel	0 2 0	0 9 4 per cwt.	0 2 3 per cwt.
onion seed, per lb.	0 1 6	0 0 5½	0 0 1½
parsley seed, per lb.	0 0 1	0 1 0	0 0 1½
piony or peony seed, per lb.	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 1½
sylvas seed, per lb.	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 0 1½

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1854.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
Seed—continued.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
rape seed, per quarter	0 1 0	1 0 0	0 13 0
sandilla or cavadilla seed, per lb.	0 1 0	0 1 0	27 10 0 per cent.
shrub or tree seed not otherwise enumerated, per lb.	0 0 6	30 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
turnip seed, per cwt.	1 0 0	30 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
worm seed, per cwt.	0 2 6	5 5 0	5 16 0
all seeds not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, commonly made use of for extracting oil therefrom, per quarter	0 1 0	0 0 4½	27 10 0 per cent.
all other seed not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 100l. value.	30 0 0	30 0 0	27 10 0
Segars. See Tobacco, manufactured.			
Senna, per lb.	0 0 6	0 1 3	0 0 6
Shavings for hats. See Platting.			
Ships to be broken up, with their tackle, apparel, and furniture (except sails), viz.			
foreign ships or vessels, for every 100l. value	30 0 0	30 0 0	5 10 0
British ships, or vessels entitled to be registered as such, not having been built in the United Kingdom, for every 100l. value	15 0 0	Free.	Free.
Shrub. See Plants.			
Shumac, per ton	0 1 0	1 11 3	Free.
Silk, viz.			
balls or husks of silk, and waste silk, per cwt.	0 1 0	22 5 0	1 17 4
raw silk, per lb.	0 0 1	0 5 6	0 3 0
thrown silk, not dyed, viz.			
singles, per lb.	0 1 6	0 14 3	0 7 4
tram, per lb.	0 2 0	0 14 3	0 7 4
organzine and crape silk, per lb.	0 2 6	0 14 3	0 7 4
thrown silk, dyed, viz.			
singles or tram, per lb.	0 2 0	0 2 3	1 4 3
organzine, or crape silk, per lb.	0 2 6	0 5 6	1 4 3
husks or husks of silk, and waste or floss silk, imported from any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter, per cwt.	0 1 0	21 0 0	28 5 0 per cent.
raw silk, the produce of any British territory in the East Indies, per lb.	0 0 1	0 4 3	0 2 0
the produce of any other part of the East Indies, per lb.	0 0 1	0 5 6	0 3 0
manufactures of silk, or of silk mixed with any other material, the produce of Europe, viz.			
silk or satin, plain, per lb.	0 11 0		
or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 100l. value	25 0 0		
silk or satin, figured or brocaded, per lb.	0 15 0		
or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 100l. value	30 0 0		
gauze, plain, per lb.	0 17 0		
or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 100l. value	30 0 0		
gauze, striped, figured, or brocaded, per lb.	1 7 6		
or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 100l. value	30 0 0		
crape, plain, per lb.	0 16 0		
or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 100l. value	30 0 0		
crape, figured, per lb.	0 18 0		
or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 100l. value	30 0 0		
velvet, plain, per lb.	1 5 0		
or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 100l. value	30 0 0		
velvet, figured, per lb.	1 7 6		
or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 100l. value	30 0 0		
ribands, embossed or figured with velvet, per lb.	0 17 0	Prohibited.	Prohibited.
or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 100l. value	30 0 0		
and further, if mixed with gold, silver, or other metal, in addition to the above rates, when the duty is not charged according to the value, per lb.	0 10 0		
fancy silk, not or tricot, per lb.	1 4 0		
plain silk lace or net, called tulle, per square yard	0 1 4		
manufactures of silk, or of silk mixed with any other material, the produce of, and imported from, British possessions within the limits of the East India Company's charter, for every 100l. value	30 0 0		
millinery of silk, or of which the greater part of the materials is of silk, viz.			
turbans or caps, each	0 15 0		
hats or bonnets, each	1 5 0		
dresses, each	2 10 0		
or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every 100l. value	40 0 0		
manufactures of silk, or of silk and any other material, not particularly enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty, for every 100l. value	30 0 0		
articles of manufacture of silk, or of silk and any other material, wholly or in part made up, not particularly enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty, for every 100l. value	30 0 0		
Silkworm gut, for every 100l. value	30 0 0	30 0 0	27 10 0
Skins, furs, pelts, and tails, viz.			
badger, undressed, per skin	0 0 6	0 1 6	0 0 7
bear, undressed, per skin	0 4 6	0 4 6	
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 5 6
beaver, undressed, per skin	0 0 8	0 0 8	0 0 8½
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 0 4	0 0 4	0 0 1
Calabar. See Squirrel skins.			
calf and kip, viz.			
in the hair, not tanned, tawed, curried, or in any way dressed, viz.			
dry, per cwt.	0 4 8		
wet, per cwt.	0 2 4		
the produce of, and imported from, the west coast of Africa, each skin not exceeding 7 lbs. weight, per cwt.	0 2 4	calf skins, 0 2 0 per doz.	calf skins, 0 2 9 per doz.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, viz.			
dry, per cwt.	0 2 4		
wet, per cwt.	0 1 2		

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan., 1804.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Skins—undressed.			
hip, in the hair, not tanned, tawed, curried, or in any way dressed	As above.	0 6 0 p. doz. skins.	27 10 0 per cent.
calf and kip, viz.			
tanned, and not otherwise dressed, per lb.	0 0 9	0 1 0	
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 4½	0 1 0	calf, 0 0 4½ per lb.
cut or trimmed, per lb.	0 1 3	0 1 0	kip, 77 0 0 per cent.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 7	0 1 0	
tawed, curried, or in any way dressed (not being tanned hides), per lb.	0 1 0		
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 6	75 0 0 per cent.	77 0 0 per cent.
cut or trimmed, per lb.	0 1 6		
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per lb.	0 0 9		
cat, undressed, per skin	0 0 1	0 0 6	0 0 1½
Chinchilla, undressed, per skin	0 0 3	2 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
coney, undressed, per 100 skins	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 2 5
deer, undressed, per skin	0 0 1	0 0 4	
undressed, the produce of, and imported from, any British possession in America, per 100 skins	0 1 2	0 16 8	0 0 9 per skin.
Indian, half-dressed, per skin	0 0 0	0 0 2	0 0 4½ per lb.
deer, undressed or shaved, per skin	0 0 1	0 0 3	0 0 3
dog, in the hair, not tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed, per dozen skins	0 0 2	0 0 10	0 2 6
dog fish, undressed, per dozen skins	0 5 2	0 5 2	
undressed, of British taking, and imported direct from Newfoundland, per dozen skins	0 0 1	0 5 2	0 2 6
elk, in the hair, not tanned, tawed, curried, or in any way dressed, per skin	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 8
ermine, undressed, per skin	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3½
dressed, per skin	0 0 3	75 0 0 per cent.	77 0 0 per cent.
fisher, undressed, per skin	0 0 6	0 1 0	0 1 4½
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 0 3	0 0 6	
fitch, undressed, per dozen skins	0 2 0	0 3 3	0 1 0
fox, undressed, per skin	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 4½
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 0 4	0 0 4	0 0 4½
tails, undressed, for every 100l. value	5 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.
goat, raw or undressed, per dozen skins	0 0 6	0 2 0	0 0 6
tanned, per dozen skins	2 0 0	2 0 0	1 0 0
hare, undressed, per 100 skins	0 1 0	0 5 6	0 0 9½
horse, undressed, per skin	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 3
kangaroo, raw and undressed, imported from any British possession, for every 100l. value	5 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
kid, in the hair, undressed, per 100 skins	0 0 4	0 1 7	0 19 3
dressed, per 100 skins	0 10 0	2 0 0	
dressed, and dyed or coloured, per 100 skins	0 15 0	3 0 0	1 4 9
kip. *See* Calf skins.			
Kolinski, undressed, per skin	0 0 3	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
lamb, undressed, in the wool, per 100 skins	0 0 4	20 0 0 per cent.	0 2 3½
tanned or tawed, per 100 skins	0 10 0	2 0 0	77 0 0 per cent.
tanned or tawed, and dyed or coloured, per 100 skins	0 15 0	3 0 0	77 0 0 per cent.
dressed in oil, per 100 skins	4 0 0	4 0 0	2 0 4
leopard, undressed, per skin	0 2 6	0 0 6	0 0 11
lion, undressed, per skin	0 1 0	0 0 0	0 2 9
lynx, undressed, per skin	0 0 6	0 5 6	0 0 9½
marten, undressed, per skin	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 3
undressed, imported from any British possession, per skin	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 1 4½
tails, undressed, per 100 tails	0 5 0	0 16 3	0 0 9½
mink, undressed, per skin	0 0 4	0 0 4	
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 5
mole, undressed, per dozen skins	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 0 6½
muscquash, undressed, per 100 skins	0 1 0	0 0 6	0 0 2
nutria, undressed, per 100 skins	0 1 0	0 12 6	0 13 9
otter, undressed, per skin	0 1 6	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 1 0	0 1 6	0 1 5
ounce, undressed, per skin	0 7 6	0 7 6	0 1 5
panther, undressed, per skin	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 3 6
pelts of goats, undressed, per dozen pelts	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 5 6
dressed, per dozen pelts	0 6 0	0 6 0	0 1 4½
of all other sorts, undressed, per 100 pelts	0 17 0	0 17 0	0 2 3
racoon, undressed, per skin	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 3
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 0 1	0 0 1	0 18 9
sable, undressed, per skin	0 2 6	0 2 4	0 4 1½
tails or tips of sable, undressed, per piece	0 0 3	0 1 3	0 0 7
seal, in the hair, not tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed, per skin	0 1 0	0 0 3	0 0 6
of British taking, per dozen skins	0 0 1	0 0 3	0 0 2
of British taking, and imported from Newfoundland, per skin	0 0 1	0 0 1	Free.
sheep, undressed, in the wool, per dozen skins	0 1 0	0 2 5	0 0 10
tanned or tawed, per 100 skins	2 0 0	2 0 0	1 0 10
dressed in oil, per 100 skins	4 0 0	4 0 0	1 12 7
squirrel or Calabar, undressed, per 100 skins	0 11 6	0 11 6	0 4 7
tawed, per 100 skins	0 17 6	0 17 6	0 5 4½
tails, undressed, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.
swan, undressed, per skin	0 1 0	0 2 3	0 0 11
tiger, undressed, per skin	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 2 9
weasel, undressed, per 100 skins	0 4 0	0 4 9	0 0 3½
wolf, undressed, per skin	0 0 6	0 2 0	0 0 4
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 0 3	0 1 0	0 0 4
tawed, per skin	0 17 6	0 17 6	0 0 8
wolverines, undressed, per skin	0 1 0	0 1 0	
undressed, imported from any British possession in America, per skin	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 6
skins and furs, or pieces of skins and furs, raw or undressed, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
skins and furs, or pieces of skins and furs, tanned, tawed, curried or in any way dressed, not particularly enume-			

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1834.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
Skins—continued.			
...ured or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	73 0 0	77 0 0
...ation manufactured of skins or fure, for every 100*l.* value	75 0 0	75 0 0	
Note.—The duty on fox, otter, seal, wolf, bear, cat, and beaver skins, imposed by act 59 Geo. 3. c. 52., suspended till 5 July, 1824, being the produce of and imported from Newfoundland.			
Slate, the Tonne.			
...ate, per lb.	0 0 4	0 0 9½	0 0 4
...ard, per lb.	0 6 0	As below.	(See below.)
...of any country, by act 59 Geo. 3. c. 53.	6s. per lb.	Excise.	Customs.
...annual act	1s. excise.	0 6 0	
...from the East Indies, per lb.			0 3 3
...from British plantations in America, per lb.			0 1 6
...from any other place, per lb.			0 2 3
Note.—Sauff was, by act 27 Geo. 3. c. 13., subject only to duties of customs, and by the 59 Geo. 3. c. 53., subject only to a duty of excise, which was, on the 5th of April, 1824, transferred to the customs.			
Soap, viz.			
...hard, per cwt.	4 10 0	4 10 0	2 4 0
...soft, per cwt.	3 11 3	3 11 3	1 17 3
...the produce of, and imported from, any British possession in the East Indies, viz.			
...hard, per cwt.	1 3 0	80 0 0 per cent.	27 16 3 per cent.
...soft, per cwt.	1 3 0		
Soda. See Alkali.			
...ton ware, for every 100*l.* value	30 0 0	30 0 0	27 10 0
Specimens of minerals, fossils, or ores, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, each specimen not exceeding in weight 14 lbs.	Free.	0 0 2 per lb.	
...exceeding in weight 14 lbs. each, for every 100*l.* value	5 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
Illustrative of natural history, not otherwise enumerated or described	Free.		
Previous to 1825, subject to duty according to their respective denomination.			
Spelter, per ton	3 14 3	3 14 3	4 3 4
...the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per ton	0 16 3	0 16 3	
See Note at the end of Wood.			
Spelter, in cakes, per cwt.	0 3 0	30 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
...not in cakes, per cwt.	0 10 0	1 3 6	0 13 9
Spermaceti, fine, per lb	0 1 6	0 1 6	0 0 8

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1834.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.	Spirits were also subject to the following duties of excise at the time of the passing of the undermentioned acts, viz.	
				59 Geo. 3. c. 2.	27 Geo. 3. c. 13.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
Spirits or strong waters of all sorts, viz.					
for every gallon of such spirits or strong waters of any strength not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater strength than the strength of proof, and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon, viz.					
not being spirits or strong waters, the produce of any British possession in America, or any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, and not being sweetened spirits, or spirits mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength thereof cannot be exactly ascertained by such hydrometer	1 2 6	0 2 2½	0 0 10½	1 0 4½	0 5 1½
or strong waters, the produce of any British possession in America, not being sweetened spirits, or spirits so mixed as aforesaid	0 9 0	0 1 6	0 0 6	0 12 8	0 4 3½
or strong waters, the produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, not being sweetened spirits, or spirits so mixed as aforesaid	0 15 0	0 2 6	0 0 4½	0 18 6½	0 4 3½
cordials, or strong waters respectively (not being the produce of any British possession in America), sweetened or mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength thereof cannot be exactly ascertained by such hydrometer	1 10 0	0 6 7½	0 3 4½	1 17 7½	0 9 3½
cordials, or strong waters respectively, being the produce of any British possession in America, sweetened or mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength thereof cannot be exactly ascertained by such hydrometer	1 0 0	0 6 7½	0 3 4½	1 4 0	0 3 0
rum shrub, however sweetened, the produce of, and imported from, any British possession in America, per gallon	0 9 0	0 6 7½	0 3 4½	1 4 0	0 3 0

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan., 1864.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Sponge, per lb.	0 0 6	0 2 0	0 0 9
the produce of, and imported from any British posses. per lb.	0 0 1	0 2 0	0 0 9
Squills, dried, per cwt.	0 2 0	1 0 0	0 0 9
not dried, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 5 0	0 0 6
Starch, per cwt.	2 10 0	2 10 0	5 5 0
Stavesacre, per cwt.	0 4 0	1 8 0	0 0 9
Steel, unwrought, prepared in, and imported from, any British possession in Asia, Africa, or America, per ton	0 1 0	50 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
or any manufactures of steel not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	50 0 0 per cent.	Prohibited.
Stibium. *See* Antimony.			
Sticks, viz. walking sticks. *See* Canes.			
Stone, viz.			
burrs for mill stones, per 100	0 10 0	3 16 0	0 11 0
dog stones, not exceeding 4 feet in diameter, above 6 and under 12 inches in thickness, per pair	0 3 6	0 3 6	0 17 2½
emery stones, per ton	0 1 0	0 2 0	1 16 8
filtering stones, for every 100l. of the value	20 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
flint stones, for potters	Free.	0 2 6 per ton.	} 27 10 0 per cent.
ores, not flint, for potters	Free.	66 10 0 per cent.	
felspar, for potters	Free.	26 0 0 per cent.	
gravestones of marble, viz.			
polished, each not containing more than 2 feet square, per foot square, superficial measure	0 2 6	0 2 6	0 0 9½
unpolished, the foot square, superficial measure	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 0 1½
gravestones not of marble, polished or unpolished, the foot square, superficial measure	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 0½
limestones	Free.	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
marble, rough, blocks or slabs	Free.	0 6 4 the solid ft.	0 2 0 the solid ft.
marble in any way manufactured (except gravestones and paving stones, each not containing more than 2 feet square), per cwt.	0 3 0	0 3 2 the foot sqr.	0 1 0 the foot sqr.
marble paving stones, each not containing more than 2 feet square, viz.			
polished, the foot square, superficial measure	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 0 9½
rough, per foot square, superficial measure	0 0 6	0 0 6	0 0 1½
mill stones above 4 feet in diameter, or if 12 inches in thickness or upwards, per pair	11 8 0	11 8 0	8 4 0
paving stones, not of marble, per 100 feet square, superficial measure	0 12 0	0 12 0	0 4 2
pebble stones	Free.	0 15 6 per ton.	0 5 6 per ton.
polishing stones, for every 100l. value	5 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
pumice stones, per ton	0 5 0	1 13 4	0 3 0
quern stones, viz. under 3 feet in diameter, and not exceeding 6 inches in thickness, per pair	0 3 9	0 17 6	0 3 3½
3 feet in diameter, and not above 4 feet in diameter, and not exceeding 6 inches in thickness, per pair	0 17 6	0 17 6	0 6 7½
rag stones, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
slates not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100l. value	66 10 0	66 10 0	0 0 6 each.
slates, in frames, per dozen	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 0 11
slick stones, per 100	0 2 0	0 2 0	0 0 4
stone, sculptured, or mosaic work, per cwt.	0 2 6	0 2 6	27 10 0 per cent.
stone to be used for the purpose of lithography	Free.	1 0 0 per cwt.	27 10 0 per cent.
whet stones, per 100	0 3 9	0 3 9	0 2 3
stones not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	66 10 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Note.—If any statue, group of figures, or other stone or marble ornament, carved out of the same block, shall exceed 1 ton weight, the duty to be charged thereon shall be estimated at the rate payable for 1 ton weight, and no more.			
Storax, or Styrax. *See* Gum.			
Straw or grass for plaiting, per cwt.	0 0 1	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent
Succades, per lb.	0 1 3	0 3 2	0 0 3
the produce of, and imported from, any British posses. per lb.	0 0 1	0 3 2	0 0 3
Sugar, viz.			
brown or muscovado or clayed, not being refined, until 5 April, 1834, per cwt.	3 3 0	} 4 6 3 clayed. } 3 3 0 not clayed.	2 5 6 clayed. 1 7 3 not clayed.
the growth, produce, or manufacture of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, and imported from thence, per cwt.	1 12 0	2 0 0	
the growth, produce, or manufacture of any British possession in America, and imported from thence, per cwt. (Sugar was, by act 59 Geo. 3. c. 52., subject to the fluctuation of 3s. per cwt. less than the above duties, according to the average price of muscovado sugar, until the passing of 6 Geo. 4. c. 8.)	1 4 0	} 1 15 0 clayed. } 1 10 0 not clayed.	} 1 9 0 clayed. 0 12 4 not clayed
molasses, per cwt.	1 3 9	1 3 9	0 11 9
the produce of, and imported from, any Brit. posses. per cwt.	0 9 0	0 10 0	0 3 0
refined, per cwt.	2 3 0	2 5 0	4 18 6
candy, brown, per cwt.	2 12 9	3 12 0	2 15 0
white, per cwt.	3 3 0	3 3 0	4 2 6
candy imported from the East Indies, viz.			
brown, per cwt.	3 12 0	3 12 0	4 19 0
white, per cwt.	5 12 0	5 12 0	7 5 6
Sulphur impressions, for every 100l. value	5 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
vivum. *See* Brimstone.			
Sweep-washers' dirt, containing bullion. *See* Bullion.			
Sweet wood, per ton	10 13 0	10 13 0	} 5 10 0
the produce of, and imported from, any British pos. per ton	0 16 3	0 16 3	
See Note at the end of Wood.			
T.			
Tails, viz.—Buffalo, bull, cow, or ox tails, per 100	0 6 5	0 6 0	0 2 9
fox tails, marten tails, satin tails, squirrel, or Calabar tails. *See* Skins.			
Talc, per lb.	0 0 3	0 0 3	0 0 3
Tallow, per cwt.	0 3 2	0 3 2	
imported from any British possession in Asia, Africa, or America, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 3 2	} Free.
Tamarinds, per lb.	0 0 3	0 0 3	
the produce of, and imported from, any British poss. per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 3	} 0 0 3
Tapioca, per cwt.	0 1 0	2 16 0	0 13 3
Tar, the last, containing 12 barrels, each barrel not exceeding 31 1-2 gallons	0 15 0	1 5 9½	0 14 10
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, the last containing 12 such barrels	0 12 0	1 3 4	0 13 2½
Barbadoes tar, per cwt.	0 3 3	3 3 3	0 9 4
Turns, per quarter	0 10 0	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.

Articles.	Duty 1 Jan. 1854.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Yarn, per bushel	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 0 6
Yarwood ash, per lb.	0 0 4	50 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
Tea, from 27 April, 1834, will be subject to the following customs duties, viz			
bohea, per lb.	0 1 6		
congou, twankay, hyson skin, orange pekoe, and caupoi, per lb.	0 2 9	Excise.	Excise.
souchong, flowery pekoe, hyson, young hyson, gunpowder, imperial, and other sorts not enumerated, per lb.	0 3 0		
(Tea was free of customs duty until 23 April, 1834; but in the year 1787 was subject to the excise duty of 7l. 10s. per cent. on the gross price; and in the year 1819 to the following excise duties, viz. sold at or under 2s. per lb. 96l. per cent.; sold above 2s. per lb., 100l. per cent.			
Teasle, per 1,000	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 1 0
Teeth, viz.			
sea cow, sea horse, or sea morse teeth, per cwt.	1 0 0	2 4 0	2 14 0
elephants' teeth, not above 21 lbs. weight each tooth, per cwt.	1 0 0	2 0 0	1 6 8
exceeding 21 lbs. weight each tooth, per cwt.	1 0 0	4 0 0	1 6 8
Telescopes, for every 100l. value	50 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Terra, viz			
Japonica or catechu, per cwt.	0 1 0	4 13 4	1 17 4
Sienna, per cwt.	0 4 0	1 11 8	27 10 0 per cent.
umbra, per cwt.	0 4 0	0 12 0	0 4 8
verte, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 16 0	27 10 0 per cent.
Thread, viz.			
Bregia thread, per dozen lbs.	0 15 0	1 10 6	0 8 11
cotton thread. See Cotton manufactures.			
Dutsil thread, per dozen lbs.	0 15 0	1 10 6	0 17 8
packthread, per cwt.	0 15 0	1 10 6	0 14 10
sewen thread, per lb.	0 4 0	0 3 4	0 2 9
whited brown thread, per dozen lbs.	0 15 0	1 16 6	0 17 8
not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100l. value	25 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Tiles, for every 100l. value	50 0 0	50 0 0	As below.
Dutch tiles, for every 100l. value	15 0 0	50 0 0	
paving tiles, not above 10 inches square, per 1,000	As above.	As above.	1 3 9
exceeding 10 inches square, per 1,000	As above.	As above.	2 6 3
pan tiles, per 1,000	As above.	As above.	2 12 10
Tin, per cwt.	2 10 0	3 3 3	2 13 0
manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
ore, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0
Tincal. See Borax.			
Tin foil, for every 100l. value	25 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Tobacco, viz.			
manufactured, per lb.	0 3 0	Excise	0 3 6
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession in America, per lb.	0 2 9	As below.	0 1 3
manufactured, or segars, per lb.	0 3 0		0 3 6
(Manufactured in the United Kingdom, at or within 5 miles of any port into which tobacco may be imported, made into shag, roll, or carrot tobacco, drawback upon exportation, per lb. 2s. 7 1-2d.)			
Tobacco was, by act 59 Geo. 3. c. 52., an annual act, subject to the following excise duties, viz.			
manufactured of Turkey, and British possessions in America, the territories of Russia, and any place within the limits of the E. I. Co.'s charter, per lb.	0 4 0	Excise. 0 4 0	
of Spain or Portugal, per lb.	- -	0 6 0	
segars, per lb.	- -	0 6 0	
Tobacco pipes, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Tongues, per dozen	0 3 0	0 3 0	0 1 0
Tornsol, or Turnsole, per cwt.	0 5 0	0 10 0	0 4 3
Tortoiseshell or turtleshell, unmanufactured, per lb.	0 2 0	0 4 0	0 1 3
imported from any British possession, per lb.	0 0 1	0 4 0	
Tow. See Flax.			
Toys, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	50 0 0	33 0 0
Trees. See Plants.			
Trefoil, per lb.	0 1 0	0 3 6	0 2 3
Turmeric, per cwt.	0 10 0	2 14 3	0 13 3
imported from any British possession, per cwt.	0 2 4	2 14 3	
Turnery, not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Turnsole. See Tornsol.			
Turpentine, viz.			
not being of greater value than 12s. the cwt. thereof, per cwt.	0 4 4	0 4 4	0 2 3
being of greater value than 12s. and not of greater value than 15s. the cwt. thereof, per cwt.	0 5 4	0 4 4	
being of greater value than 15s. per cwt. thereof, per cwt.	1 6 2	0 4 4	0 2 3
of Venice, Scio, or Cyprus, per lb.	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 0 4
Turtle, per cwt.	1 11 0	1 11 0	0 11 0
V.			
Valonia, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 2 6	Free.
Vanellum, per lb.	0 5 0	0 16 8	0 3 3
Varnish, not otherwise enumerated or described, for every 100l. value	20 0 0	50 0 0	0 3 3 per cwt.
Vases, ancient, not of stone or marble, for every 100l. value	5 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Vellum, per skin	0 7 2	0 7 2	0 3 2
Verdigris, per lb.	0 1 0	0 3 4	0 0 3
Verjuice, per tun	73 18 9	73 18 9	27 10 0 per cent.
Vermicelli, per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 2	0 0 2
Vermilion, per lb.	0 0 6	0 2 0	0 0 7
Vinegar, or acetous acid, per tun	18 18 0	75 12 9	39 10 7
Vinegar, or acetous acid, by act 58 Geo. 3. c. 65., was subject also to the duty of excise of 1s. 2 1-4d. per gallon until April 5, 1825, when the same was transferred to the customs.			
W.			
Wafers, per lb.	0 1 8	0 1 8	0 0 6
Washing balls, per lb.	0 1 8	0 1 8	27 10 0 per cent.
Watches of gold, silver, or other metal, for every 100l. value	25 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Water, viz.			
aqueduode, citron, cordial, Hungary, lavender. See Spirits.			
Cologne water, the flask (30 of such flasks containing not more than 1 gallon)	0 1 0	0 6 7 per gallon.	0 3 4½ per gallon
Cologne water was subject also to the excise duty of 5s. 1 1-4d. per gallon by act 27 Geo. 3. c. 13., and to 1l. 0s. 4 3-4d. per gal., at the time of passing act 59 Geo. 3. c. 52.			

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1834.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Water—*continued.*			
mineral or natural water, per dozen bottles or flasks (each bottle or flask not exceeding 3 pints)	0 4 0	0 4 0	0 1 10
strong water. *See* Spirits.			
Wax, viz.			
bees' wax, viz.			
unbleached, per cwt.	1 10 0	2 6 6	1 11 7
in any degree bleached, per cwt.	3 0 0	6 3 6	3 3 4
imported from any British possession in Asia, Africa, or America, viz.			
unbleached, per cwt.	0 10 0	2 6 6	1 11 7
in any degree bleached, per cwt.	1 0 0	6 3 6	3 3 4
myrtle wax, per lb.	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 0 4
sealing wax, for every 100*l.* value	30 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Weld, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 2 9	0 0 10
Whale fins, per ton	95 0 0	95 0 0	97 18 0
taken and caught by the crew of a British ship, and imported direct from the fishery, or from any British possession, in a British ship, per ton	1 0 0	2 7 6	2 15 0
Whipcord, per lb.	0 1 0	0 1 0	0 0 2
Wine, viz.			
Cape, per tun	24 18 0	17 4 5	23 10 5
excise ditto	- -	21 0 0	14 5 7
Madeira, per tun	69 6 0	52 18 5	23 10 5
excise ditto	- -	63 0 0	14 5 7
Rhenish, Germany, and Hungary, per tun	69 6 0	79 7 7	40 6 5
excise ditto	- -	63 0 0	21 8 5
French, per tun	69 6 0	79 7 7	35 5 7
excise ditto	- -	96 17 5	21 8 5
other wines, per tun	69 6 0	51 15 2	23 10 5
excise ditto	- -	63 0 0	14 5 7
(The full duties on wine are drawn back upon exportation.)			
lees, subject to the same duty as wine, but no drawback is allowed on the lees of wine exported.			
Wire, viz.			
brass or copper, per cwt.	2 10 0	5 14 0	2 12 8
gilt or plated, for every 100*l.* value	25 0 0	50 0 0	Prohibited.
iron, per cwt.	1 0 0	2 19 9	2 17 9
latten, per cwt.	1 0 0	2 9 3	2 13 0
silver, for every 100*l.* value	25 0 0	50 0 0	Prohibited.
steel, per lb.	0 1 10	0 1 10	0 0 10
Wood, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 6 6	0 1 7½
Wood, viz.			
anchor stocks, per piece	0 3 4	0 3 4	0 2 3
imported from any British possession in America, per piece	0 0 10	0 0 10	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
balks, viz.			
under 5 inches square, and under 24 feet in length, per 120	18 2 7	18 2 7	1 1 3
under 5 inches square, and 24 feet in length, or upwards, per 120	27 0 0	20 0 0 per cent.	2 18 0 per 120.
5 inches square, or upwards, are subject and liable to the duties payable on fir timber.			
balks imported from any British possession in America, viz.			
under 5 inches square, and under 24 feet in length, per 120	3 5 0	0 16 3	Free.
under 5 inches square, and 24 feet in length, or upwards, per 120	4 17 6	0 16 3	Free.
5 inches square, or upwards, are subject and liable to the duties payable on fir timber.			
See Note at the end of Wood.			
battens imported into Great Britain, viz.			
6 feet in length and not exceeding 16 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not above 2 3-4 inches in thickness, per 120	10 0 0	10 11 6	9 to 20 feet. 1 6 6 9 to 20 feet.
exceeding 16 feet in length and not exceeding 21 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 2 3-4 inches in thickness, per 120	11 10 0	21 3 0	above 20 feet. 2 13 0 above 20 feet.
exceeding 21 feet in length and not exceeding 45 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 2 3-4 inches in thickness, per 120	20 0 0	21 3 0	above 20 feet. 2 13 0 above 20 feet.
exceeding 45 feet in length, or above 2 3-4 inches in thickness (not being timber 9 inches square), per load, containing 50 cubic feet	2 10 0	21 3 0	above 20 feet. 2 13 0 above 20 feet.
and further, per 120	6 0 0		
battens of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence into Great Britain, viz.			
6 feet in length and not exceeding 16 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 2 3-4 inches in thickness, per 120	1 0 0	0 3 4	Free.
exceeding 16 feet in length, and not exceeding 21 feet in length, and not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 2 3-4 inches in thickness, per 120	1 3 0	0 3 4	Free.
exceeding 21 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, or if exceeding 2 3-4 inches in thickness, per 120	2 0 0	0 3 4	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
battens imported into Ireland, viz.			
6 feet in length and not exceeding 12 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	3 6 3	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 12 feet in length and not exceeding 14 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	3 14 0	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 14 feet in length and not exceeding 16 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1 4 inches in thickness, per 120	11 1 3	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 16 feet in length and not exceeding 18 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	12 9 4	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 18 feet in length and not exceeding 20 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	13 17 2	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 20 feet in length and not exceeding 45 feet in length, and not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1 4 inches in thickness, per 120	24 6 1	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 45 feet in length, or above 3 1-4 inches in thickness (not being timber 9 inches square), per load, containing 50 cubic feet	2 10 0	Ireland.	Ireland.
and further per 120	6 0 0		

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1834.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Wood—*continued.*			
Batten ends imported into Great Britain, viz.			
under 6 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 2 3-4 inches in thickness, per 120	3 0 0	3 11 3 under 3 feet.	0 3 10 under 3 feet.
under 6 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and exceeding 2 3-4 inches in thickness, per 120	6 0 0	7 5 0 under 3 feet.	0 17 3 under 3 feet.
Batten ends of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence into Great Britain, viz.			
under 6 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 2 3-4 inches in thickness, per 120	0 7 6	0 5	Free.
under 6 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and exceeding 2 3-4 in thickness, per 120	0 15 0	0 9 4	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
Batten ends imported into Ireland, viz.			
under 3 feet in length, not above 7 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	4 14 5	Ireland.	Ireland.
under 3 feet in length, if exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	9 3 1	Ireland.	Ireland.
Battens and batten ends, of all sorts, of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence into Ireland, per 120	0 3 3	Ireland.	Ireland.
Beech plank, 2 inches in thickness or upwards, per load, containing 50 cubic feet	2 3 3	2 3 3	0 13 3
of all sorts, of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, per 120	0 3 4	0 3 4	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
Beech quarters, viz.			
under 5 inches square, and under 24 feet in length, per 120	4 10 3	4 10 3	1 1 3
5 inches square, and under 8 inches square, or if 24 feet in length or upwards, per 120	13 3 6	16 3 6	2 13 0
of all sorts, under 8 inches square, of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, per 120	0 16 3	0 16 3	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
Boards, viz.			
Beech boards, viz.			
under 2 inches in thickness, and under 15 feet in length, per 120	4 3 6	4 3 6	1 6 5
under 3 inches in thickness, and if 15 feet in length or upwards, per 120	3 19 0	3 19 0	2 12 0
clap-boards, viz.			
not exceeding 5 feet 3 inches in length, and under 8 inches square, per 120	6 2 0	6 2 0	1 0 0
of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, per 120	0 13 4	0 13 4	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
Deal boards or white boards for shoemakers, viz.			
under 4 feet in length, and under 6 inches in thickness, per 120	6 16 6	6 16 6	1 19 3
4 feet in length, or 6 in. in thickness, or upwards, per 120	13 15 0	13 15 0	3 19 4
oak boards, viz.			
under 2 inches in thickness, and under 15 feet in length, per 120	18 1 0	18 1 0	2 12 10
under 2 inches in thickness, and if 15 feet in length, or upwards, per 120	36 2 0	36 2 0	5 5 3
outside slabs or paling boards, hewed on one side, not exceeding 7 feet in length, and not above 1 1-2 inch in thickness, per 120	2 0 0	1 17 3	0 5 0
outside slabs or paling boards, hewed on one side, exceeding 7 feet in length, and not exceeding 12 feet in length, and not above 1 1-2 inch in thickness, per 120	4 0 0	3 14 6	0 10 0
outside slabs or paling boards, hewed on one side, exceeding 12 feet in length, or exceeding 1 1-2 inch in thickness, are subject and liable to the duties payable on deals.			
outside slabs or paling boards, hewed on one side, of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, viz.			
not exceeding 7 feet in length, and not above 1 1-2 inch in thickness, per 120	0 5 0	0 3 4	Free.
exceeding 7 feet in length and not exceeding 12 feet in length, and not above 1 1-2 inch in thickness, per 120	0 10 0	0 3 4	Free.
exceeding 12 feet in length, or exceeding 1 1-2 inch in thickness, are subject and liable to the duties payable on deals.			
See Note at the end of Wood.			
pipe boards, viz.			
above 5 feet 3 inches in length and not exceeding 8 feet in length, and under 8 inches square, per 120	9 3 0	9 3 0	1 10 0
exceeding 8 feet in length, and under 8 inches square, per 120	18 6 0	18 6 0	3 0 0
of all sorts, exceeding 5 feet 3 inches in length, and under 8 inches square, of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, per 120	0 19 6	0 19 6	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
wainscot boards, viz.			
the foot, containing 12 feet in length, and 1 inch in thickness, and so in proportion for any greater or lesser length or thickness	0 4 0	0 5 6	0 0 9
boards of all sorts, not otherwise enumerated or described, of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, per 120	0 3 4	0 3 4	Free.
bowsprits. *See* Masts.			
deals, to be used in mines, viz.			
above 7 inches in width, being 3 feet in length and not above 10 feet in length, and not exceeding 1 1-2 inch in thickness, per 120	3 2 6	3 2 6	No rate.
deals imported into Great Britain, viz.			
above 7 inches in width, being 6 feet in length and not above 16 feet in length, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	19 0 0	20 15 3 3 to 20 feet.	As below.
above 7 inches in width, above 16 feet in length and not above 21 feet in length, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	22 0 0	20 3 3 above 20 feet.	As below
above 7 inches in width, above 21 feet in length and not above 45 feet in length, and not above 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	44 0 0	51 3 3	As below.

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1834.	Duty, 1818.	Duty, 1787.
	L. s. d.	L. s. d.	L. s. d.
Wood—*continued.*			
deals, above 7 inches wide, viz.			
6 feet to 20 feet long, not above 3 1-4 inches thick, per 120	. .	. .	2 13 0
6 feet to 20 feet long, above 3 1-4 inches thick, per 120	. .	. .	5 6 0
above 20 feet long, not above 4 inches thick, per 120	. .	. .	5 19 0
above 20 feet long, above 4 inches thick, per 120	. .	. .	11 18 0
above 45 feet in length, or above 3 1-4 inches in thickness (not being timber 9 inches square or upwards), the load, containing 50 cubic feet	2 10 0	100 6 0 the 120,	No rate.
and further, per 120	6 0 0		
deals of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence into Great Britain, viz.			
above 7 inches in width, being 6 feet in length and not above 16 feet in length, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	2 0 0	0 3 4	Free.
above 7 inches in width, above 16 feet in length and not above 21 feet in length, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	2 10 0	0 3 4	Free.
above 7 inches in width, being 6 feet in length and not above 21 feet in length, and exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	4 0 0	0 3 4	Free.
above 7 inches in width, exceeding 21 feet in length, and not exceeding 4 inches in thickness, per 120	5 0 0	0 3 4	Free.
above 7 inches in width, exceeding 21 feet in length, and exceeding 4 inches in thickness (not being timber 9 inches square or upwards), per 120	10 0 0	0 3 4	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
deals imported into Ireland, viz.			
above 7 inches in width and not exceeding 12 inches in width, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, viz.			
6 feet in length and not exceeding 12 feet in length, per 120	12 9 5	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 12 feet in length and not exceeding 14 feet in length, per 120	14 11 0	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 14 feet in length and not exceeding 16 feet in length, per 120	16 12 6	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 16 feet in length and not exceeding 18 feet in length, per 120	18 14 1	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 18 feet in length and not exceeding 20 feet in length, per 120	20 15 7	Ireland.	Ireland.
above 7 inches in width and not exceeding 12 inches in width, and exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, viz.			
6 feet in length and not exceeding 20 feet in length, per 120	41 11 8	Ireland.	Ireland.
above 7 inches in width and not exceeding 12 inches in width, and not exceeding 4 inches in thickness, and exceeding 20 feet in length, per 120	51 9 8	Ireland.	Ireland.
above 7 inches in width and not exceeding 12 inches in width, and exceeding 4 inches in thickness, and exceeding 20 feet in length, per 120	100 6 1	Ireland.	Ireland.
deal ends imported into Great Britain, viz.			
above 7 inches in width, being under 6 feet in length, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	6 0 0	7 1 9 under 6 feet.	0 17 8 under 6 feet.
above 7 inches in width, being under 6 feet in length, and exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	12 0 0	15 14 9 under 6 feet.	1 15 4 under 6 feet.
deal ends of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence into Great Britain, viz.			
above 7 inches in width, being under 6 feet in length, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	0 15 0	0 3 4	Free.
above 7 inches in width, being under 6 feet in length, and exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	1 10 0	0 3 4	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
deal ends imported into Ireland, viz.			
above 7 inches in width and not exceeding 12 inches in width, and under 6 feet in length, viz.			
not exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	7 1 8	Ireland.	Ireland.
exceeding 3 1-4 inches in thickness, per 120	15 14 8	Ireland.	Ireland.
deals and deal ends, viz.			
of all sorts, of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence into Ireland, per 120	0 3 8	Ireland.	Ireland.
and further, on all deals and deal ends, imported into Ireland, of the aforesaid lengths and thicknesses, but of the following widths, the additional duties following, viz.			
if exceeding 12 inches in width and not exceeding 15 inches in width, 25 per cent., or 1-4 of the aforesaid rates.			
if exceeding 15 inches in width and not exceeding 18 inches in width, 50 per cent., or 1-2 of the aforesaid rates.			
if exceeding 18 inches in width and not exceeding 21 inches in width, 75 per cent., or 3-4 of the aforesaid rates.			
if exceeding 21 inches in width, 100 per cent., or an additional duty of equal to the aforesaid rates, respectively.			
firewood not fit or proper to be used other than as such, viz.			
the fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	0 19 0	0 19 0	0 3 8
imported from any British possession in America, the fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	0 0 10	0 0 10	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
fir quarters, viz.			
under 5 inches square and under 24 feet in length, per 120	18 8 7	18 8 7	1 1 8
under 5 inches square and 24 feet in length or upwards, per 120	37 0 0	20 0 0 per cent.	2 13 0 per 120.
5 inches square or upwards are subject and liable to the duties payable on fir timber.			
fir quarters of the growth and produce of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, viz.			
under 5 inches square, and under 24 feet in length, per 120	2 5 0	0 16 8	Free.
under 5 inches square, and 24 feet in length, or upwards, per 120	4 17 6	0 16 8	Free.
5 inches square or upwards are subject and liable to the duties payable on fir timber.			
See Note at the end of Wood.			

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1834.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
Wool—continued.			
timber. *See* Timber.			
handspikes, viz.			
under 7 feet in length, per 120	2 0 0	2 7 6	0 6 8
7 feet in length or upwards, per 120	4 0 0	4 15 0	0 13 4
handspikes imported from any British possession in America, viz.			
under 7 feet in length, per 120	0 2 6	0 2 9	Free.
7 feet in length or upwards, per 120	0 5 0	0 4 6	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
knees of oak, viz.			
under 5 inches square, per 120	0 10 0	0 12 0	0 3 4
5 inches square and under 8 inches square, per 120	4 0 0	4 17 6	1 15 0
8 inches square or upwards, per load containing 50 cubic feet	1 6 0	1 11 0	0 9 11
knees of oak imported from any British possession in America, viz.			
under 5 inches square, per 120	0 2 0	0 2 4	Free.
5 inches square and under 8 inches square, per 120	0 15 0	0 3 4	Free.
8 inches square or upwards, per load containing 50 cubic feet	0 5 0	0 5 6	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
lathwood, viz.			
in pieces under 5 feet in length, per fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	4 5 0	4 17 6	0 13 3
in pieces 5 feet in length and under 8 feet in length, per fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	6 16 0	7 5 0	0 19 10
8 feet in length and under 12 feet in length, per fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	10 4 0	7 5 0	0 19 10
12 feet long or upwards, per fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	13 13 6	7 5 0	0 19 10
lathwood imported from any British possession in America, viz.			
in pieces under 5 feet in length, per fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	0 15 9	0 6 0	Free.
in pieces 5 feet in length or upwards, per fathom, 6 feet wide and 6 feet high	1 5 0	0 6 0	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
masts, yards, or bowsprits, viz.			
6 inches in diameter and under 8 inches, each	0 8 0	0 9 6	0 1 1½
8 inches in diameter and under 12 inches, each	1 2 0	1 6 2	0 3 4
12 inches in diameter or upwards, per load containing 50 cubic feet	2 15 0	3 5 0	0 6 8
masts, yards, or bowsprits, imported from any British possession in America, viz.			
6 inches in diameter and under 8 inches, each	0 1 6	0 3 2	0 1 1½
8 inches in diameter and under 12 inches, each	0 4 8	0 3 4	0 3 4
12 inches in diameter or upwards, per load containing 50 cubic feet	0 10 0	1 10 6	0 6 8
oak plank, viz.			
2 inches in thickness or upwards, per load containing 50 cubic feet	4 0 0	5 16 6	0 19 10
oak plank of the growth of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, viz.			
2 inches in thickness or upwards, per load containing 50 cubic feet	0 15 0	0 3 4 per 120.	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
oak timber. *See* Timber.			
ars, per 120	14 19 3	14 19 3	1 19 6
of the growth of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, per 120	0 19 6	0 19 6	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
spars, viz.			
under 23 feet in length, and under 4 inches in diameter, exclusive of the bark, per 120	2 3 0	2 16 3	0 6 8
23 feet in length or upwards, and under 4 inches in diameter, exclusive of the bark, per 120	4 5 0	4 17 6	0 11 0
4 inches in diameter and under 6 inches in diameter, exclusive of the bark, per 120	9 0 0	10 11 6	1 4 3
of the growth of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, viz.			
under 23 feet in length, and under 4 inches in diameter, exclusive of the bark, per 120	0 3 0	0 16 3	Free.
23 feet in length or upwards, and under 4 inches in diameter, exclusive of the bark, per 120	0 16 0	0 16 3	Free.
4 inches in diameter and under 6 inches in diameter, exclusive of the bark, per 120	1 15 0	0 16 3	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
spokes for wheels, viz.			
not exceeding 2 feet in length, per 1,000	3 7 4	3 7 4	0 19 10
exceeding 2 feet in length, per 1,000	6 14 8	6 14 8	0 19 10
of all sorts, of the growth of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, per 1,000	0 6 4	0 6 4	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
staves, viz.			
not exceeding 36 inches in length, not above 3 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	1 3 0	1 6 2	0 4 0
above 36 inches in length and not exceeding 60 inches in length, not above 3 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	2 6 0	2 9 2	0 7 6
above 60 inches in length and not exceeding 60 inches in length, not above 3 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	3 0 0	3 5 0	0 10 0
above 60 inches in length and not exceeding 72 inches in length, not above 3 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	4 4 0	4 15 10	0 15 0
above 72 inches in length, not above 3 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	4 16 0	5 3 6	0 17 6
above 3 inches in thickness, or above 7 inches in breadth, and not exceeding 63 inches in length, shall be deemed clap boards, and be charged with duty accordingly.			
above 3 inches in thickness, or above 7 inches in breadth, and exceeding 63 inches in length, shall be deemed pipe boards, and be charged with duty accordingly.			
staves imported from any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, viz.			
not exceeding 36 inches in length, not above 3½ inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	0 2 0	0 1 3	Free.

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan. 1834.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
Wood—*continued.*			
staves—*continued.*			
above 36 inches in length and not exceeding 50 inches in length, not above 3 1-2 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	0 4 0	0 1 8	Free.
above 50 inches in length and not exceeding 60 inches in length, not above 3 1-2 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	0 6 0	0 2 6	Free.
above 60 inches in length and not exceeding 72 inches in length, not above 3 1-2 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	0 8 0	0 2 6	Free.
above 72 inches in length, not above 3 1-2 inches in thickness, and not exceeding 7 inches in breadth, per 120	0 10 0	0 2 6	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
not exceeding 1 1-2 inches in thickness shall be charged with 1-3d part of the duty herein proposed on such staves.			
above 3 1-2 inches in thickness, or above 7 inches in breadth, and not exceeding 63 inches in length, shall be deemed clap boards, and be charged with duty accordingly.			
above 3½ inches in thickness, or above 7 inches in breadth, and exceeding 63 inches in length, shall be deemed pipe boards, and be charged with duty accordingly.			
teak wood, per load, containing 50 cubic feet	1 10 0	1 10 0	0 6 8
imported from any British possession in Africa, per load, containing 50 cubic feet	0 10 0	1 10 0	0 6 8
imported from any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, per load, containing 50 cubic feet	0 0 1	1 10 0	0 6 8
imported from any other place within those limits, per load, containing 50 cubic feet	0 10 0	1 10 0	0 6 8
timber, viz.			
fir timber, 8 inches square or upwards, per load, containing 50 cubic feet	2 15 0	3 5 0	0 6 8
fir timber imported from any British possession in America, 8 inches square or upwards, per load, containing 50 cubic feet	0 10 0	0 2 6	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
oak timber, 8 inches square or upwards, per load, containing 50 cubic feet	2 15 0	3 1 9	0 6 8
oak timber of the growth of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, 8 inches square or upwards, per load, containing 50 cubic feet	0 10 0	0 5 6	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
timber of all sorts, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, being 8 inches square or upwards, per load, containing 50 cubic feet	1 8 0	1 12 6	0 6 8
timber of all sorts, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, being of the growth of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, being 8 inches square or upwards, per load, containing 50 cubic feet	0 5 0	0 2 6	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
ufers, viz.			
under 5 inches square, and under 24 feet in length, the 120	16 2 7	18 2 7	1 1 8
under 5 inches square, and 24 feet in length or upwards, per 120	27 0 0	20 0 0 per cent.	2 13 0 per 120
5 inches square or upwards are subject and liable to the duties payable on fir timber.			
ufers imported from any British possession in America, viz.			
under 5 inches square, and under 24 feet in length, per 120	3 5 0	0 16 3	Free.
under 5 inches square, and 24 feet in length or upwards, per 120	4 17 6	0 16 3	Free.
5 inches square or upwards are subject and liable to the duties payable on fir timber.			
See Note at the end of Wood.			
wainscot logs, viz.			
8 inches square or upwards, per load, containing 50 cubic feet	2 15 0	4 3 6	0 3 11
of the growth of any British possession in America, and imported directly from thence, per load, containing 50 cubic feet	0 13 0	0 5 6	Free.
unmanufactured, of the growth of any British possession in America, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 100*l.* value	5 0 0	5 16 9	Free.
unmanufactured, not particularly enumerated or described, and on which the duties due on the importation are payable according to the value thereof, being of the growth of the British limits within the province of Yucatan in the Bay of Honduras, and imported directly from the said bay, for every 100*l.* of the value	5 0 0	5 16 9	Free.
See Note at the end of Wood.			
unmanufactured, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	20 0 0	33 0 0
Note.—For the conditions under which any sort of wood, plank, or timber whatsoever, wrought or unwrought (except masts, yards, or bowsprits), or any of the goods called lumber (enumerated in act 9 Geo. 1. c. 12.), may be imported directly from any of his Majesty's British possessions in America free from all customs and impositions, see 9 Geo. 1. c. 12., 26 Geo. 3. c. 55., 36 Geo. 3. c. 60., and 11 Geo. 4. c. 41.			
Wool, viz.			
beaver wool, per lb.	0 1 7	0 1 7	Free.
cut and combed, per lb.	0 4 9	0 4 9	0 16 6
coney wool, per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 6	0 0 1½
cotton wool, or waste of cotton wool, per cwt.	0 2 11	0 9 7½	0 9 4
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession, per cwt.	0 0 4	0 7 0	Free.
goat's wool or hair, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 6	Free.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession	Free.	0 0 6	Free.
hares' wool, per lb.	0 0 2	0 0 2½	0 0 1
lambs' wool. *See* Sheep's wool.			
rel or Vicuna wool, per lb.	0 0 6	0 0 6	Free.
sheep or lambs' wool, viz.			
not being of the value of 1*s.* the lb. thereof, per lb.	0 0 0½	0 0 6	Free.
being of the value of 1*s.* the lb. or upwards, per lb.	0 0 1	0 0 6	Free.
the produce of, and imported from, any British possession	Free.	0 0 1	Free.

Articles.	Duty, 1 Jan., 1834.	Duty, 1819.	Duty, 1787.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
Woollens, viz. manufactures of wool not being goats' wool, or of wool mixed with cotton, not particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, for every 100*l.* value	15 0 0	50 0 0	Prohibited.
articles of manufactures of wool (not being goats' wool) or of wool mixed with cotton, wholly or in part made up, not otherwise charged with duty, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	50 0 0	
Wreck. *See* Derelict.			
Y.			
Yarn, viz. cable yarn, per cwt.	0 10 9	1 1 6	0 8 6
camel or mohair yarn, per lb.	0 0 1	0 1 7	0 0 7
raw linen yarn, per cwt.	0 1 0	0 1 0	Free.
worsted yarn, per lb.	0 0 6	0 1 7	0 0 10
Z.			
Zaffre, per cwt.	0 1 0	20 0 0 per cent.	27 10 0 per cent.
Zebra wood, per ton	2 0 0	20 0 0 per cent.	53 0 0 per cent.
Goods, wares, and merchandise, being either in part or wholly manufactured, and not being enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, and not prohibited to be imported into or used in Great Britain or Ireland, for every 100*l.* value	20 0 0	50 0 0	27 10 0
Goods, wares, and merchandise, not being either in part or wholly manufactured, and not being enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, and not prohibited to be imported into or used in Great Britain or Ireland, for every 100*l.* value	5 0 0	20 0 0	27 10 0

Note.—All goods, the produce or manufacture of the island of Mauritius, are subject to the same duties as are imposed in this Table on the like goods, the produce or manufacture of the British possessions in the West Indies.

All goods, the produce or manufacture of the Cape of Good Hope or the territories or dependencies thereof, are subject to the same duties as are imposed in this Table on the like goods, the produce or manufacture of the British possessions within the limits of the East India Company's charter, except when any other duty is expressly imposed thereon.

Duties of Customs Outwards.

A Table of Duties of Customs payable on Goods, Wares, and Merchandise exported from the United Kingdom to Foreign Parts.

	L. s. d.
Coals, not being small coals, exported to any place not being a British possession, viz.	
in a British ship, per ton	0 3 4
in a ship not British, per ton	0 6 8
Small coals, culm, and cinders exported to any place not being a British possession, viz.	
in a British ship, per ton	0 2 0
in a ship not British, per ton	0 4 0
Hare skins and coney skins, per 100 skins	0 1 0
Hare wool and coney wool, per cwt.	0 1 0
Sheep and lamb wool, per cwt.	0 1 0
Woollens, mortlings, shortlings, yarn, worsted, woollocks, crewels, coverlets, waddings, or other manufactures or pretended manufactures, slightly wrought up, so as that the same may be reduced to and made use of as wool again, mattresses or beds stuffed with combed wool or wool fit for combing or carding, per cwt.	0 1 0
Goods, wares, and merchandise of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom (not being subject to other export duty, nor particularly exempted from export duty), for every 100*l.* value	0 10 0
Except the following articles, viz.	
Bullion and coin.	
Corn, grain, meal, malt, flour, biscuit, bran, grits, pearl barley, and Scotch barley	
Cotton yarn or other cotton manufactures.	
Fish.	
Linen, or linen with cotton mixed.	
Molasses or treacle.	
Military clothing, accoutrements, or appointments exported under the authority of the commissioners of his Majesty's treasury, and sent to any of his Majesty's forces serving abroad.	
Military stores exported to India by the East India Company.	
Salt.	
Sugar, refined, of all sorts, and sugar candy.	
Goods, wares, and merchandise exported to the Isle of Man by virtue of any licence which the commissioners of his Majesty's customs may be empowered to grant.	
Any sort of craft, food, victuals, clothing, or implements or materials necessary for the British fisheries established in any of the British possessions in North America, and exported direct thereto.	
Wool.	
Woollen goods, or woollen and cotton mixed, or woollen and linen mixed, exported to any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter.	

Inland Duties of Excise.

	L. s. d.
Bricks, not exceeding 10 inches long, 3 inches thick, and 5 inches wide, per 1,000	0 5 10
exceeding the above dimensions, per 1,000	0 10 0
smoothed or polished 1 or more sides, not exceeding 10 inches long by 5 inches wide, per 1,000	0 12 10
not exceeding 10 inches square, per 100	0 2 5
exceeding 10 inches square, per 100	0 4 10
Glass, viz. flint, per lb.	0 0 6
broad, per cwt.	1 10 0
crown, per cwt.	3 14 6
plate, in plates or sheets of not less size than 6 in. by 4 in., and not less than 1-8th nor more than 5-8ths of an inch in thickness, per cwt.	2 0 0
other than in such plates or sheets, per cwt.	4 18 0
common bottles, per cwt.	0 7 0
Hops, per lb.	0 0 2
Malt, made from barley, per bushel	0 2 7
made from bear or bigg only, in Scotland or Ireland, per bushel	0 2 0
Mead, or metheglin, per gallon	0 0 6
Paper, first class, viz. all paper other than brown paper, made of old ropes or cordage only, per lb.	0 0 3
second class, viz. all brown paper, made of old ropes and cordage only, per lb.	0 0 1½
Paper—*continued.* glazed paper, millboard, and scaleboard, per cwt.	1 1 0
pasteboard, made wholly of second class paper, per cwt.	0 14 0
made wholly or in part of paper other than the second class, per cwt.	1 8 0
printed, painted, or stained, per yard	0 0 1½
Soap, viz. hard, per lb.	0 0 1½
soft, per lb.	0 0 1
Spirits, made in England, per gallon	0 7 6
made in Scotland or Ireland, for home consumption, per gallon	0 3 4
imported from Scotland or Ireland into England, per gallon	0 7 6
Starch, or British gum, or any preparation of or from starch, per lb.	0 0 2
Stone bottles, not exceeding 2 quarts measure, per cwt.	0 5 0
Sweets, or liquors made by infusion, fermentation, or otherwise, from fruit or sugar, or from fruit and sugar mixed with any other ingredients or materials whatsoever, commonly called sweets or made wines, per gallon	0 0 6
Vinegar, or acetous acid, or liquors prepared or preparing for vinegar, or acetous acid, per gallon	0 0 3

Customs and Excise Drawbacks.

	£ s. d.
Beer, brewed by any entered brewer, for sale in the United Kingdom, and duly exported from any part of the same to foreign parts, as merchandise, per barrel of 36 gallons imperial measure	0 5 0
Bricks, not exceeding 10 inches long, 3 inches thick, and 5 inches wide, per 1,000	0 5 10
exceeding the above dimensions, per 1,000	0 10 0
smoothed or polished on 1 or more sides, not exceeding 10 in. long by 5 in. wide, per 1,000	0 12 10
not exceeding 10 inches square, per 100	0 2 5
exceeding 10 inches square, per 100	0 4 10
Glass, viz. flint, per lb.	0 0 6
broad, per cwt.	1 10 0
crown, per cwt.	3 13 6
plate, in plates or sheets of not less size than 6 in. by 4 in., and not less than 1-8th nor more than 5-8ths of an inch in thickness, per cwt.	3 0 0
other than in such plates or sheets, per cwt.	4 13 0
common bottles, per cwt.	0 7 0
Hops, per lb.	0 0 2
Paper, first class, viz. all paper other than brown paper, made of old ropes or cordage only, per lb.	0 0 3
second class, viz. all brown paper, made of old ropes and cordage only, per lb.	0 0 1½
glazed paper, millboard, and scaleboard, per cwt.	1 1 0
pasteboard, made wholly of second class paper, per cwt.	0 14 0
made wholly or in part of paper other than the second class, per cwt.	1 8 0
printed, painted, or stained, per yard	0 0 2
Plate, of wrought gold, manufactured in Great Britain, and which shall or ought to be assayed and marked in Great Britain, viz.	
made since the 1st Dec., 1784, per oz.	0 3 0
made since the 5th July, 1797, per oz.	0 16 0
made since the 31st August, 1815, per oz.	0 17 0
No drawback allowed on gold watch cases of any weight, nor shall any drawback be allowed on any articles of gold, not exceeding the weight of 2 ounces; and if any person shall export any manufacture of gold not duly marked, to denote the standard of 22 or 18 carats of fine gold in every lb. Troy, he shall forfeit 50l. Gold of the fineness of 18 carats to be marked with a "crown and the figures 18."—(38 Geo. 3. c. 69., 55 Geo. 3. c. 185., and 1 Geo. 4. c. 14.)	
of wrought silver, manufactured in Great Britain, and which shall or ought to be assayed and marked in Great Britain, viz.	
made since the 1st Dec. 1784, per oz.	0 0 6
made since the 5th July, 1797, per oz.	0 1 0
made since the 10th Oct. 1804, per oz.	0 1 3
made since the 31st Aug., 1815, per oz.	0 1 6
No drawback allowed on silver watch cases, chains, necklaces, beads, lockets, filigree work, shirt buckles or brooches, stamped medals, and spouts to china, stone, or earthenware teapots, whatever the weight; nor on tippings, swages, or mounts, not weighing 10 dwts. of silver each, and not being necks or collars for castors, or cruets, or glasses, appertaining to any sorts of stands or frames; wares of silver not weighing 5 dwts. of silver each, but this exemption not to include necks, tops, and collars for castors, cruets, or glasses appertaining to any sort of stands or frames; buttons to be affixed to or set on any wearing apparel, solid silver buttons and solid silver studs, not having a bevelled edge soldered on; wrought seals, blank seals, bottle tickets, shoe clasps, patch boxes, salt spoons, salt ladles, tea spoons, tea strainers, caddy ladles, buckles, and pieces to garnish cabinets, or knife cases, tea chests, bridles, stands, or frames.—(55 Geo. 3. c. 185.)	
Rice.—Upon the exportation from the United Kingdom of any foreign rice or paddy, cleaned therein, and which have paid the duties on importation, a drawback shall be allowed & paid for every hundred weight thereof, equal in amount to the duty paid on every 4 bu. of the rough rice, or paddy, from which the same shall have been cleaned, viz. per cwt.	0 10 0
Silk goods manufactured in the United Kingdom, viz. for every pound of stuffs or ribands of silk, composed of silk only, and being of the value of 14s. at least	0 3 6
for every pound of stuffs or ribands of silk and cotton mixed, whereof 1-3 at least shall be silk, and being of the value of 6s. 9d. at least	0 1 2
for every pound of stuffs or ribands of silk and worsted mixed, whereof 1-2 at least shall be silk, and being of the value of 2s. 4d. at least	0 0 7
Soap, viz. hard, per lb.	0 0 1½
soft, per lb.	0 0 1
Starch, or British gum, or any preparation of or from starch, per lb.	0 0 3½
Stone bottles, not exceeding 2 quarts mean., per cwt.	0 5 0
Sugar (refined), viz.	
bastard sugar, or refined loaf sugar broken in pieces, or being ground or powdered sugar, or such sugar pounded, crushed, or broken, exported in a British ship, per cwt.	1 4 0
exported in a ship not British, per cwt.	1 5 0
other refined sugar in loaf, complete and whole, or lumps duly refined, having been perfectly clarified and thoroughly dried in the stove, and being of a uniform whiteness throughout; or such sugar pounded, crushed, or broken, and sugar candy, exported in a Brit. ship, per cwt.	1 16 10
exported in a ship not British, per cwt.	1 15 10
double refined sugar, and sugar equal in quality to double refined sugar, additional bounty, per cwt.	0 6 4
Tobacco, manufactured in the United Kingdom, at or within 2 miles of any port into which tobacco may be imported, made into shag, roll, cut, or carrot tobacco, per lb.	0 2 7½
Wine, the produce of the Cape of Good Hope, or of the territories or dependencies thereof, and imported direct, per gallon	0 2 9
French, Portuguese, Canary, Fayal, Madeira, Spanish, and other wines not enumerated, per gallon	0 5 6

Countervailing Duties.

Schedule of countervailing duties payable on the importation of certain articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of Great Britain and Ireland respectively; and of the drawbacks allowed on exportation from either country to the other. The following duties are payable on Irish articles brought for consumption into Great Britain, and the like amount is drawn back on the exportation of similar British articles to Ireland, except in the case of British hops sent to Ireland, on which no drawback is allowed.

	£ s. d.
Bottles, of stone, not exceeding 2 quarts in measure, or the mouth or neck of which shall not exceed in diameter, in the narrowest part of the inside, 3 inches; or if made for blacking, and shall not exceed 1 pint in measure, and the mouth or neck of which shall not be less than 1 1-2 inch in diameter in the narrowest part of the inside, and which shall be permanently stamped with the words "blacking bottles," per cwt.	0 5 0
Bricks, not exceeding 10 inches long, 3 inches thick, and 5 inches wide, per 1,000	0 5 10
exceeding the above dimensions, per 1,000	0 10 0
smoothed or polished on 1 or more sides, not exceeding 10 inches long by 5 inches wide, per 1,000	0 12 10
not exceeding 10 inches square, per 100	0 2 5
exceeding 10 inches square, per 100	0 4 10
Hops, per lb.	0 0 2
Plate, of wrought gold, per oz. Troy	0 16 0
Plate, of wrought silver, per oz. Troy	0 0 6
Soap, viz. hard soap, per lb.	0 0 1½
soft, per lb.	0 0 1
Spirits, made and extracted in Ireland, and warehoused there without payment of duty, and imported into England, for every 100 gallons imperial measure, of spirits of the strength of proof, as denoted by Sykes's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater or less degree of strength, or any greater or less quantity.—(6 Geo. 4. c. 80. & Will. 4. c. 49.)	37 10 0
duty paid in Ireland, and imported into England, per gallon	0 4 9
Starch, or British gum, or any preparation of or from starch, per lb.	0 0 3½
All other articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of Great Britain or Ireland, to pass from either country to the other without duty or drawback.	

Remarks on Duties Inwards.—The Table of duties inwards previously laid before the reader, affords copious materials for reflection and comparison. Excepting a very few articles, such as silk, linens, gloves, &c., that were prohibited, the highest duties in 1787 seldom exceeded 27*l.* 10*s.* per cent. *ad valorem*. In the interval between 1787 and 1819 a good many changes were made in the mode of assessing the duties; several of those that were charged on the *ad valorem* principle at the former epoch, being changed into rated duties at the latter. The extraordinary rise of duties in the interval referred to is, however, the most striking circumstance. The fact, that in the arithmetic of the customs, 2 and 2, instead of always making 4, sometimes make only 1, was then totally forgotten. During the war, it does not seem to have once occurred to any of our finance ministers, that every increase of price necessarily lessens consumption; and that, were twice the quantity of a

commodity made use of, under a duty of 1*s.* or 5*s.* per lb., cwt. &c., that would be made use of under a duty of 2*s.* or 10*s.*, the revenue would gain nothing by the increase, while the comforts of the consumers would be materially lessened. They proceeded on a more compendious plan; and concluded that, because an article subjected to a duty yielded a certain revenue, it would yield twice, three, or four times as much were the duty doubled, trebled, or quadrupled! Consistently with this principle, if we may so term it, the duties on tea were raised from 12½ to 100 per cent.; those on sugar from 12*s.* 4*d.* to 30*s.* a cwt.; on pepper from 3*d.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb.; on brandy and geneva from 6*s.* to 22*s.* 6*d.* a gallon; on port wine from 37*l.* 16*s.* to 114*l.* 13*s.* a tun, &c.; while the *ad valorem* duties were mostly all either doubled or trebled! Mr. Vansittart carried this system to an extreme; so much so, that the enormous additions made during his administration to the duties, by checking consumption, or diverting it into illegitimate channels, or both, in most cases added nothing whatever to the revenue, and frequently even occasioned its reduction! Since 1825, however, a very great improvement has been made in the system of duties. Many of those that were most oppressive have been materially reduced, while not a few have been wholly repealed; and we are glad to have to add, that in every instance in which oppressive duties have been adequately reduced, a greater amount of revenue has been derived from the lower rate of duty than from the higher.—(See COFFEE, MALT, SPIRITS, WINE, &c.) The existing tariff is, in fact, in many respects, preferable to that of 1787. The most objectionable of the present duties are those on timber, corn, brandy, geneva, sugar, tobacco, currants, and a few others; and of these, the first-mentioned 4 are not really imposed for the sake of revenue, but to bolster up peculiar interests. We have elsewhere pointed out the practical operation of the duties in question, and their mischievous influence on the public interests.—(See TIMBER, CORN LAWS AND CORN TRADE, BRANDY, &c.) It is not surely possible that these duties can be allowed to continue much longer on their present footing. Experience has shown that, instead of increasing, excessive duties powerfully contribute to diminish revenue; at the same time that they give rise to a vast amount of smuggling and demoralisation, which it is impossible to get rid of otherwise than by their reduction. It is, besides, the bounden duty of government to make the interests of the few submit to those of the many; and there is plainly neither sense nor justice in inflicting an injury on the public by imposing duties, not for the sake of revenue—the only legitimate purpose for which they can be imposed—but to enable a limited number of individuals to linger on in disadvantageous businesses. The change from a bad to a better system ought, no doubt, to be cautiously and gradually brought about. But the longer the period required for the transition, the less ought to be the delay in entering upon it.

Drawbacks.—The fewness of the drawbacks at present, compared with their number a few years ago, is a consequence of the extension of the warehousing and bonding system. When goods of all sorts may be freely imported and lodged in warehouses without paying any duty, the necessity of granting drawbacks is obviated; and, while all commercial operations are facilitated, frauds are prevented.

(Instead of the customs duties on the undermentioned articles, imposed by the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 56., given in the first column of the foregoing Table entitled TARIFF, the acts 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 89., 5 & 6 Will. 4. c. 32., 6 & 7 Will. 4. c. 60., and 1 & 2 Vict. c. 113., &c. have substituted the following:—

	L.	*s.*	*d.*
Arkeyen or Kyabucca wood . . . the ton	10	0	0
Apples, dried . . . . . the bushel	0	2	0
Apples, raw, for every 100*l.* of the value . .	5	0	0
Arrowroot . . . . . the lb.	0	0	1
Ashes, pearl and pot, imported from a British possession in Europe . . . . . the cwt.	0	6	0
Asphaltum or Bitumen Judaicum . . . the ton	0	1	0
Beads of glass . . . . . the lb.	0	1	0
Beech wood . . . . . the ton	2	0	0
Books in the foreign living languages, being of editions printed in or since the year 1801, bound or unbound . . . . . the cwt.	2	10	0
Bottles of earth or stone, viz. empty . . the dozen	0	0	6
full	Free.		
Boxwood . . . . . the ton	0	10	0
Brass, viz. all works of art made of brass, the cwt.	1	0	0
other manufactures of brass, for every 100*l.* of the value	30	0	0
Bricks . . . . . the lb.	0	1	0
Cassia powder or starch, the produce of and imported from any British possession in America . . the cwt.	0	1	0
Cassia lignea . . . . . the lb.	0	0	1
Cedar . . . . . the ton	0	10	0
Chalk, viz., prepared, or otherwise manufactured, the value of value	10	0	0
Chalk, unmanufactured, the 100*l.* of value . .	5	0	0
Charcoal, raw, for every 100*l.* of the value . .	5	0	0
Chicory, or any other vegetable matter applicable to the use of chicory or coffee—viz., raw or kiln-dried . . . . . the cwt.	1	0	0
Roasted or ground . . . . . the cwt.	2	10	0
Clinkers, called Dutch clinkers . . . the 1,000	0	10	0
Cochineal and Granilla, from the 5th of January, 1839 . . . . . the cwt.	0	1	0
Coffee, the produce of, and imported from Sierra Leone, or any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter . . . . . the pound	0	0	6
Currants . . . . . the cwt.	1	2	2

	L.	*s.*	*d.*
Drugs, not particularly enumerated or charged with duty in this or any other act . . . per cwt.	0	2	0
Ebony, the produce of or imported from, any foreign country . . . . . the ton	0	10	0
Feathers, viz., ostrich, undressed . . . the lb.	0	1	0
Ditto, viz., paddy bird . . . . . the lb.	0	1	0
Figs . . . . . the cwt.	0	15	0
Flower roots, the 100*l.* of value	5	0	0
Ginger, preserved, the produce of, or imported from, any foreign country . . . . . the lb.	0	0	6
Grapes, for every 100*l.* of the value . . .	5	0	0
Hats or bonnets, viz.:—			
Chip, or platting of chip . . . the lb.	0	8	0
Straw, each hat or bonnet not exceeding 24 inches in diameter . . . . . the dozen	8	8	0
Hides, viz., sea cow, elephant, and eland, or large deer hides, the produce of and imported from the British possessions, viz.:—			
not tanned, tawed, curried or in any way dressed, viz.—			
dry . . . . . the cwt.	0	2	4
wet . . . . . the cwt.	0	1	2
tawed, and not otherwise dressed . . the lb.	0	0	3
cut or trimmed . . . the lb.	0	0	4½
such hides and pieces of such hides, tawed, curried, or in any way dressed . . . the lb.	0	0	4½
cut or trimmed . . . the lb.	0	0	
Horns, viz.:—			
pieces of horns . . . the ton	0	1	0
horns and horn tips . . . the ton	0	1	0
Iron, viz.:—			
bloom iron . . . . . the ton	0	15	0
Kingwood . . . . . the ton	2	0	0
Lancewood timber or masts . . . the load	0	10	0
Lignum vitæ . . . . . the ton	0	10	0
Mahogany, imported from any foreign country, entered after the 5th of July, 1837 . . . the ton	5	0	0
Mahogany, the produce of and imported from the Bay of Honduras or the Musquito shore . . . the ton	1	10	0

	£.	s.	d.
Maps or Charts, or parts thereof, viz.:—			
plain, each	0	0	1
coloured, each	0	0	2
Marmalade, the produce of, or imported from, any foreign country, the lb.	0	0	6
Mats and matting, for every 100l. of the value	20	0	0
imported from any British possession, for every 100l. of the value	5	0	0
Morphia and its salts, the lb.	0	16	0
Nickel, viz., arseniate of Nickel, in lumps or powder, being in an unrefined state, the 100l. of value	5	0	0
Nickel, metallic, refined, and oxide of nickel, the 100l. of value	20	0	0
Nuts, viz., castor nuts or seed, the ton	0	1	0
Nutmegs, viz.:—			
wild nutmegs in the shell, the lb.	0	1	0
Oil, viz. castor oil, the cwt.	0	1	3
Oil, viz. animal oil, the cwt.	0	2	6
cocoa nut oil, the cwt.	0	1	3
Olive oil, the tun	4	4	0
the produce of or imported from any part of the dominions of the King of the Two Sicilies, after 31st of August, 1834, the tun	2	2	0
imported in a ship belonging to any of the subjects of the King of the Two Sicilies, after 31st of August, 1834, the tun	10	10	0
(*Note.*—See art. *Olive Oil* in this *Supplement.*)			
Olive wood, the produce of, or imported from, any foreign country, the ton	2	10	0
Opium, the lb.	0	1	0
Orange flower water, the lb.	0	0	1
Palm oil, the cwt.	0	1	3
Palmetto thatch, the produce of and imported from the British possessions in America, the cwt.	0	0	1
Pears, dried, the bushel	0	2	0
Pears, raw, for every 100l. of the value	5	0	0
Percussion caps, the 1,000	0	0	4
Plantains, dried, the produce of and imported from the British possessions in America, for every 100l. of the value	5	0	0
Plate, old, not battered up, having been in private use of the importer while residing abroad, and intended for his private use in this kingdom, viz.:—			
Silver, the oz.	0	2	6
Gold, the oz.	1	0	0
Plums, commonly called French plums and prunelles, the cwt.	1	0	0
Prunes, the cwt.	0	7	0
Quinine, sulphate of, the oz.	0	0	6
Rags, viz.: old woollen rags, the ton	0	1	0
Raisins, the cwt.	0	15	0
the produce of and imported from any British possession, the cwt.	0	7	6
Rice, rough, or paddy, the produce of the west coast of Africa, imported from a British possession on that coast, the bushel	0	0	1
Rice, rough in the husk, imported from the west coast of Africa, the quarter	0	0	1
Rosewood, the ton	6	0	0
Seal skins, of British taking, imported direct from the fishery or from a British possession, the doz. skins	0	0	1
Seeds, viz.:—			
Poppy seed, the quarter	0	1	0
Sebadilla seeds, the cwt.	0	4	0
Skins, viz.:—			
Goose skins, undressed, the skin	0	0	8
Speckled wood, the produce of, or imported from, any foreign country, the ton	2	10	0
Spices, viz.:—			
Cloves, the lb.	0	0	6
Mace, the lb.	0	2	6
Pepper, the lb.	0	0	6
Pimento, the lb.	0	0	3
Spirits, viz., liqueurs, the produce of and imported from the British possessions in America, viz.:—			
not being of greater strength than the strength of proof by Sykes's hydrometer, the gallon	0	9	0
being of greater strength, the gallon	0	13	0
Spirits or strong waters, viz.:—			
for every gallon of such spirits, or strong waters, of any strength not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater or less strength than the strength of proof, and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon, viz.:—			
not being spirits or strong waters the produce of any British possession in America, on any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, and not being sweetened spirits, or spirits mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength thereof cannot be exactly ascertained by such hydrometer	1	3	6
Spirits or strong waters, the produce of any British possession in America, not being sweetened spirits, or spirits so mixed as aforesaid	0	9	0
Spirits, or strong waters, the produce of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, not being sweetened spirits, or spirits so mixed as aforesaid	0	15	0
Succades, the produce of, or imported from, any foreign country, the lb.	0	0	6
Sugar, the produce of British India, the cwt.	1	4	0
Sweet wood, the produce of, or imported from, any foreign country, the ton	2	10	0
Tails, viz. buffalo, bull, cow, or ox tails, the cwt.	0	0	6
Tea, the lb.	0	2	1
Teak wood, the load	0	10	0
Teak wood, imported from any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, the load	0	0	1
Teeth, viz. elephant, sea-cow, sea-horse, or sea-morse teeth, the cwt.	0	1	0
Tin, the cwt.	0	15	0
Tin ore, the cwt.	0	10	
Tulip wood, the ton	2	0	0
Verdigris, the lb.	0	0	6
Water, viz., mineral water, the gallon	0	0	1
Wax, viz., bees' wax, unbleached, the produce of the west coast of Africa, and imported from thence, the cwt.	0	10	0

TARIFF, (AUSTRIAN.)—Subjoined is the tariff of the import, export, and transit duties charged in the Austrian empire on some of the most important articles of trade and consumption. It came into operation on the 27th of February, 1838.

The duties imposed by this tariff, though, in some instances, considerably lower than those formerly charged, are still, speaking generally, very heavy. The duty on cotton and woollen goods, for example, is 60 per cent. *ad valorem;* while that on coffee is 38*s.* the English cwt., that on raw sugar for consumption, 32*s.* the cwt., and so forth. There is, in fact, a singular contradiction in the commercial policy of Austria; in some respects it is as liberal as could be wished for, while in others it is selfish and illiberal in the extreme. In all that respects ports and shipping, the legislation of Austria may be advantageously contrasted with that of almost any other nation. All articles are freely admitted into Trieste and Venice, and may be consumed in them, or warehoused and re-exported without being liable to any duty, the port charges being at the same time very reasonable. But the moment that it is attempted to introduce any article from a free port into the interior, it is loaded with oppressive duties, and subjected to vexatious regulations. These have been imposed in the view of protecting and encouraging domestic industry; but it is, perhaps, unnecessary to say that their effect in Austria, as in all other countries, has been precisely the reverse. Instead of trusting to their own exertions, and bringing the inexhaustible resources of science and ingenuity to their aid, the native producers, deprived of the stimulus of competition, depend for success on the efforts of the customs' officers to exclude foreign products, and to secure them a monopoly. There is, consequently, but little improvement. Every thing has about it an air of languor and routine. Most part, also, of the foreign products to be met with in the interior, have found their way there through clandestine channels. The mischievous influence of such a system is, indeed, too obvious to be disputed by any one not interested in its support. The recent modifications of the tariff, and the commercial treaty negotiated with this country, may, we hope, be regarded as the forerunners of still greater changes. A reduction of the duty on most foreign articles to a third or a fourth part of its present amount, would do more than any thing else to promote the industry of the empire, to stimulate commerce, and to increase the customs' revenue. Now that the navigation of the Danube is being opened, a reduction of this sort is more than ever necessary. The introduction of a taste for the productions of foreigners is of all others the most likely means by which the long dormant

energies, and immense productive capacities of Hungary, Transylvania, and the other eastern provinces of the empire, may be stimulated and developed. Unluckily, however, the existing duties must either go far, by excluding foreign products, wholly to prevent the formation of such a taste in the countries referred to, or if they should be imported, it will only be in limited quantities, and through the agency of the smuggler. The latter derives employment and wealth from this vicious system; and were it intended for his advantage, it might be said to be well contrived, and the means judiciously adapted to bring about the desired end. But it is directly opposed to invention and industry; paralyses the manufactures it was intended to protect; and either annihilates all commerce, or makes it redound to the advantage only of those who trample on the laws. No system can be more completely at variance with the paternal intentions of the Austrian government; and its downfall may be expected the moment they become fully aware of its real nature and practical influence.

The great drawback under which Austria labours, is the situation of by far the larger portion of her provinces in the central parts of Europe; and separated from the great marts for their produce, either by a wide tract of intervening country, or by high mountain ridges, Austria is naturally an agricultural country; and, unless compelled by circumstances to divert a portion of her energies to manufactures, will, no doubt, continue such for a lengthened period: and hence, as the products of agricultural industry are at once heavy and bulky in proportion to their value, the advantage of opening improved channels of communication with other countries. In this respect, the free navigation of the Danube is of much importance, though more stress has been laid upon it in this country than it probably deserves. The expense of carrying corn and timber from Hungary to the Black Sea, and thence to the ports of Western Europe, will, we apprehend, always be found too heavy to permit of England or France ever supplying themselves, at least to any considerable extent, with the corn, flax, or timber of Hungary or Transylvania. The cost of conveying produce from the interior of the continent to the nearest shipping ports, is a most important element, which is too generally lost sight of in this country. To show its influence, we may mention that, on the 28th of November, 1838, wheat sold at Lemberg, one of the principal markets of Galicia, for 15*s.* 2*d.* a quarter; when its price at Dantzic, on the 20th of the same month, was 41*s.* 6*d.*; the difference, amounting to 26*s.* 4*d.* a quarter, being occasioned by the difficulty and expense of conveying corn down the Vistula, from Lemberg to Dantzic. We may remark, by the way, that this fact sets in a very striking point of view the absurdity of the statements so frequently put forth in our newspapers, contrasting prices in this country with those in foreign markets, and ascribing their excess in England wholly to the influence of our corn laws.

The Austrian government and people have long been alive to the many advantages that would result from opening a communication between Hungary and Fiume, and other ports on the Adriatic. And notwithstanding the obstacles opposed by the interposition of the Julian Alps, and other mountain ridges, an excellent road has been carried from Carlstadt to Fiume. Still, however, the expenses of the carriage of bulky products are too great to make this route sufficiently available; and the advantage of further improving and cheapening the communication is too obvious to need being pointed out.

TABLE of Import, Export, and Transit Duties levied in the Austrian Empire on the following Articles, as modified by the late Imperial Ordinance in force from the 27th of February, 1838.

Articles.	Duty in Austrian Money and Rates.				Duty in English Money and Rates.			
	Unit of charge.	Import Duty.	Export Duty.	Transit Duty.	Unit of Charge.	Import Duty.	Export Duty	Transit Duty.
		fl. k.	fl. k.	fl. k.		L. s. d.	L. s. d.	d.
Arms, fire, all kinds	per 1 fl. value	0 12	0 01·4	0 12	ad valorem	20 0 0	0 0 01·10	20
Bed and all kinds of butchers' meat, fresh	gross centner	0 50	0 11·4	0 2	123 1-3 lbs.	0 1 8	0 0 05·8	0 1·5
salted	—	2 56	0 61·4	0 2	—	0 4 11	0 0 23·8	0 4·5
from Hungary	—	1 40	0 61·4	0 2	—	0 2 8	0 0 23·8	0 4·5
Beer in casks	—	0 45	0 1	0 2	—	0 0 02·5	0 0 03·5	0 4·5
in bottles, kegs, &c. packed in casks or hampers	—	5 0	0 5	0 2	—	0 10 0	0 0 2	0 4·5
not packed	per bottle	0 6	0 01·4	0 2	per bottle.	0 0 2 2·5	0 0 01·10	0 4·5
Bells of bell-metal, or other common metals	nett centner	0 10	—	—	123 1-3 lbs.	0 0 4		
Birds with permission of exportation	per 1 fl. value	0 36	0 01·4	0 6	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0 01·10	12 2·5
Books, and all compositions of brass with other of the precious metals, raw or in blocks and bars	nett centner	8 20	0 61·4	0 2	123 1-3 lbs.	0 16 8	0 0 23·8	0 4·5
in plates, rolled, wire	—	13 20	0 12 1·4	0 2	—	1 6 4	0 0 5	0 4·5
wrought	—	60 0	0 23	0 2	—	6 0 0	0 0 10	12 5
Coal (sea coal)	gross centner	15 0	0 23	0 2	—	1 10 0	0 0 10	0 4·5
Cattle	nett centner	21 0	0 17 1·2	0 5	—	2 2 0	0 0 7	2
Copper, raw, rolled, plates, blocks	—	0 50	0 50	0 2	—	0 1 8	0 1 0	0 4·5
wrought, as kettles, bolts, &c.	—	10 0	0 12 1·4	0 5	—	1 0 0	0 0 5	2
wire	—	15 0	0 12 1·4	0 5	—	1 10 0	0 0 5	2
Corn, wheat	gross centner	0 22 1·2	0 1	0 2	—	0 0 9	0 0 02·5	0 4·5
barley and oats	—	0 15	0 03·4	0 2	—	0 0 6	0 0 03·8	0 4·5
Indian corn	—	0 17	0 03·4	0 2	—	0 0 6 4·5	0 0 03·8	0 4·5
Rye and buck wheat	—	0 16	0 03·4	0 2	—	0 0 6 2·5	0 0 03·8	

Tariff.—*continued.*

Articles.	Duty in Austrian Money and Rates.				Duty in English Money and Rates.			
	Unit of charge.	Import Duty.	Export Duty.	Transit Duty.	Unit of Charge.	Import Duty.	Export Duty.	Transit Duty.
		fl. kr.	fl. kr.	fl. kr.		£. s. d.	£. s. d.	d.
Cotton manufactures, all kinds	per 1 fl. value	0 36	1-4 p. cent.	0 27	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0 0 1-10	0 4-5
Twist	nett centner	15 0	0 50	0 27	123 1-3 lbs.	1 10 0	0 1 8	10 4-5
Earthenware, common	gross centner	7 30	0 0 1-4	0 5	—	0 15 0	0 0 3 4-5	2
Porcelain, all kinds	per 1 fl. value	0 36	0 0 1-4	0 27	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0 0 1-10	10 4-5
Fire engines	nett centner	10 0	0 36	0 5	123 1-3 lbs.	1 0 0	0 0 0 10	
Fish: stockfish, codfish, herrings, &c., salted or cured	gross centner	2 0	0 5	0 5		0 4 0	0 0 0 2	
Glass: flint and crown glass wares, ordinary	—	6 0	0 25	0 2		0 12 0	0 0 0 10	0 4-5
cut, all kinds, plates for looking glasses	—	8 48	0 4	0 2		0 16 4	0 0 1 3-5	0 4-5
artificial brilliants	—	20 0	0 4	0 2	—	2 0 0	0 0 1 3-5	10 4-5
Hats, beaver, silk, whalebone and other stuffs, also, straw and ladies' hats and bonnets	—	30 0	0 4	0 2	—	3 0 0	0 0 1 3-5	0 4-5
Indigo	cash	1 0	0 1	0 27	cash	0 2 0	0 0 0 0 3-5	10 4-5
Instruments, mathematical, chirurgical, and optical	gross centner	7 30	1 36 1-2	0 27	123 1-3 lbs.	0 15 0	0 0 3 9	10 4-5
musical	per 1 fl. value	0 6	0 0 1-4	0 2	ad valorem	10 0 0	0 0 0 1-10	0 4-5
Iron, raw, in pigs	—	0 12	0 0 1-4	0 2	—	20 0 0	0 0 0 1-10	0 4-5
cast, wares of	nett centner	2 24	0 48	0 2	123 1-3 lbs.	0 5 7 1-5	0 0 0 3 3-5	0 4-5
	—	5 24	0 2 1-2	0 2	—	0 10 9 3-5	0 0 0 1	0 4-5
hammered, in bars, rods	—	6 0	0 2 1-2	0 2	—	0 12 0	0 0 0 1	0 4-5
cast steel	—	4 30	0 2 3-4	0 2	—	0 7 0	0 0 0 0 4-5	0 4-5
hammered steel	—	7 12	0 3	0 2	—	0 14 4 4-5	0 0 0 1 3-5	0 4-5
sheet iron	gross centner	9 36	0 4	0 2	—	0 19 2 2-5	0 0 0 1 3-5	0 4-5
tin	—	15 36	0 6 1-2	0 2	—	1 11 2 2-5	0 0 0 2 4-5	0 4-5
steel and iron wire	nett centner	12 0	0 6	0 2	—	1 4 0	0 0 0 2	4 4-5
Ironmongery, as anchors, hammered wares, ordinary rasps, files, &c.	—	12 0	0 6	0 2	—	1 4 0	0 0 0 2	0 4-5
locksmiths', tinsmiths', and spurmakers' work, also carriage springs and hoops, common								
locksmiths', &c. work, fine, and all fine polished hardwares	per 1 fl. value	0 36	0 0 1-4	0 12	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0 0 1-10	4 4-5
fine files, needles, gravers' tools, &c.	nett lb.	0 12	0 0 1-4	0 12	nett lb.	0 0 4	0 0 0 1-10	0 4-5
Lead, raw, in blocks	nett centner	5 12	0 2 3-4	0 2	123 1-3 lbs.	0 12 7 2-5	0 0 0 1-10	0 4-5
cast, as balls and shot	—	7 12	0 3	0 2	—	0 14 4 4-5	0 0 0 1 1-2	0 4-5
Leather, ox and cow hides, tanned	—	15 0	0 25	0 5	—	1 10 0	0 0 0 10	2
calves' skins, tanned and dressed	—	25 0	0 50	0 5	—	3 10 0	0 0 1 8	2
Linens, knit, as stockings, gloves, &c.	nett lb.	6 0	0 0 1-2	0 27	nett lb.	0 12 0	0 0 0 1-5	10 4-5
cambric	—	6 0	0 0 1-2	0 27	—	0 12 0	0 0 0 1-5	10 4-5
Ribands, tapes, galoons, &c.	—	2 30	0 0 1-4	0 27	—	0 5 0	0 0 0 1-10	10 4-5
other fine woven linens	—	3 30 1-2	0 0 1-4	0 27	—	0 6 8 1-5	0 0 0 1-20	10 4-5
Oil, olive	gross centner	4 0	0 10	0 2	123 1-3 lbs.	0 8 0	0 0 0 4	0 4-5
palm, cocoa nut, flat, or hempseed oil	—	2 30	0 6 1-4	0 2	—	0 5 0	0 0 0 2 3-5	0 4-5
fish or train oil	—	0 18	0 0 7 1-4	0 2	—	0 0 7 3-5	0 0 0 3	0 4-5
pitch or tar oil	—	2 0	0 5	0 2	—	0 4 0	0 0 0 2	0 4-5
turpentine	—	2 0	0 5	0 2	—	0 4 0	0 0 0 2	0 4-5
Painters' colours, raw	—	0 25	0 6	0 2	—	0 0 10	0 0 0 2	0 4-5
prepared	—	2 20	0 0	0 2	—	0 6 8	0 0 0 2	0 4-5
Papers, all kinds, except worked into articles of luxury	nett centner	2 30	0 4	0 2	—	0 6 8	0 0 0 1 3-5	4 4-5
Pewter and tin manufactures	per 1 fl. value	0 36	0 0 1-4	0 12	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0 0 1-10	0 4-5
Plate: gold and silver	1 gross lb.	0 24	0 2	0 12	per lb.	0 0 8	0 0 0 1-5	0 4-5
Playing cards	per dozen packs	0 36	- -	0 1	per doz. packs	0 1 1 3-5	free	0 2-5
Salt	gross centner	prohibited	free	0 2	123 1-3 lbs.	prohibited	free	0 4-5
Silk: woven silks	nett lb.	10	0 1 1-2	0 27	nett lb.	1 0 0	0 0 0 3-5	10 4-5
Spermaceti and wax	gross lb.	0 36	0 0 3-4	0 27	gross lb.	0 1 1 2-5	0 0 0 3-10	10 4-5
Spirits, distilled, in casks	gross centner	15 21	0 16 3-4	0 12	123 1-3 lbs.	1 8 8 2-5	0 0 0 1 2-5	4 4-5
in bottles	—	10 0	0 12 1-2	0 12	—	1 0 0	0 0 0 5	4 4-5
Sugar, refined, all kinds	nett centner	18 0	0 9	- -	—	1 16 0		
raw, powdered for the trade	—	15 0	0 9	- -	—	1 10 0		
raw, for the use of refiners								
others, for refineries	—	7 30	0 4 1-2	- -	—	0 15 6		
Tobacco, in leaf	—	15 0	0 30	0 5	—	1 10 0	0 0 2	2
manufactured	—	40 0	0 5	0 5	—	4 0 0	0 0 2	2
Wine: cape wine, French, Spanish, and German wines, in casks, &c.	gross centner	15 0	0 2	0 2	—	1 10 8	0 0 0 4-5	0 4-5
in bottles	per bottle	0 30	0 0	0 2	per bottle.	0 1 0	- -	0 4-5
Woods: dyewoods, in blocks or pieces	nett centner	0 12 1-2	0 5	0 2	123 1-3 lbs.	0 0 5	0 0 2	2 4-5
Woollen manufactures, all kinds	per 1 fl. value	0 36	0 0 1-4	0 27	ad valorem	60 0 0	0 0 [illegible]	1 4-5

One Vienna pound = 1·235 lb. avoirdupois, hence the centner of 100 Vienna pounds = 123·[illegible] lbs. avoirdupois.

The Austrian florin of the standard of 20 to the Cologne mark, is almost exactly 2 shillings sterling.

In the Lombardo Venetian kingdom, the centner of 100 kilogrammes is still the weight used in levying the duty, the difference between 100 kilogrammes = 78·8 lbs. of Austria being allowed.

TARIFF (RUSSIAN).—By comparing the following important document with the late tariff, it will be seen that nearly 100 articles that were formerly prohibited are now admitted under payment of duties; and that the duties on several articles that were formerly admitted have been materially reduced. The publication of this tariff is evidence that sounder and more enlarged opinions on commercial affairs have made their way into the cabinet of Petersburg. The duties on many imported articles are still, no doubt, quite oppressive; but it

may be fairly presumed that the advantages resulting from the increased commerce which the present measure will certainly occasion, will most likely lead, and probably at no very distant period, to further relaxations. No European country possesses half the resources, or means of adding to her wealth and population, that are possessed by Russia; and nothing will do half so much to excite the industry of the people, and to make them avail themselves of the vast capacities of production within their reach, as the establishment of a liberal commercial system. Russia has already reaped very great advantages from her foreign trade; but they are trifling compared to what they would be, were she to renounce all attempts prematurely to bolster up the finer descriptions of manufactures, and to allow her industry to be employed in preference in the numerous departments in which she is either equal or superior to others. Having by far the largest share of the foreign trade of Russia, it is pretty certain that the new tariff will be decidedly more advantageous to us than to any other foreign power. The Russian government was, no question, fully aware of this, and the concessions are on that account the more creditable to it. No one acquainted with the history of this country during the last half dozen years, can fail to know that a party amongst us have exerted themselves to the utmost to embroil the two countries; and have even gone so far, in furtherance of their object, as to establish journals apparently for the sole purpose of abusing and misrepresenting the government and people of Russia. We are not going to undertake the defence of that power, but we have yet to learn what she has done to injure us; and her conquests, how objectionable soever in some respects, have, in most instances, materially promoted the interests of commerce and civilisation. The Russian government has, however, acted wisely as well as magnanimously in despising the abuse alluded to. Instead of being enemies or estranged from each other, there are no two nations between whom so intimate a friendship ought to prevail as Russia and England. They have no really conflicting interests; she cannot injure us, nor we her. The products of the one country are admirably suited for the markets of the other; and a farther modification of protecting duties in Russia, accompanied, as it should be, by the adjustment of our regulations as to corn and timber on sound principles, would add prodigiously to the intercourse between the two countries, and establish it on foundations not to be shaken.

TARIFF of the Articles of Foreign Merchandise, the importation of which is permitted into Russia, and of various Articles the Duty upon which has been reduced or modified.

Description of Merchandise.		Import Duty. Rbls. Cps.
Amber, in lumps or dust	per lb.	0 5
Bibs, cut	—	4 0
Aromatic oils of every description, in bottles cut and polished, gilt or silvered, with metallic covers and stoppers, and in general with ornaments; also in bottles not cut, but with moulded ornaments, the whole to be weighed together	per lb.	3 0
(Observation.—The oil of bitter almonds is still prohibited.)		
Almond paste	per lb.	0 90
Bible books	—	1½ 0
Bones	—	0 30
Butter of cows' or sheep's milk	—	3 0
Beer	—	2 50
Bottles (including the bottle or other vessel)	—	0 60
Broken books, bound	—	5 0
Bones of various animals (ground)	—	1 50
Brushes (artists', mounted in any species of metal)	—	3 0
Bank worked into purses, &c. (if mounted, they are prohibited)	—	1 50
Cider	per hhd.	36 0
Ditto, in bottles	per bottle	0 40
Cocoa, every preparation of	per lb.	1 0
Castile (or spermaceti)	—	10 0
Chocolate of every description	—	1 0
Cases for razors, needles, &c., together with the boxes, cuffrets, and other articles for ladies' work tables, with the exception of such as may hereafter be especially mentioned	—	5 0
Corals, cut or moulded after any fashion (with the exception of such as may hereafter be named in the tariff)	—	4 0
(Observation.—Corals, both natural and artificial, mounted in gold, or silver, or other metals, are still prohibited.)		
Colours, for artists, with the wooden, tin, or *papier maché* boxes in which they are packed	—	1 0
Cotton Goods, and goods half cotton, mixed with lama or flax, viz.:—		
White handkerchiefs of cambric, &c.	—	1 50
Stockings and nightcaps, coloured	—	0 70
Ditto, embroidered	—	1 0
Cotton goods, dyed, of one colour, and embroidered (those excepted which may be mentioned in another part of this tariff)	—	1 50
Handkerchiefs of the same description	—	2 0
All cotton goods, of various colours and designs, whether striped or woven, made up and embroidered, &c. (except those specially mentioned elsewhere)	—	2 0
Handkerchiefs of a similar description	—	2 50

(Observations.—1. Nankins and all sorts of cotton and half cotton goods, woven and printed, whether transparent, non-transparent, or demi-transparent, with the exception of those hereinafter named, remain prohibited. 2. Turkish goods, up to this time prohibited or not named, are to be included in the list above mentioned. 3 As doubts often arise whether white cotton goods, when checked or striped, or otherwise similarly designed, are to be considered as non transparent, or demi-transparent, and seeing the great difference in the custom house duties on these articles, it is ordained, that in the number of goods of this description, of which the duty on the non-transparent is fixed at 70 copecs, and on the transparent and demi-transparent at 2 roubles 20 copecs per lb., those shall be considered as non-transparent which, in the pound weight, contain less than 9½ archines square; those, on the contrary, which contain more than 9½, and not more than 12½ archines square, shall pay 1 rouble 40 copecs, instead of 2 roubles 20 copecs, in silver money, per lb. The minister of finance is furthermore authorised to make, during the year 1836, such changes as may, by the practice of the interval, appear necessary with regard to the contents of the weight of the above-mentioned articles, by giving the trading public due notice of his determination. He shall, besides, send to the custom houses, and give them the necessary instructions upon the subject of the duties to be levied upon those goods which until now have been considered transparent, even when these objects cannot be assimilated to the above rule.

[It is self-evident that this rule does not extend to the cotton goods, upon which a duty has been imposed of more than 70 copecs per lb. on the one description, and of 2 roubles 20 copecs per lb. on the other; nor upon those specifically mentioned, as tulles, pettinets, and lace of Turkish fabric, admitted exclusively into the ports of the Black Sea, and the Sea of Azof.]

Description of Merchandise.		Import Duty. Rbls. Cps.
Chalk	per berkov.	1 0
Cheese	per lb.	4 0
Cork	free.	
Cotton, hampen, and other wicks, for lamps or candles	per lb.	6 0
Coffee and pepper mills	—	0 50
Drams of lead or sonris	—	3 0
Doth of every description	—	4 0
Enamel—paintings upon enamel, except images and painted table ware, which remain prohibited	free.	
Emery, in dust	per lb.	0 20
Earthenware, white, or if one colour without gold or silver design or border	—	4 0
Ditto, with gold or silver borders, ornaments, &c.	—	10 0
Fruits—apples and pears, fresh, per barrel of 2 ankers	—	0 75
Fish-hooks and bait, and fishing-rods	—	0 50
Flaxen and hempen goods:—		
Pocket-handkerchiefs, white, with or without borders, with the exception of those specially mentioned	—	1 20
White, flaxen or hempen cloth, with the exceptions as above; also white flaxen or hempen cloth, with an admixture of cotton	—	1 20
Ditto, dyed, printed, flowered, woven, knit, or embroidered	per lb.	6 0

Description of Merchandise.		Import Duty. Rbls. Cps.
Handkerchiefs of a similar description to the above	per lb.	3 0
Tablecloths, napkins, and towels of linen; ditto with an admixture of cotton, white, coloured, flowered, woven, and embroidered	—	3 0
Stocking and nightcaps, of hempen or flaxen thread, either of one or of many colours	—	1 0
Ditto, embroidered	—	1 50
[*Observation.*—Every other article of flaxen or hempen manufacture printed, with the exception of the above mentioned, are still prohibited.]		
Galauga, in dust	—	3 0
Gloves, of cotton or demi-cotton, with threads of flax or hemp, white or coloured, woven or knit	—	0 70
Similar gloves, embroidered	—	1 0
Gloves of flax or hemp, white or coloured	—	1 0
Ditto, embroidered	—	1 50
Ditto of white silk, half silk, or a mixture of silk, woven or knit	—	4 0
Ditto, coloured	—	5 0
Ditto, embroidered	—	6 0
[*Observation.*—Chamois gloves are still prohibited.]		
Ginger, whole or ground	—	3 0
Gum elastic, in lumps or bladders	—	0 50
Garnets, natural and artificial	—	1 50
[*Observation.*—Mounted garnets are still prohibited.]		
Gingerbread, &c.	—	0 50
Horses and mares	each	30 0
Herrings (salted), English and Scotch	per barrel of 9 lbs.	1 20
Indigo	per lb.	5 0
Ink powder	—	1 0
Leathers, prepared skins of the elk and the stag	—	5 0
Meerschaum, worked and mounted	—	2 0
Macaroni and vermicelli of every description	per pood	4
Machines containing any chemical inflammable matter, in cases, boxes with painted ornaments, or bronze, &c., the whole weighed together	per lb.	1 0
Marbles and porphyry, worked, without bronze or other ornaments	—	1 0
Masks of every description	—	4 0
Metals—copper moulds for the making of macaroni, vermicelli, and sweet boxes	per pood	6 0
[*Observation.*—Moulds for macaroni and vermicelli, arriving with and making part of the apparatus for the manufacture, pass without paying duty.]		
Mustard, ground	per lb.	0 20
Ditto, prepared, weighed with the vessel	—	0 50
Plated goods (every species of)	—	2 0
Playthings for children (every species of)	—	2 0
Perry	per hhd.	25 0
Ditto, in bottle	per bottle	0 40
Picture frames of every description, with the pictures, per archine, and counting the fractions as entire archines		0 50
[*Observation.*—Frames without the pictures are still prohibited.]		
Potatoes imported by sea	per chetvert	0 50
[*Observation.*—The importation by land is free of duty.]		
Paper of every description which is not specifically exempted in another part of the tariff	per lb.	0 40
Pearl, mother of, and imitation of	—	1 50
[If mounted in gold, silver, or other metal, they remain prohibited.]		
Pimento, English	per pood	4 0
Pepper, Jamaica	—	4 0
Ditto, white, black, or red, ground	—	4 0
Pens, writing	per lb.	1 0
Riding whips, simple or mounted	each	0 4
Slates	per lb.	0 1
Scent bags, of silk	—	2 0
Scented waters of every description, in bottles of cut and polished crystal, with covers and stoppers of metal, and with ornaments in general, as well as in bottles not polished, but with moulded ornaments, the whole to be weighed together	—	2 0
Skins of the American marten or rats	—	0 50
Ditto, bears	—	2 0
Ditto, tigers, panthers, lions, zebras, and leopards	—	2 0
Ditto, lynx	—	0 50
Ditto, musk rat	—	0 15
Sago, Indian	—	2 0
Silk goods, either wholly silk or mixed with cotton, &c. not transparent, with coloured designs woven, embroidered, excepting those specially designated	—	6 0
Silk, not transparent, interwoven with gold or silver threads, &c., except such as are specially designated	—	8 0
[To this duty are assimilated silk goods of Turkish manufacture, the entrance of which was formerly prohibited.]		
Silk handkerchiefs, white or coloured, not transparent, excepting those specifically named	—	6 0
Ditto, flowered or embroidered	—	8 0
Ditto, with gold or silver threads	—	10 0
Ditto, table covers, &c.	—	3 0
Ditto, nightcaps, coloured and flowered	—	5 0
Ditto, ditto, and stockings, embroidered	—	6 0
Ditto, carpets	—	8 0
[Every sort of silken manufacture not included in the above, as well as the ribbons of orders of nobility, are prohibited.]		
Ditto, tale	—	0 60
Tooth picks of every description	—	2 10
Tops of every sort of fish	per pood	2 0
Ditto of elephants and hippocotamus	—	2 0
Ditto, ditto, in tablettes	—	3 0
Ditto, ditto, for painters	—	3 0

Description of Merchandise.		Import Duty. Rbls. Cps.
Wax (raw), yellow, white, or coloured	—	1
Ditto used by upholsterers, and that made use of in grafting trees	—	1
White lead (English) and cremnitz	—	1
Whalebone (fanons)	—	1
Ditto, purified	per lb.	0
Ditto, worked	—	1
Whips (coachmen's)	each	0
Watches, pinchbeck, copper or plated	—	3
Ditto, gilt ditto	—	10
Woollen goods:—		
Cloths, casimeres, ladies' cloths, drapery, ratteens, &c., of black, blue-black, dark green, white, light blue, &c.	per lb.	3
Table covers, quilts, &c.	—	3
Carpets, great and small, of woollen fabric or mixed with linen thread, hemp or cotton, with fringes sewed	—	1
Cloths and woollen sacks used in pressing out oil	—	0
[*Observation.*—Every description of printed woollen or half woollen goods, with the exception of those specifically mentioned, remain prohibited.]		
Wax tapers and all articles of white and coloured wax	—	3
Wadding cotton	—	0
Wadding silk	—	3
Wafers, in boxes	—	4

The following articles are freed from the additional custom-house duty of 12½ per cent., imposed in conformity with the Ukase of the 11th of November, 1831:—

Cinnamon and cinnamon flowers; cocos in beans; coffee; caraway seeds; cloves; cubebs, roots of; ginger; galanga, roots of; lacca, blonds, tulles, &c.; metals, viz. lead, tin, and quicksilver; mace; nutmegs; pepper of every description, white or ground; tea (Bohea, pitchait, Lougan, and every sort of tea of inferior quality); vanilla.

Besides the above, the seeds of turnips, rape, as well as of various oleaginous grains, which are not specifically mentioned in the tariff, and which are known only by their local names, such as surepa, rigwy, &c., will be freed from all custom-house dues on exportation for a period of six years, commencing from the 1st of January, 1837.

General Rules.

1. The provisions of this tariff will begin to be put in force from the 1st January, 1837, and in the more remote custom-houses to which they cannot be communicated by that period they shall come into operation from the day on which they shall have been received.

2. All imported goods that are specified in this tariff that may remain bonded at the custom-houses, and upon which the duty shall not have been paid up to the aforesaid 1st January, 1837, or to the day upon which this tariff shall have been received at those custom-houses at which it may arrive later than that day, shall enjoy half the reduction of duty herein specified. In the same manner there shall be collected only one half the additional duty of 12½ per cent. upon those species of merchandise from which it has been by a previous provision of this tariff altogether removed. With respect to those species of goods, limited in their number, of which the importation was already permitted, and of which, from peculiar considerations, the duty was either altogether removed or recently modified, such of them as are allowed to remain bonded to the 1st of January next shall pay duty under the old tariff. On the other hand, such of those species of goods as may be imported after the 1st of January, shall be subject to the regulations of this tariff. In the meantime, however, a discretion is vested in the Minister of Finance to admit even this latter species of goods under the former regulations, when it shall be proved that their shipment took place previously to the 1st of January, or in ignorance of the change in the tariff.

3. The abolition of the additional duty of 12 per cent. upon particular species of tea, Congou, for instance, and other inferior qualities, will commence from the sales which will take place in the winter of 1837-38, comprising both the teas recently imported as well as what remain over since the last sales.

4. The additional duty of 12½ per cent., from which the above-mentioned articles have been freed, will not be levied upon merchandises of the same description hereafter admitted to importation in a raw state. On the contrary, until a new disposition shall be made, it will be collected upon all the other merchandises comprised in the present tariff, with the exception, however, of those custom-houses in which the collection of this duty has not taken place at all.

5. Merchandises, the importation of which is permitted by the present tariff, shall be admitted upon the payment of the duty at those custom-houses at which articles of the same kind have hitherto paid duty. Merchandise hereafter admitted may be imported through all the custom-houses of the first class.

6. The operation of this tariff is confined to those merchandises of which the duty is levied under the European tariff; and amongst the objects of the Asiatic tariff only to tea of a peculiar description, Congou and others of inferior quality.

7. Merchandises, the importation of which is permitted to the Trans-Caucasian Provinces by the Black Sea at a lower duty than that imposed by the present tariff, shall pay in the said provinces the same duty as before.

8. In the Trans-Caucasian Provinces every species of cotton manufacture, non-transparent and half-transparent, shall remain subject to the same duty as heretofore.

9. The fifth of the customs' duty levied at Odessa, for the benefit of that town, will be collected conformably to former regulations. But the duty of all merchandises passing into the interior of the empire through the custom-houses about Odessa, shall be paid under the provisions of the present tariff, beginning from the 1st of January, 1837.

10. With respect to merchandises, the importation of which, hitherto prohibited, is henceforth permitted, and which shall be seized as contraband after the publication of the present tariff, they shall be dealt with as goods permitted, but fraudulently imported.

11. It is left to the Minister of Finance to give instruction, such as may be deemed proper, to the custom-houses respecting the deduction from the duty on account of tare.

12. Any question that may arise upon the construction of this tariff shall be referred for decision to the Minister of Finance.

The original is signed by the President of the Council of the Empire.

[The reader will find, under the head of NEW YORK, the last "tariff act" of the United States, that of March 2d, 1833, commonly called "the compromise act;" together with a circular of the Secretary of the Treasury, addressed to officers of the customs. These will enable him, with the abridged view before him of the tariff of duties, previous to the operation of that act, which is now presented, to determine for himself the duty on every article, at any period down to June 30th, 1842. To abridge the tariff as much as the editor has succeeded in doing, it has been necessary, not only to generalise the statements made as much as possible, and to avoid repetitions, unless in a very few instances where they were obviously expedient, but also to omit all mention of the articles which can *now* be freely imported, excepting where their insertion was essential for understanding what is actually stated. It may be added, that every one, desirous of having a distinct knowledge of the *history* of the protective and revenue systems of the United States, since the conclusion of the last war with Great Britain, should consult among the published statutes of Congress, the acts of the 27th of April, 1816, the 22d of May, 1824, and the 19th of May, 1828, besides those of the 14th of July, 1832, and of March 2d, 1833, already referred to.

American Tariff.

Articles.	Until December 31, 1833.	
Adopts of Lead. See Lead.		
Ale. See Beer.		
Alum	pr cwt.	*D.* 2 50
Anti Corrosive. Lithic paint	pr ct.	15
Antimonial sheathing, marine metal,	pr lb.	3
Arrack, pays the same duty as spirits distilled from grain, according to proof.		
Arms	pr lb.	3
Arsenic, cosmetic	pr ct.	15
Baskets, or rattans, manufactured, hats excepted	pr ct.	25
Barley	pr ct.	15
Baskets, grass or straw	pr ct.	15
wood or cane	pr ct.	25
Bathelores, and shuttlecocks	pr ct.	20
Beads, amber, composition, wax, and ornamental, strung or not strung	pr ct.	15
Beef	pr lb.	3
Beer, ale and porter, in bottles	pr gal.	20
otherwise	pr gal.	15
Bicarbonate of potash	pr ct.	12½
Boards and planks	pr ct.	25
Boas, bottns or moulds	pr ct.	15
buttons with shanks	pr ct.	25
Boots. *See Hats.*		
wire for, cane or other articles, covered with silk, cotton, flaxen or yarn thread, manufactured abroad	pr lb.	12
Books, blank	pr ct.	20
printed previous to 1775, and also all books printed wholly in other languages than English, Latin, and Greek	pr vol.	4
Latin or Greek, printed subsequently to 1775, bound	pr lb.	15
Latin or Greek, not bound	pr lb.	13
all other, bound or half bound	pr lb.	30
in sheets or boards	pr lb.	28
(Music, prints, and engravings are free.)		
Boots or bootees	pr pr.	*D.* 1 50
Brandy, 1st and 2d proof	pr gal.	53
3d do.	pr gal.	57
4th do.	pr gal.	63
5th do.	pr gal.	73
above 5th do.	pr gal.	85
Brass, all manufactures of, not otherwise specified, except only what is old, and fit only to be re-manufactured	pr ct.	25
military	pr ct.	20
Bricks	pr ct.	15
Britain	pr lb.	3
Brooms, hair or palm leaf	pr ct.	15
Willow	pr ct.	25
Brushes of all kinds	pr ct.	25
Butter	pr lb.	5
Buttons, of gold, silver, or precious stones	pr ct.	12½
of iron, steel, pewter, brass, and tin moulds,	pr ct.	25
	pr ct.	15
See also Mother of Pearl, silk, &c.		
Cabinet wares	pr ct.	20
Cables and cordage, tarred	pr lb.	4
do. untarred	pr lb.	5
grass, or the bark of a tree	pr lb.	5
manufactured in whole or in part of iron	pr lb.	3
Calomel	pr ct.	15
Cambles, spermaceti	pr lb.	8
tallow	pr lb.	5
wax	pr lb.	6
Caps. *See Hats.*		
Caps, worked for ladies, trimmed or untrimmed	pr ct.	25
Carbonate of soda	pr ct.	15
Cards, blank and visiting	pr lb.	15
playing	pr pack	20
Carpets and carpetting. *See Wool.*		
Carriages and parts of carriages	pr ct.	20
laces for,	pr ct.	25
springs for, iron or wood	pr ct.	20
steps for,	pr ct.	20
See Furniture.		
Casement rod	pr lb.	3

Articles.	Until December 31, 1833.	
Cashmere (real) shawls	pr ct.	15
Catsup	pr ct.	15
Cerusse, dry, or ground in oil	pr lb.	5
Cheese	pr lb.	6
China ware	pr ct.	20
Chloride of lime	pr ct.	15
Chocolate	pr lb.	4
Chromate of potash	pr ct.	12½
Chronometers	pr ct.	12½
Cigars	pr M	*D.* 2 50
Cloths	pr ct.	25
Clothing, ready made, not in actual use	pr ct.	50
Coal and coke	pr bush.	6
Colcother, dry	pr lb.	1
ground in oil	pr lb.	1½
Combs, horn, shell, and ivory,	pr ct.	15
iron, lead, copper, brass, gilt, or plated, and wood	pr ct.	25
Composition rods, bolts, spikes, or nails	pr ct.	25
brass, iron, pewter, or steel	pr ct.	25
Confectionary, preserved in sugar or brandy	pr ct.	25
Copper bolts, nails, rods, or spikes	pr lb.	4
bottoms, merely cut round and turned up at the edge	pr ct.	15
brasiers', not exceeding in weight 34 oz. per square foot	pr ct.	15
(Old copper, fit only to be re-manufactured, is free, as also sheathing for ships, &c.)		
all manufactures of, not otherwise specified	pr ct.	25
Copperas	pr cwt.	*D.* 2 00
Cordials, pay duty as spirits from other material than grain, according to the proof.		
Corks	pr lb.	12
Corrosive sublimate	pr ct.	15
Cosmetics	pr ct.	15
Cotton, all manufactures of, or of which cotton shall be a component part (except cotton twist, yarn, and thread,)	pr ct	25
"*Provided*, That all manufactures of cotton, or of which cotton shall be a component part, not dyed, coloured, printed, or stained, not exceeding in value *thirty cents* the square yard, shall be valued at *thirty cents* per square yard; and if dyed, coloured, printed, or stained, in whole, or in part, not exceeding in value *thirty-five cents* the square yard, shall be valued at *thirty five cents* per square yard; and on nankeens imported direct from China, twenty per centum ad valorem.		
Cotton twist, Cotton yarn, Cotton thread,	All unbleached and uncoloured, the original cost of which shall be less than *sixty cents* per pound, shall be deemed and taken to have cost *sixty cents* per pound, and shall be charged with duty accordingly.	pr ct. 25
Cotton twist, Cotton yarn, Cotton thread,	All bleached or coloured, the original cost of which shall be less than *seventy-five cents* per pound, shall be deemed and taken to have cost *seventy-five cents* per pound, and shall be charged with duty accordingly	pr ct. 25
	The duty on cotton twist, yarn, and thread, under 60 cents per lb. is 15 cents per lb. and under 75 cents per lb. 18 3-4 cents per lb., (with the deduction of 1-10, 1-5, &c. of the excess, if any.)	
Cotton bagging, without regard to the weight or width of the article		pr sq. yd. 3½
carpets and carpeting		pr ct. 25
coach lace		pr ct. 25
nankeens, direct from China,		pr ct. 20
nankeens, from Europe, &c. to pay as manufactures of cotton.		

Articles.	Until December 31, 1833.
Cotton—*continued.*	
raw	pr lb. 3
shawls, with woollen fringe, pay as cotton.	
spool	pr ct. 25
stockings	pr ct. 33
and worsted or combed wool, manufactures of, (piece goods)	pr ct. 25
and wool carded, manufactures of, (piece goods)	pr ct. 30
Crapes, Canton	pr ct. 10
Norwich	pr ct. 10
Down of all kinds	pr ct. 15
Duck, Holland, Ravens, Russia, sail	pr ct. 15
Earthenware	pr ct. 20
Ebony, manufactures of,	pr ct. 25
Emetic tartar	pr ct. 15
Essences used as perfumes	pr ct. 15
Furs, of all descriptions	pr ct. 25
Feathers, for beds	pr ct. 15
ornamental	pr ct. 25
Felts, or hat bodies, made wholly or in part of wool, each	12
Fish, dried, or dried and smoked, foreign caught	pr quint. *D.*1 00
salmon, pickled,	pr bbl. 2 00
mackarel do.	pr bbl. 1 50
all other pickled fish	pr bbl. 1 00
Fishing nets, dip or scoop	pr ct. 25
other than dip or scoop, untarred	pr lb. 6
Flax, manufactures of, (except yarn and cordage, tarred and untarred, tick-lenburgs, osnaburgs, and burlaps, and bleached and unbleached linens)	pr ct. 25
carpeting	pr ct. 25
Floor-cloths, stamped, printed, or painted	pr sq. yd. 43
Flour, wheat	pr cwt. 50
Flowers, artificial	pr ct. 25
Furniture, coach and harness, common tinned and japanned	pr ct. 10
plated brass and polished steel	pr ct. 30
oil cloth	pr sq. yd. 12½
wood, (cabinet wares)	pr ct. 30
wood, not cabinet wares	pr ct. 25
Furs, dressed	pr ct. 12½
hats or caps, made of,	pr ct. 30
muffs and tippets	pr ct. 25
Gilt wares	pr ct. 25
Gin. *See* Spirits made from grain.	
Glass, apothecary's vials and bottles, not exceeding the capacity of 6 ounces, each, exceeding 6 ounces, and not exceeding 16 ounces, each,	pr gross *D.*1 75
beads of every description	pr gross 2 75
black, quickened	pr ct. 15
bottles, black, not exceeding 1 quart	Free.
bottles, black, exceeding 1 quart	pr gross *D.*2 00
crystals for watches	pr gross 2 50
cut, not specified	pr ct. 12½
demijohns	{ pr lb. 2 cents, and pr ct. 20
knobs, with shanks of brass, iron, or steel	each 25
looking, with frames of paper, or wood	pr ct. 25
do. plates silvered	pr ct. 20
paper	pr ct. 20
perfumery, and fancy vials, and bottles, not exceeding the capacity of 4 ounces, each	pr lb. 15
perfumery, and fancy vials, and bottles, exceeding the capacity of 4 ounces, and not exceeding the capacity of 16 ounces, each	pr gross *D.*2 50
window, not above 8 by 10 in.	pr gross 2 25
do. not above 10 by 12	100 sq. ft. 3 00
do. above 10 by 12	100 sq. ft. 3 00
do. all imported in plates uncut, to be charged with the highest rates of duty imposed by the act on window glass.	100 sq. ft. 4 00
all other articles of, not specified	{ pr lb. 2 cents, and pr ct. 20
Glasses, spy	pr ct. 25
Glaziers' diamonds	pr ct. 12½
Glue	pr lb. 5
Gold, all articles composed wholly or chiefly of (Gold in bullion or coin, gold dust, spaulettes, and size, are free.)	pr ct. 12½
leaf	pr ct. 15
Gunpowder	pr lb. 5
Hair made up for head dresses	pr ct. 25
otherwise manufactured	pr ct. 15
Hams, and other bacon	pr lb. 3
Harness, (leather)	pr ct. 20
See Furniture and coach furniture.	
Hat bodies, or felts, made wholly or in part of wool	each 12
Hat covers, made of oil-cloth	pr ct. 20
Hats, or bonnets, of any material except silk	pr ct. 20
silk hats or bonnets for women	pr ct. 25
for men	pr ct. 15
straw, wool, and all flats, braids, or plaits for hats or bonnets	pr ct. 20
Hemp, unmanufactured	pr ton *D.* 40

Articles.	Until December 31, 1833.
Hemp—*continued.*	
(East India hemp is free.)	
manufactures of, not otherwise specified	pr ct. 25
Indigo	pr ct. 15
Iron adze	pr ct. 30
anvils and anchors, and all parts thereof, manufactured in whole or in part	pr lb. 3
axes	pr ct. 30
band	pr lb. 3
bars or bolts, not manufactured in whole or in part by rolling	pr cwt. 30
do. do. made wholly or in part by rolling	pr ton *D.* 30
Provided, That all iron in slabs, blooms, or other forms less finished than iron in bars or bolts, and more advanced than pig iron, except castings, shall be rated as iron in bars or bolts, and pay duty accordingly.	
cables or chains, or parts thereof, manufactured in whole or in part	pr lb. 3
casement rods	pr lb. 3
chissels, socket	pr ct. 30
other	pr ct. 25
coach and harness furniture, common tinned and japanned	pr ct. 10
do. do. do. plated	pr ct. 30
common tinned and japanned saddlery	pr ct. 10
cutting knives	pr ct. 30
drawing knives	pr ct. 30
firearms, all other than muskets and rifles	pr ct. 30
hammers and sledges, (blacksmiths')	pr lb. 2½
hatchets	pr ct. 30
hoop	pr lb. 3
jack screws	pr ct. 25
mill crank and mill irons, of wrought iron	pr lb. 4
mill saws	each *D.*1 00
muskets	pr stand *D.*1 50
nail or spike rods or nail plates, slit, rolled, or hammered	pr lb. 3
nails, cut or wrought	pr lb. 5
old	pr ton *D.* 12 50
Nothing shall be deemed old iron that has not been in actual use, and fit only to be re-manufactured.	
pigs	pr cwt. 50
plated saddlery	pr ct. 30
rail-road. *See* Rail-road iron.	
rifles	each *D.*3 50
round, or brazier's rod, 3-16 to 8-16 of an inch diameter inclusive	pr lb. 3
scale beams	pr ct. 30
scrap	pr ton *D.* 12 50
screws, called wood screws	pr ct. 30
scroll	pr lb. 3
sheets	pr lb. 3
shovels	pr ct. 30
shovels and tongs (fire irons)	pr ct. 25
sickels or reaping hooks	pr ct. 30
skewers	pr ct. 30
spades	pr ct. 30
spikes	pr lb. 4
square wire, used for the manufacture of stretchers for umbrellas, and cut in pieces not exceeding the length used therefor	pr ct. 12
squares	pr ct. 30
steelyards	pr ct. 30
tacks, brads, and sprigs, not exceeding 16 cts. per M	pr M 5
do. do. exceeding 16 cts. per M	pr lb. 3
vessels cast, not otherwise specified	pr lb. 1½
all other castings of, not otherwise specified	pr lb. 1
vices	pr ct. 30
wagon boxes	pr lb. 1
wire, not exceeding No. 14	pr lb. 5
do. exceeding No. 14	pr lb. 9
do. cap or bonnet, covered with silk, cotton, flaxen yarn or thread	pr lb. 12
do. silvered or plated	pr ct. 6
wood screws	pr ct. 30
weighing 25 lbs. or upwards	pr ct. 25
manufactures of, not castings, nor otherwise specified	pr ct. 25
All pieces of iron, except old, of more than six inches in length, to be made into spikes and bolts, shall be rated as bar, bolt, rod, or hoop iron, as the case may be, and pay duty accordingly.	
Round iron, for axles for cars on rail-roads, and locomotive engines, are not entitled to the benefit of the act of 14th of July, 1832, in relation to iron for rail-roads or inclined planes.	
Isinglass	pr ct. 15
Ivory fans	pr ct. 25
flutes, wholly of,	pr ct. 15
Japanned wares, not otherwise specified	pr ct. 25
Jellies, Guava and others	pr ct. 25
Jewelry, real	pr ct. 12½
gilt or plated	pr ct. 25
Lace, bed	pr ct. 25
bobbinett	pr ct. 12½

Articles.	Until December 31, 1853.
Iron—continued.	
coach	pr ct. 25
mixed and capes, as millinery	pr ct. 25
cotton, other than bed or coach	pr ct. 12½
gilt or silver	pr ct. 12½
gowns or dresses, made up	pr ct. 25
polonaises, as millinery	pr ct. 25
shades, shawls, and veils, of cotton or thread	pr ct. 12½
silk, of cotton or thread	pr ct. 12½
worsted, other than coach	pr ct. 30
Lacquered ware, iron, tin, or wood	pr ct. 25
Lamp black	pr ct. 15
Leaf	pr lb. 3
Lead, acetate of	pr lb. 5
nitrate of	pr ct. 12½
oil	pr lb. 3
pencils, black, of all kinds	pr ct. 25
pigs, bars, or sheets	pr lb. 3
pipe	pr lb. 5
red, or white, dry, or ground in oil	pr lb. 5
scrap	pr lb. 2
shot	pr lb. 4
sugar of	pr lb. 5
tin, in whatever form imported, not designed to remain for use in the shape in which it is introduced, but intended to be melted down	pr lb. 3
all other manufactured articles of lead, which are designed for actual use, in the shape in which they are imported	pr ct. 15
Leather	pr ct. 30
all manufactures of, not otherwise specified	pr ct. 30
Lime, chloride of	pr ct. 15
Linen, fishing, of twine	pr lb. 5
Linen, all except the following	pr ct. 15
bed ticking, checked or coloured	pr ct. 25
black, and other dyed linen	pr ct. 25
canvas, sized or painted on one side	pr ct. 25
checks	pr ct. 25
cloth for oil cloth, carpeting, or floor cloths of flax or hemp	pr ct. 25
diaper web	pr ct. 25
Dryley's coloured	pr ct. 25
drillings, checked, coloured, or striped	pr ct. 25
furniture, German checks	pr ct. 25
shirts, made up	pr ct. 30
thread	pr ct. 25
and worsted, manufactures of	pr ct. 30
List	pr ct. 25
Lobsters	pr lb. 5
Locifer matches (The boxes pay according to the material.)	pr ct. 25
Mahogany, manufactures of	pr ct. 20
Manganese	pr ct. 12½
Marble, manufactured	pr ct. 30
Marmalade	pr ct. 25
Matting, floor, Canton	pr ct. 3
Mats all floor	pr ct. 15
Mats, plated	pr ct. 25
See the different metals, noting that all metallic *boats* are free.	
Millinery, of all kinds	pr ct. 25
Molasses	pr gal. 5
Mother of pearl buttons, with metal shanks	pr ct. 25
without, do. do.	pr ct. 15
Moulds, button	pr ct. 15
Muriatic acid	pr ct. 12½
Musical instruments, brass / copper	per ct. 25
snuff boxes	pr ct. 30
wood	pr ct. 25
Mustard, flour of, including the bottles	pr ct. 15
Nitrate of lead. See Lead.	
Oats	pr bush. 10
Ochre, dry	pr lb. 1
ground in oil	pr lb. 1½
Oil cases	pr gal. 40
fish, of foreign fishing, (other than spermaceti)	per gal. 15
imported not linseed	pr gal. 25
olive, in casks	pr gal. 20
in jars or bottles	pr ct. 15
rape seed	pr gal. 25
spermaceti, of foreign fishing	pr gal. 25
vitriol	pr lb. 3
whale, or other fish oil, of foreign fishing, (except spermaceti)	pr gal. 15
essential oils, used chiefly as perfumes	pr ct. 15
Oil cloths, denominated patent floor cloth of all kinds, other than patent floor cloth	pr sq. yd. 4½
Ornaments, for head dresses	pr ct. 25
Paint brushes, of all kinds	pr ct. 25
Paper	pr lb. 15
Except the following:—	
Atlas and quarto post of all kinds	pr lb. 20
Bookcap, and all drawing, and writing	pr lb. 17
printing, copperplate, and stainers	pr lb. 10
sheathing, binders' and box-boards, and wrappings of all kinds, like that in	

Articles.	Until December 31, 1853.
Paper—continued.	
which blue mankeens are generally imported	pr lb. 3
boxes	pr ct. 15
hangings	pr ct. 40
Parasols, of whatever materials made, and frames or sticks, for,	pr ct. 25
Parchment	pr ct. 25
Pencils, black lead,	pr ct. 25
Pepper, Cayenne,	pr lb. 15
Perfumes	pr ct. 15
Pewter, all manufactures of, not otherwise specified, or of which it is a component material	pr ct. 25
Piano-fortes	pr ct. 30
Pickles	pr ct. 15
Plated wares of all kinds, not otherwise enumerated	pr ct. 25
wire	pr ct. 5
Porcelain	pr ct. 20
Pork	pr lb. 2
Porter. *See* Beer.	
Potatoes	pr bush. 10
Precious stones, of all kinds, set or not set, and all articles composed wholly or chiefly of,	pr ct. 12½
Prussian blue	pr ct. 15
Prussiate of potash	pr ct. 12½
Quills, prepared or manufactured	pr ct. 15
Quinine, sulphate of,	pr ct. 15
Rail-road iron, except when imported by any "state or incorporated company," to pay duty as bar or bolt iron, of similar manufacture.	
Ready made clothing	pr ct. 50
Red lead	pr lb. 5
cobre, dry	pr lb. 1
do. ground in oil	pr lb. 1½
Venetian, dry	pr lb. 1
do. ground in oil	pr lb. 1½
Rope, clar or oular made of bark or grass	pr lb. 5
Rose wood, when sawed into planks from 3 to 4 inches thick, and from 9 to 15 inches in breadth	pr ct. 15
Rum. *See* spirits from other materials than grain.	
Saddles	pr ct. 30
Saddlery, common tinned, and japanned, of all descriptions	pr ct. 10
plated brass, and polished steel, of all descriptions	pr ct. 30
Sal soda	pr ct. 15
Salt per bushel of 56 lb.	10
all fossil and crude mineral	pr ct. 15
Salts, Epsom,	pr lb. 4
Glauber	pr lb. 2
Rochelle	pr ct. 15
Saltpetre refined	pr lb. 3
Seating, satin	pr ct. 15
straw, or patent straw	pr ct. 30
hair	pr ct. 15
Segars	pr M. D. 2 50
Seines, untarred,	pr lb. 5
Sheetings. *See* Linen.	
Sheets, willow	pr ct. 30
Shell boxes	pr ct. 15
Shoes, children's, of all kinds,	pr pair 15
leather	pr pair 25
mankeen	pr pair 25
No. 10, and under, children's, prunelle stuff, or mankeen	pr pair 25
silk	pr pair 30
Sieves, wire,	pr ct. 25
Silk, all manufactures of, or of which silk shall be the component material of *chief* value, coming from this side the Cape of Good Hope, (except sewing silk)	pr ct. 5
braid, from Europe, &c.	pr ct. 5
buttons, with flexible shanks, if silk be the material of chief value	Free
caps	pr ct. 50
cord	pr ct. 5
curls or frizzets as millinery	pr ct. 25
dresses, made up, as "millinery of all kinds"	pr ct. 25
handkerchiefs from Europe, &c.	pr ct. 5
from the East Indies	pr ct. 10
hats for men	pr ct. 15
hats or caps for women, as millinery	pr ct. 25
lace, from Europe, &c.	pr ct. 5
raw	pr ct. 12½
sewing	pr ct. 40
socks, ready made	pr ct. 50
stockings	pr ct. 5
twist	pr ct. 40
and woollen flannel	pr sq. yd. 16
and worsted shawls	pr ct. 10
other manufactures of	pr ct. 10
In articles composed of "silk, and two or more other and different materials," to exempt the manufacture from liability to duty, "the value of the silk must exceed the aggregate value of the other materials, in the manufacture or article.	

Articles.	Until December 31, 1833.	
Silver, all articles composed wholly or chiefly of, as to quantity	pr ct	12½
plated ware, not specified	pr ct.	25
wire	pr ct.	5
The following articles of silver are free: Bullion, coin, epaulettes, knives, silver leaf, nitrate of silver, and silver plate.		
Silvered or plated wire	pr ct.	5
Skins, fur, dressed	pr ct.	12½
dressed with alum	pr ct.	20
Slates	pr ct.	35
Snuff	pr lb.	12
Soaps	pr lb.	4
fancy or perfumed	pr ct.	15
Soda, carbonate of,	pr ct.	15
Spanish brown, dry	pr lb.	1
ground in oil	pr lb.	1½
Spectacles, brass, copper, or gilt mounted	pr ct.	25
iron, steel, or plated do.	pr ct.	25
horn, or tortoise shell do.	pr ct.	30
silver mounted	pr ct.	35
Spirits from grain,		
1st proof	pr gal.	57
2d proof	pr gal.	60
3d proof	pr gal.	62
4th proof	pr gal.	67
5th proof	pr gal.	75
above 5th proof	pr gal.	90
from other materials than grain,		
1st proof	pr gal.	52
2d proof	pr gal.	57
3d proof	pr gal.	67
4th proof	pr gal.	68
5th proof	pr gal.	72
above 5th proof	pr gal.	85
An allowance of 2 per cent. is made for leakage on liquors in casks; and in lieu of breakage, 5 per cent. is allowed on all liquors in bottles, (except beer, ale and porter,) to be deducted from the invoice, or it shall be lawful to compute the duties on the actual quantity, to be ascertained by tale, at the option of the importer, to be made at the time of entry.—(*Act 3d March*, 1799.)		
Steel	pr cwt.	D. 1 50
cutting knives, polished saddlery, reaping hooks, scythes, squares	pr ct.	30
wire, exceeding No. 14	pr lb.	5
Do not exceeding No. 14	pr lb.	3
All manufactures of, not otherwise specified, or of which steel is a component material (pins and needles are free.)	pr ct.	25
Stoneware	pr ct.	20
Stones, earthenware	pr ct.	20
iron, cast	pr lb.	1
Do. sheet	pr ct.	25
Sugar, brown,	pr lb.	2½
candy	pr lb.	12
cane, syrup of, in casks	pr lb.	2½
of lead	pr lb.	5
loaf	pr lb.	12
loaf, in a pulverised, liquid, or other form	pr lb.	12
lump	pr lb.	10
Do. in a pulverised, liquid, or other form	pr lb.	10
white clayed	pr lb.	3½
Swandown, cotton,	pr ct.	15
vestings, if wholly of wool	pr ct.	50
Syrup of sugar cane, in casks, and all syrup for making sugar, pay the same duty as the sugar would pay	pr lb.	2½
Tallow	pr lb.	1
Tapers, wax	pr ct.	25
Tapes, cotton or linen,	pr ct.	25
Tartar emetic	pr ct.	15
Tartaric acid	pr ct.	15
Teas, of all kinds, imported from places this side the Cape of Good Hope, in vessels of the United States, or foreign vessels, if entitled to the benefit of the 10th section of the act of 14th July, 1832	pr lb.	10
of all kinds imported from other places, and in vessels not of the United States, except such foreign vessels as are entitled to the benefit of the 10th section of the act of the 14th July, 1832.	pr lb.	10
Terra japonica de siena, if dry	pr lb.	1
Do if in oil	pr lb.	1½
Tiles, building,	pr ct.	15
paving	pr ct.	15
Time pieces	pr ct.	25
Tin, all manufactures of, not otherwise specified	pr ct.	25
Tinsel stuff	pr ct.	25
Tobacco, manufactured, other than snuff, or segars	pr lb.	10
unmanufactured, or in leaf	pr ct.	15
Tooth brushes	pr ct.	25
powder	pr ct.	15
Tow carpets and carpeting	pr ct.	24
Twine, untarred	pr lb.	5
Types for printing	pr ct.	25
Umbrellas, of whatever materials made	pr ct.	25
frames, or sticks for,	pr ct.	25
square wire, used for the manufacture of, and cut in pieces not exceeding the proper length	pr ct.	12
Vellum	pr ct.	25
Velvets. *See* Cotton and silk.		
Vinegar	pr gal.	8
Vitriol, blue or Roman	pr lb.	4
oil of	pr lb.	3
Watches	pr ct.	25
Wagon boxes	pr lb.	1
Wash-balls	pr ct.	15
Watches, of all kinds, and parts of watches	pr ct.	12½
Weights, brass	pr ct.	25
cast iron	pr lb.	1
cast iron, small	pr ct.	25
lead	pr ct.	15
Whalebone, the product of foreign fishing	pr ct.	12½
Wheat	pr bush.	25
flour	pr cwt.	50
Whips	pr ct.	30
Whisky. *See* Spirits from grain		
White lead	pr lb.	5
Paris	pr lb.	1
Whiting	pr lb.	1
Wines, red of France, in casks, until the 3d March, 1834	pr gal.	6
after that time	pr gal.	8
white, of France, in casks, until the 3d March, 1834	pr gal.	10
after that time	pr gal.	5
French, of all sorts, in bottles, until the 3d March, 1834	pr gal.	22
after that time	pr gal.	11
Sicily, whether imported in bottles, cases, or casks, in addition to the duty on the bottles, when thus imported, until the 3d March, 1834	pr gal.	60
after that time	pr gal.	15
Madeira and sherry, whether imported in bottles, cases, or casks, in addition to the duty on the bottles, when so imported, until the 3d March, 1834	pr gal.	50
after that time	pr gal	25
red of Spain and Austria, when imported in casks, until the 3d March, 1834	pr gal.	10
after that time	pr gal.	5
all other, of Austria, of Germany, Spain, and the Mediterranean, when imported in casks, until the 3d March, 1834	pr gal.	15
after that time	pr gal.	7½
of all countries, those specified excepted, whether imported in bottles, cases, or casks, in addition to the duty on the bottles, when so imported, until the 3d March, 1834	pr gal.	30
after that time	pr gal.	15
Wood, boards or planks	pr ct.	15
all manufactures of, not otherwise specified	pr ct.	25
Wool, unmanufactured, mixed with dirt or other material, and thus reduced in value to 8 cents per pound, or under, the appraisers shall appraise at such price as in their opinion it would have cost had it not been so mixed, and a duty thereon shall be charged in conformity with such appraisal.		
unmanufactured, the value whereof at the place of exportation shall exceed eight cents, shall pay, besides a duty of 4 cents per pound	pr ct.	40
baize	pr sq. yd.	16
bindings, woollen or worsted	pr ct.	25
blankets, the value whereof, at the place whence exported, shall exceed 75 cents, each	pr ct.	25
do the value whereof, at the place whence exported, shall not exceed 75 cents, each	pr ct.	5
bockings	pr sq. yd.	16
carpets and carpeting, (except Brussels, Wilton, and treble ingrained carpeting, which shall be at 63 cents the square yard, and all other ingrained and Venetian carpeting, at 35 cents the square yard)	pr ct.	25
cloth composed entirely of combed wool	pr ct.	10
merino cloth, worsted and cotton	pr ct.	25
flannels	pr sq. yd.	16
gloves	pr ct.	25
hats or caps of	pr ct	30
hosiery	pr ct	25
mits	pr ct.	25
silk and carded wool, if silk is the material of chief value	pr ct.	5
yarn, woollen, besides a specific duty of 4 cents per pound	pr ct.	40
do. worsted	pr ct.	40
worsted and cotton cloths subject to the cotton duty.		
manufactures of silk and worsted	pr ct.	10
worsted stuff goods	pr ct.	10
all other manufactures of, or of which wool is a component part, not otherwise specified	pr ct.	40
Yellow ochre, dry,	pr lb.	1
do. ground in oil	pr lb.	1½

Jan. 34.]

TARTAR. See ARGAL.

TATTA, a town in the territory of Sinde, situated about 60 miles in a direct line from the sea, at a short distance from the western bank of the river Indus, in lat. 24° 44′ N., lon 67° 17′ E. Population uncertain, probably about 10,000. The streets are narrow and dirty; but the houses, though built of mud, chopped straw, and timber, are superior to the low huts seen in the adjoining towns and villages.

Trade.—Being situated a little above the part where the Indus divides into the two great branches by which its waters are poured into the Indian Ocean, it might be supposed that Tatta would be a place of great trade. But, owing to the unwholesomeness of the climate, the barbarism of the tribes on its banks, and other causes, its commerce has never corresponded with what might have been anticipated, looking at its position on the map. It had probably attained the acme of its prosperity in the beginning of the 16th century. In 1555, the Portuguese, by way, as they stated, of avenging the treachery of the king of Sinde, 'inhumanly massacred 8,000 of the inhabitants, and burned the town.—(*Conquêtes des Portugais*, tome iv. p. 183.) It is probable that Tatta never fully recovered from this dreadful blow; but Mr. Hamilton mentions, that in the 17th century it was extensive and populous, possessing much commerce, with manufactures of silk, wool, and cabinet ware. The decayed state in which we now find it, has been a consequence of the misgovernment and rapacity of its present rulers, the Ameers of Sinde, under whose sway it fell more than 40 years ago.

In 1635, the English established a factory at Tatta, in the view of facilitating the disposal of woollens and other goods in the countries traversed by the Indus; and the building occupied by the factory, though far from magnificent, was recently, if it be not still, the best, not in Tatta only, but in the whole country of Sinde.

The chief exports are rice, shawls from Cashmere, opium from Malwah, hides, ghee, cotton, goats' wool, carpets, drugs, &c. Putchock, an article largely consumed in China, is a peculiar export of Sinde. The imports comprise a variety of articles, but the quantities are trifling; they consist principally of spices, dye stuffs, hardware, tin, iron, &c., broad cloths, English cottons, silks, &c. But at present the trade is quite inconsiderable; and no one could believe *à priori*, that the natural emporium of so noble a river as the Indus, traversing many rich and extensive countries, would cut so insignificant a figure in the trading world.

Indus.—Its navigation by Alexander the Great has conferred on the Indus a classical celebrity not to be matched by any other river of the East. Its magnitude, too, is worthy of its fame. It may be navigated by flat-bottomed boats as far as Attock; and its tributary stream, the Ravee, one of the Punjab rivers, is navigable as far as Lahore; both places being fully 1,000 miles from the sea. Unluckily its mouths are much encumbered by sand banks; and, owing to the violence of the *bore* or tide, their navigation is attended with considerable difficulty and danger. This is no doubt the reason that at present the navigation through the delta of the Indus is quite deserted: all the products brought down the river destined for exportation by sea, being conveyed from Tatta over-land to Curachee, a sea-port a little to the south of the most northerly mouth of the river, about 60 miles in a direct line from Tatta. Above the bore the current of the river is not rapid. The boats by which it is navigated are called *doondies*, which exceeding 50 tons burden; and drawing, when laden, about 4 feet water. They have two masts and with a good wind, make their way against the stream at the rate of about 3 miles an hour. They are a sort of floating houses; resembling in this respect the Chinese junks.

There would seem to be no river in the world where steam navigation might be applied more advantageously than the Indus. But until the country near its embouchure fall under the sway of some more enlightened and less rapacious rulers than those by whom it is now possessed, little improvement need, we are afraid, be expected. But should Sinde be conquered by some civilised people, or should its present rulers learn to respect the right of property, and to encourage industry, it would not be easy to exaggerate the importance of the Indus as a commercial highway. The navigable rivers of the Punjab that fall into it, lay open a vast extent of rich and fruitful country, with great commercial resources. It is not, indeed, possible to estimate the extent of the trade that would be carried on by the channel of the Indus, did security and good order prevail on its banks; and there is reason to think that some progress is making towards their establishment.

The delta of the Indus has little in common with the delta of the Nile, except its shape. Not a fourth part of it is cultivated, and its few inhabitants principally lead a pastoral life. It is overgrown with tamarisks and other wild shrubs; and, though intersected by the numerous mouths of the river, its surface is dry and arid, and it is in a great degree destitute of fresh water. The unfavourable appearance of this tract of country does not, however, generally speaking, depend on any infertility of soil, but on the neglect of cultivation arising out of the oppression under which the people live. Mr. Burnes says, that in most places it requires little or no labour on the part of the husbandman to prepare the land; and the seed, scattered without care or attention, yields a plentiful harvest. But where property is insecure, even this little labour is not expended. (See a *Memoir on the Indus, by Lieut. Burnes*, in the 3d vol. of the *Journal of the London Geographical Society*; *Hamilton's East India Gazetteer*, articles, *Indus*, *Tatta*, *&c.*)

Money, Weights, and Measures.—Accounts are kept in rupees cowrie, and pice: 12 pice = 1 carival; 50 carivals = 1 rupee. Cowries are current in Sinde, 48 cowries = 1 pice.

Small Weights.—24 Moons = 1 Ruttee.
6 Ruttees = 1 Masa.
12 Masas = 1 Tolah.

Gun Weights.—4 Pice = 1 Anna.
16 Annas = 1 Pucca seer.
40 Seers = 1 Maund, or 74 lbs. 5 oz. 7 dwts. avoirdupois.

Long Measure.—1 Garee = 2 inches.
16 Garees = 1 Gaz; but 1 gaz cloth = 34 inches at Tatta.

Grain Measure.—4 Puttees = 1 Twier.
4 Twiers = 1 Coan.
60 Coans = 1 Carval of wheat; or 72 Pucca maunds, or 61 Bombay parahs.

Diamonds and pearls are sold by hubbas and ruttees—8 hubbas = 1 ruttee, about 2 grs. Troy.—*Milburn's Orient. Commerce.*

TEA (in one dialect of Chin. *Cha*; in another *Te*; Du. *Te*; Fr. *Thé*; It. *Te*; Rus. *Tchai*; Hind. *Cha*; Malay, *Teh*), the leaves of the tea tree or shrub (*Thea viridis* Lin.).

I. DESCRIPTION OF THE TEA PLANT.—TEA TRADE OF CHINA.
II. RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE BRITISH TEA TRADE.—CONSUMPTION OF TEA.
III. EAST INDIA COMPANY'S MONOPOLY.—INFLUENCE OF, ON THE PRICE OF TEA.—CONDITIONS UNDER WHICH IT WAS HELD.—ABOLITION OF.
IV. DUTIES ON TEA.—CONSUMPTION OF, ON THE CONTINENT AND IN THE UNITED STATES, ETC.

I. DESCRIPTION OF THE TEA PLANT.—TEA TRADE OF CHINA.

Description of the Plant.—Places where it is cultivated.—The tea plant ordinarily grows to the height of from 3 to 6 feet, and has a general resemblance to the myrtle, as the latte

is seen in congenial situations in the southern countries of Europe. It is a polyandrous plant of the natural order, *Columniferæ*, and has a white blossom, with yellow style and anthers, not unlike those of a small dog-rose. The stem is bushy, with numerous branches, and very leafy. The leaves are alternate, on short, thick, channelled footstalks, evergreen, of a longish elliptic form, with a blunt, notched point, and serrated except at the base. These leaves are the valuable part of the plant. The *Camellias*, particularly the *Camellia Sasanqua*, of the same natural family as the tea tree, and very closely resembling it, are the only plants liable to be confounded with it by a careful observer. The leaves of the particular camellia just named are, indeed, often used in some parts of China, as a substitute for those of the tea tree.

The effects of tea on the human frame are those of a very mild narcotic; and, like those of many other narcotics taken in small quantities,—even of opium itself,—they are exhilarating. The green varieties of the plant possess this quality in a much higher degree than the black; and a strong infusion of the former will, in most constitutions, produce considerable excitement and wakefulness. Of all narcotics, however, tea is the least pernicious; if, indeed, it be so at all in any degree, which we very much doubt.

The tea shrub may be described as a very hardy evergreen, growing readily in the open air, from the equator to the 45th degree of latitude. For the last 60 years, it has been reared in this country, without difficulty, in greenhouses; and thriving plants of it are to be seen in the gardens of Java, Singapore, Malacca, and Penang; all within 6 degrees of the equator. The climate most congenial to it, however, seems to be that between the 25th and 33d degrees of latitude, judging from the success of its cultivation in China. For the general purposes of commerce, the growth of good tea is confined to China; and is there restricted to 5 provinces, or rather parts of provinces, viz. Fokien and Canton, but more particularly the first, for black tea; and Kiang-nan, Kiang-si, and Che-kiang, but chiefly the first of these, for green. The tea districts all lie between the latitudes just mentioned, and the 115th and 122d degrees of East longitude. However, almost every province of China produces more or less tea, but generally of an inferior quality, and for local consumption only; or when of a superior quality, like some of the fine wines of France, losing its flavour when exported. The plant is also extensively cultivated in Japan, Tonquin, and Cochin-china; and in some of the mountainous parts of Ava; the people of which country use it largely as a kind of *pickle preserved in oil!*

Botanically considered, the tea tree is a single species; the green and black, with all the diversities of each, being mere varieties, like the varieties of the grape, produced by difference of climate, soil, locality, age of the crop when taken, and modes of preparation for the market. Considered as an object of agricultural produce, the tea plant bears a close resemblance to the vine. In the husbandry of China, it may be said to take the same place which the vine occupies in the southern countries of Europe. Like the latter, its growth is chiefly confined to hilly tracts, not suited to the growth of corn. The soils capable of producing the finest kinds are within given districts, limited, and partial. Skill and care, both in husbandry and preparation, are quite as necessary to the production of good tea, as to that of good wine.

The best wine is produced only in particular latitudes, as is the best tea; although, perhaps, the latter is not restricted to an equal degree. Only the most civilised nations of Europe have as yet succeeded in producing good wines; which is also the case in the East with tea; for the agricultural and manufacturing skill and industry of the Chinese are there unquestionably pre-eminent. These circumstances deserve to be attended to, in estimating the difficulties which must be encountered in any attempt to propagate the tea plant in colonial or other possessions. These difficulties are obviously very great; and, perhaps, all but insuperable. Most of the attempts hitherto made to raise it in foreign countries were not, indeed, of a sort from which much was to be expected. Within the last few years, however, considerable efforts have been made by the Dutch government of Java, to produce tea on the hills of that island; and having the assistance of Chinese cultivators from Fokien, who form a considerable part of the emigrants to Java, a degree of success has attended them, beyond what might have been expected in so warm a climate. The Brazilians have made similar efforts; having also, with the assistance of Chinese labourers, attempted to propagate the tea shrub near Rio de Janeiro; and a small quantity of tolerably good tea has been produced. But owing to the high price of labour in America, and the quantity required in the cultivation and manipulation of tea, there is no probability, even were the soil suitable to the plant, that its culture can be profitably carried on in that country.

It might probably be successfully attempted in Hindostan, where labour is comparatively cheap, and where the hilly and table lands bear a close resemblance to those of the tea districts of China; but we are not sanguine in our expectations as to the result.

Species of Tea.—Manner in which they are manufactured.—The *black* teas usually exported by Europeans from Canton are as follows, beginning with the lowest qualities:—Bohea, Congou, Souchong, and Pekoe. The *green* teas are Twankay, Hyson skin, young Hyson, Hyson, Imperial, and Gunpowder. All the black teas exported (with the exception of a part of the bohea, grown in Woping, a district of Canton) are grown in Fokien—a

ally, maritime, populous, and industrious province, bordering to the northeast on Canton. Owing to the peculiar nature of the Chinese laws as to inheritance, and probably, also, in some degree, to the despotic genius of the government, landed property is much subdivided throughout the empire; so that tea is generally grown in gardens or plantations of no great extent. The plant comes to maturity and yields a crop in from 2 to 3 years. The leaves are picked by the cultivator's family, and immediately conveyed to market; where a class of persons, who make it their particular business, purchase and collect them in quantities, and manufacture them in part; that is, expose them to be dried under a shed. A second class of persons, commonly known in the Canton market as "the tea merchants," repair to the districts where the tea is produced, and purchase it in its half-prepared state from the first class, and complete the manufacture by garbling the different qualities; in which operation, women and children are chiefly employed. A final drying is then given, and the tea packed in chests, and divided, according to quality, into parcels of from 100 to 600 chests each. These parcels are stamped with the name of the district, grower, or manufacturer, exactly as is practised with the wines of Bordeaux and Burgundy, the indigo of Bengal, and many other commodities; and, from this circumstance, get the name of *chops*, the Chinese term for a seal or signet. Some of the leaf-buds of the finest black tea plants are picked early in the spring, before they expand. These constitute pekoe, or black tea of the highest quality; sometimes called "white-blossom" tea, from there being intermixed with it, to give it a higher perfume, a few blossoms of a species of olive (*Olea fragrans*), a native of China. A second crop is taken from the same plants in the beginning of May, a third about the middle of June, and a fourth in August; which last, consisting of large and old leaves, is of very inferior flavour and value. The younger the leaf, the more high flavoured, and consequently the more valuable, is the tea. With some of the congous and souchongs are occasionally mixed a little pekoe, to enhance their flavour; and hence the distinction, among the London tea dealers, of these sorts of tea, into the ordinary kinds and those of a "Pekoe flavour." Bohea, or the lowest black tea, is partly composed of the lower grades; that is, of the fourth crop of the teas of Fokien, left unsold in the market of Canton after the season of exportation has passed; and partly of the teas of the district of Woping in Canton. The green teas are grown and selected in the same manner as the black, to which the description now given more particularly refers; and the different qualities arise from the same causes. The gunpowder here stands in place of the pekoe; being composed of the unopened buds of the spring crop. Imperial hyson, and young hyson, consist of the second and third crops. The light and inferior leaves, separated from the hyson by a winnowing machine, constitute hyson skin,—an article in considerable demand amongst the Americans. The process of drying the green teas differs from that of the black; the first being dried in iron pots or vases over a fire, the operator continually stirring the leaves with his naked hand. The operation is one of considerable nicety, particularly with the finer teas; and is performed by persons who make it their exclusive business.

Tea Trade in China.—The tea merchants commonly receive advances from the Hong merchants and other capitalists of Canton; but, with this exception, are altogether independent of them; nor have the latter any exclusive privilege or claim of pre-emption. They are very numerous; those connected with the green tea districts alone being about 400 in number. The black tea merchants are less numerous but more wealthy. The greater part of the tea is brought to Canton by land carriage or inland navigation, but chiefly by the first: it is conveyed by porters; the roads of China, in the southern provinces, not generally admitting of wheel carriages, and beasts of burden being very rare. A small quantity of black tea is brought by sea, but probably smuggled; for this cheaper mode of transportation is discouraged by government, which it deprives of the transit duties levied on inland carriage. The length of land carriage from the principal districts where the green teas are grown, to Canton, is probably not less than 70[illegible] miles; nor that of the black tea, over a more mountainous country, less than 200 miles. [illegible] tea merchants begin to arrive in Canton about the middle of October, and the busy season continues until the beginning of March; being briskest in November, December, and January. Tea, for the most part, can only be bought from the Hong or licensed merchants; but some of these, the least prosperous in their circumstances, are supported by wealthy *outside* merchants, as they are called; and thus the trade is considerably extended. The prices in the Canton market vary from year to year with the crop, the stock on hand, and the external demand, as in any other article, and in any other market. After the season is over, or when the westerly monsoon sets in, in the month of March, and impedes the regular intercourse of foreigners with China, there is a fall in the price of tea, not only arising from this circumstance, but from a certain depreciation in quality, from the age of the tea; which, like most other vegetable productions, is injured by keeping, particularly in a hot and damp climate.

Foreign Trade in Tea.—There seems to be little mystery in the selection and purchase of teas; for the business is both safely and effectively accomplished, not only by the supercargoes of the American ships, but frequently by the masters; and it is ascertained from the sales at the East India House, that there is no difference between the qualities of the teas

purchased by the commanders and officers of the Company's ships, without any assistance from the officers of the factory, and those purchased for the Company by the latter. An unusual degree of good faith, indeed, appears to be observed, on the part of the Chinese merchants, with respect to this commodity; for it was proved before the select committee of the House of Commons, in 1830, that it is the regular practice of the Hong merchants to receive back, and return good tea for, any chest or parcel upon which any fraud may have been practised, which sometimes happens in the conveyance of the teas from Canton on board ship. Such restitution has occasionally been made even at the distance of 1 or 2 years. The Company seem to enjoy no advantage over other purchasers in the Canton market, except that which the largest purchaser has in every market, viz. a selection of the teas, on the payment of the same prices as others; and this advantage they enjoy only as respects the black teas; for the Americans are the largest purchasers of green teas.

We subjoin a Table for calculating the cost of tea:—

Comparison of the Cost of Tea per Picul (133⅓ lbs. Avoirdupois), with the Rate per Pound and Ton, at 9 Cwt. or 1,008 Pounds per Ton.

Per Picul.	Exchange 4s. per Dol.			Exchange 4s. 3d. per Dol.			Exch. 4s. 4d. per Dol.			Exchange 4s. 5d. per Dol.			Exch. 4s. 6d. per Dol.	
	Per Lb.	Per Ton.		Per Lb.	Per Ton.		Per Lb.	Per Ton.		Per Lb.	Per Ton.		Per Lb.	Per Ton.
Taels.	*d.*	*L. s. d.*		*d.*	*L. s. d.*		*d.*	*L. s. d.*		*d.*	*L. s. d.*		*d.*	*L. s. d.*
20 equal	10	42 0 0		10·625	44 12 6		10·833	45 10 0		11·042	46 7 6		11·250	47 5 0
21 —	10 1-2	44 2 0		11·156	46 17 1 1-2		11·375	47 15 6		11·594	48 13 10 1-2		11·813	49 12 3
22 —	11	46 4 0		11·687	49 1 9		11·916	50 1 0		12·146	51 0 3		12·375	51 19 16
23 —	11 1-2	48 6 0		12·219	51 6 4 1-2		12·458	52 6 6		12·698	53 6 7 1-2		12·938	54 6 9
24 —	12	50 8 0		12·750	53 11 0		13·000	54 12 0		13·250	55 13 0		13·500	56 14 0
25 —	12 1-2	52 10 0		13·281	55 15 7 1-2		13·541	56 17 6		13·802	57 19 4 1-2		14·063	59 1 3
26 —	13	54 12 0		13·812	58 0 3		14·083	59 3 0		14·354	60 5 9		14·625	61 8 6
27 —	13 1-2	56 14 0		14·344	60 4 10 1-2		14·625	61 8 6		14·906	62 12 1 1-2		15·188	63 15 9
28 —	14	58 16 0		14·875	62 9 6		15·166	63 14 0		15·458	64 18 6		15·750	66 3 0
29 —	14 1-2	60 18 0		15·406	64 14 1 1-2		15·708	65 19 6		16·010	67 4 10 1-2		16·313	68 10 3
30 —	15	63 0 0		15·937	66 18 9		16·250	68 5 0		16·562	69 11 3		16·875	70 17 6
31 —	15 1-2	65 2 0		16·469	69 3 4 1-2		16·791	70 10 6		17·114	71 17 7 1-2		17·438	73 4 9
32 —	16	67 4 0		17·000	71 8 0		17·333	72 16 0		17·666	74 4 0		18·000	75 12 0
33 —	16 1-2	69 6 0		17·531	73 12 7 1-2		17·875	75 1 6		18·218	76 10 4 1-2		18·563	77 19 3
34 —	17	71 8 0		18·062	75 17 3		18·416	77 7 0		18·770	78 16 9		19·125	80 6 6
35 —	17 1-2	73 10 0		18·594	78 1 10 1-2		18·958	79 12 6		19·323	81 3 1 1-2		19·688	82 13 9
36 —	18	75 12 0		19·125	80 6 6		19·500	81 18 0		19·875	83 9 6 1-2		20·250	85 1 0
37 —	18 1-2	77 14 0		19·656	82 11 1 1-2		20·041	84 5 6		20·427	85 15 10 1-2		20·813	87 8 3
38 —	19	79 16 0		20·197	84 15 9		20·583	86 9 0		20·979	88 2 3		21·375	89 15 6
39 —	19 1-2	81 18 0		20·719	87 0 4 1-2		21·125	88 14 6		21·531	90 8 7 1-2		21·938	92 2 9
40 —	20	84 0 0		21·250	89 5 0		21·666	91 0 0		22·083	92 15 0		22·500	94 10 0

Thus, at 4s. 3d. per dollar, one tael per picul is equal to 1·2d. per pound.

Usual Nett Weight and Measurement of a Chest of different Descriptions of Tea.

	Weight.	*Sol. Meas.*		*Weight.*	*Sol. Meas.*
Bohea, whole chests	catties 139	feet 8·256	Hyson	catties 48 to 50	feet 4
1-2 do.	— 84	— 5·416	Hyson skin	— 48 – 50	— 4·125
1-4 do.	— 46	— 2·374	Twankay, long chests	— 62 – 65	— 4·864
Congou chests	— 63 to 64	— 4·086	Gunpowder	— 80 – 84	— 4·100
Souchong	— 60 – 62	— 4·025	Imperial	— 70 – 74	— 4·074
Pekoe	— 49 – 50	— 4·339	Young Hyson	— 70 – 72	— 4·220

II. Rise and Progress of the British Tea Trade.—Consumption of Tea.

The late rise and present magnitude of the British tea trade are among the most extraordinary phenomena in the history of commerce. Tea was wholly unknown to the Greeks and Romans, and even to our ancestors previously to the end of the 16th or the beginning of the 17th century. It seems to have been originally imported in small quantities by the Dutch; but was hardly known in this country till after 1650. In 1660, however, it began to be used in coffee houses; for, in an act passed in that year, a duty of 8*d.* is laid on every gallon of "coffee, chocolate, sherbet, and tea," made and sold. But it is abundantly evident that it was then only beginning to be introduced. The following entry appears in the Diary of Mr. Pepys, secretary to the Admiralty:—"September 25, 1661. I sent for a cup of tea (a China drink), of which I had never drunk before." In 1664, the East India Company bought 2 lbs. 2 oz. of tea as a present for his Majesty. In 1667, they issued the first order to import tea, directed to their agent at Bantam, to the effect he should send home 100 lbs. of the best tea he could get!—(See the references in *Milburn's Orient. Com.* vol. ii. p. 530.; *Macpherson's Hist. of Com. with India*, pp. 130—132.) Since then, the consumption seems to have gone on regularly though slowly increasing. In 1689, instead of charging a duty on the decoction made from the leaves, an excise duty of 5*s.* per lb. was laid on the tea itself. The importation of tea from 1710 downwards is exhibited in the following Tables.

The great increase that took place in the consumption of duty paid tea in 1784 and 1785, over its consumption in the preceding years, is to be ascribed to the reduction that was then effected in the duties. In the *nine* years preceding 1780, above 180,000,000 lbs. of tea were exported from China to Europe, in ships belonging to the Continent, and about 50,000,000 lbs. in ships belonging to England. But from the best information attainable, it appears that the real consumption was almost exactly the reverse of the quantities imported; and that, while the consumption of the British dominions amounted to above 13,000,000 lbs, the consumption of the Continent did not exceed 5,500,000 lbs. If this statement be nearly correct, it follows that an annual supply of above 8,000,000 lbs. was

clandestinely imported. It was well known, indeed, that smuggling was carried on to an enormous extent; and after every other means of checking it had been tried to no purpose, Mr. Pitt proposed, in 1784, to reduce the duties from 119 to 12½ per cent. This measure was signally successful. Smuggling and the practice of adulteration were immediately put an end to, and the legal imports of tea were about trebled. In 1795, however, the duty was raised to 25 per cent.; and after successive augmentations in 1797, 1800, and 1803, it was raised, in 1806, to 96 per cent. *ad valorem*, at which it continued till 1819, when it was raised to 100 per cent. on all teas that brought above 2*s.* per lb. at the Company's sales.

I. A Return of the Quantities and Prices of the several Sorts of Tea sold by the East India Company, in each Year during the present charter (1st of May to 1st of May).

Year.	Bohea.		Congou.		Campoi.		Souchong.		Pekoe.	
	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.
	Lbs.	*s. d.*	*Lbs.*	*s. d.*	*Lbs.*	*s. d.*	*Lbs.*	*s. d.*	*Lbs.*	*s. d.*
1814-15	397,909	2 10·20	21,283,549	3 2 [illegible]	302,[illegible]	1·87	1,520,035	3 7·51	22,6[illegible]	[illegible]
1815-16	839,198	2 1·57	17,908,827	2 11[illegible]	23,507	94	982,816	3 6·55	30,70[illegible]	e·35
1816-17	1,597,276	2 5·56	14,895,681	2 10 39	925,550	1·73	1,862,135	3 0·47	98,562	4 2·53
1817-18	1,972,736	2 5·73	15,736,003	2 11·82	866,304	3 3·12	2,018,058	3 2·88	76,303	4 4·36
1818-19	1,441,666	2 4·78	18,441,066	2 11·23	533,821	3 4·49	1,183,051	3 5·11	69,760	4 4·37
1819-20	1,497,592	1 9·25	17,664,433	2 7·94	479,081	3 4·64	1,166,605	3 2·01	27,592	4 2·41
1820-21	2,522,927	2 1·88	15,939,795	2 7·31	319,775	3 6·04	1,285,496	3 2·96	133,964	4 2·53
1821-22	3,583,486	2 5·28	17,249,982	2 8·59	121,293	3 7·00	1,397,931	3 1·25	92,957	3 10·69
1822-23	1,873,881	2 5·43	18,822,848	2 7·82	323,063	3 6·30	1,391,668	2 10·62	44,757	4 4·73
1823-24	1,853,394	2 4·92	19,006,594	2 8·06	242,562	3 6·36	1,322,326	2 11·82	46,005	5 0·74
1824-25	2,093,276	2 4·59	20,598,958	2 7·90	227,722	3 0·88	473,476	3 4·74	66,051	4 3·26
1825-26	2,713,011	2 0·50	21,034,635	2 6·75	207,971	3 1·77	547,128	3 1·28	148,038	4 0·84
1826-27	2,588,124	1 7·02	20,472,625	2 4·73	166,701	2 9·04	475,796	3 2·17	165,842	3 6·01
1827-28	3,759,199	1 7·44	19,389,392	2 3·95	297,346	2 9·31	448,163	3 0·53	280,308	3 6·61
1828-29	3,778,012	1 6·65	20,142,073	2 3·88	284,187	2 9·14	601,739	2 10·38	131,281	3 9·23
1829-30	4,845,826	1 6·32	18,402,118	2 3·26	474,735	2 2·24	298,819	3 3·60	129,554	3 9·23
1830-31	6,096,153	1 10·03	17,857,208	2 3·15	431,455	2 3·17	277,067	3 0·76	253,101	3 9·02
1831-32	5,474,833	1 10·65	17,734,257	2 2·77	273,289	2 1·02	447,799	2 10·68	545,775	2 10·22

Year.	Twankay.		Hyson Skin.		Young Hyson.		Hyson.		Gunpowder.	
	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.	Quantity.	Average Sale Price per Pound.
	Lbs.	*s. d.*	*Lbs.*	*s. d.*	*Lbs.*	*s. d.*	*Lbs.*	*s. d.*	*Lbs.*	*s. d.*
1814-15	3,616,048	3 6·11	795,907	3 9·57	-	- -	1,008,948	5 9·15	9,189	7 6·50
1815-16	3,784,868	3 2·06	709,280	3 5·26	-	- -	1,059,225	5 5·75		
1816-17	3,339,210	3 11·92	554,370	3 0·76	-	- -	892,830	4 11·61	15,425	5 0·93
1817-18	3,763,123	3 0·69	451,904	3 1·97	-	- -	992,439	4 10·34		
1818-19	4,730,397	2 11·87	193,853	2 2·78	-	- -	900,637	4 11·53		
1819-20	4,288,345	2 10·83	161,919	3 4·38	-	- -	700,312	5 3·66		
1820-21	4,900,764	3 0·33	343,995	3 0·84	-	- -	782,482	5 6·04		
1821-22	4,401,778	3 1·48	325,636	3 1·89	-	- -	1,044,256	4 8·53		
1822-23	4,165,896	3 4·77	205,658	3 3·09	-	- -	816,872	4 3·24		
1823-24	3,967,206	3 5·71	259,309	3 4·72	-	- -	980,753	4 3·23		
1824-25	3,754,120	3 5·17	324,967	3 2·29	9,055	4 3·68	985,566	4 2·71		
1825-26	3,768,406	3 4·88	229,961	3 4·57	-	- -	932,099	4 5·38		
1826-27	4,424,262	3 1·94	298,960	3 2·26	51,421	4 0·75	801,724	4 8·72		
1827-28	4,537,672	2 7·04	242,313	2 7·19	-	- -	1,013,771	4 5·58		
1828-29	4,101,845	2 5·72	213,903	2 3·84	-	- -	1,014,923	4 1·75	645	6 6·51
1829-30	3,852,443	2 4·04	228,016	2 4·60	-	- -	1,071,278	4 1·40		
1830-31	4,560,562	2 3·72	196,791	2 6·39	-	- -	1,047,748	4 1·56		
1831-32	4,463,359	2 3·02	169,909	2 6·78	1,065	2 6·87	1,223,758	3 10·51		

The following statements show the progress of the consumption of tea in this country from a very remote epoch down to the present time:—

II. Account of the Quantity of Tea remaining for Home Consumption in Great Britain from 1711 to 1788, obtained by deducting the Quantity exported from the Quantity sold at the Company's Sales.

	Lbs.		*Lbs.*		*Lbs.*		*Lbs.*
1711	141,995	1740	1,302,549	1765	4,906,546	1789	4,166,854
1715	120,659	1745	2,209,183	1770	7,723,538	1783	3,087,616
1720	237,904	1750	2,114,922	1775	5,475,493	1784	8,608,473
1725	286,404	1755	2,738,136	1780	5,588,315	1785	13,165,715
1730	537,016	1760	2,293,613	1781	3,578,499	1786	13,985,506
1733	1,380,190						

N.B.—We have extracted this account from that given from the Company's records in *Milburn's Oriental Commerce* (vol. ii. p. 534.). There is an account, furnished by the Excise, of the quantities of tea retained for home consumption from 1725 to 1832, in the *Appendix to the First Report of the Commissioners of Excise Inquiry*. It appears, however, to involve some very material errors. Thus, it represents the consumption from 1768 to 1772, both inclusive, as under 200,000 lbs. a year, at the same time that it makes the consumption, in the immediately preceding and subsequent years, above 4,000,000 lbs.! A statement of this sort is obviously inaccurate; and yet it is not accompanied by a single remark or explanation of any sort.

III. Account of the Quantity of Tea retained for Home Consumption in Great Britain from 1789 to 1833 and of the Quantity that paid Duty for Home Consumption in Ireland from 1789 to 1837; specifying the Nett Produce of the Duties in each Country, and the Rates of Duty.

Years.	Great Britain. Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Nett Amount of Duty.			Rates of Duty.	Ireland. Quantity charged with Duty for Home Consumption.	Nett Amount of Duty. (British Currency.)			Rates of Duty.	
	Lbs.	*L.*	*s.*	*d.*		*Lbs.*	*L.*	*s.*	*d.*	*Black:*	*Green:*
1789	14,534,601	502,038	14	5	12*l.* 10*s.* per cent.	1,970,896	38,038	14	3	4*d.* per lb.	6*d.* per lb.
1790	14,693,299	547,230	4	6	—	1,736,796	33,132	12	2	ditto	ditto
1791	15,096,840	607,430	8	4	—	1,991,787	43,295	12	4	4½*d.* per lb.	6½*d.* per lb.
1792	15,822,015	616,775	6	9	—	1,844,598	35,110	0	8	ditto	ditto
1793	15,244,931	609,846	5	6	—	2,146,755	39,274	9	6	ditto	ditto
1794	16,647,963	628,081	6	5	—	2,041,990	42,892	6	2	ditto	ditto
1795	18,394,232	695,106	5	9	20*l.* per cent.	2,970,701	64,093	16	10	ditto	ditto
1796	18,009,992	877,042	13	0	—	2,336,306	48,633	14	9	ditto	ditto
1797	16,366,041	1,028 000	9	7	At or above 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. 30*l.* per cent. Under 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. 20*l.* per ditto.	2,492,954	60,817	6	5	ditto	ditto
1798	19,566,934	1,111,393	9	1	At or above 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. 35*l.* per ct. Under 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. 20*l.* per ditto.	3,953,340	103,616	5	5	ditto	ditto
1799	19,906,510	1,176,861	9	9	—	2,873,717	101,727	11	0	5½*d.* per lb.	7*d.* per lb.
1800	20,356,702	1,152,262	0	0	At or above 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. 40*l.* per ct. Under 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. 20*l.* per ditto.	2,086,166	69,824	17	7	ditto	ditto
1801	20,237,753	1,287,808	2	6	At or above 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. 50*l.* per ct. Under 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. 20*l.* per ditto.	3,499,801	135,852	3	4	*All Sorts:* Sold at or above 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. 35*l.* per ct. ad val.	Sold under 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. 20*l.* per ct. ad val.
1802	21,148,345	1,450,232	7	9	—	3,576,775	192,914	17	7	38*l.* 10*s.*—	23*l.* 10*s.*—
1803	21,647,923	1,757,257	18	4	At or above 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. 95*l.* per ct. Under 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. 65*l.* per ditto.	3,239,937	172,355	15	6	ditto	ditto
1804	18,501,904	2,348,004	4	8	—	3,337,122	251,734	8	9	64*l.* 14*s.*—	51*l.* 14*s.*—
1805	21,025,380	2,925,296	17	9	At or above 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. 95*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.* per cent. Under 2*s.* 6*d.* per lb. 65*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.* per do.	3,207,712	411,225	1	4	ditto	ditto
1806	20,355,039	3,098,488	13	2	On all teas 96*l.* per cent.	2,611,458	348,942	7	2	ditto	71*l.* 14*s.*—
1807	19,239,313	3,043,234	11	3	—	3,555,129	476,949	4	3	ditto	ditto
1808	20,859,979	3,370,610	0	10	—	3,706,771	534,685	1	7	ditto	ditto
1809	19,869,131	3,130,616	14	9	—	3,391,663	462,088	12	3	ditto	ditto
1810	19,093,244	3,212,430	1	1	—	2,922,568	435,307	10	2	*On all Teas* 93*l.* per cent. ad val.	
1811	20,702,809	3,349,294	0	9	—	3,517,384	502,816	16	11	ditto	
1812	20,018,251	3,236,793	2	9	—	3,758,499	567,186	11	6	ditto	
1813	20,443,226	Customs' records destroyed.			—	3,352,294	521,299	12	3	ditto	
1814	19,224,154	3,429,236	8	4	—	3,387,019	529,818	7	11	96*l.* per cent. ad valorem, and henceforth the same as in Great Britain.	
1815	22,378,345	3,536,590	18	3	—	3,462,776	531,500	15	2		
1816	20,246,144	3,956,719	0	5	—	2,990,580	405,777	16	3		
1817	20,522,036	3,003,650	18	7	—	3,141,035	427,713	7	3		
1818	23,660,177	3,362,588	10	1	—	3,569,431	510,105	6	6		
1819	22,631,467	3,256,433	13	10	At or under 2*s.* per lb. 96*l.* per ct. Above 2*s.* per lb. 100*l.* per ditto.	3,238,498	433,371	11	6		
1820	22,452,050	3,128,449	17	0	—	3,150,344	398,742	5	4		
1821	22,892,913	3,275,642	17	6	—	3,493,960	462,819	16	3		
1822	23,911,884	3,424,292	19	10	—	3,816,966	511,209	5	2		
1823	23,762,470	3,407,983	1	8	—	3,367,710	440,139	4	11		
1824	23,781,836	3,420,205	11	11	—	3,387,510	445,271	15	11		
1825	24,830,015	3,527,944	4	11	—	3,889,658	503,074	13	4		
1826	25,238,067	3,291,813	19	5	—	3,807,785	446,229	5	1		
1827	26,043,223	3,263,206	19	3	—	3,867,955	442,352	14	10		
1828	*26,700,481	3,177,179	8	0	—						
1829	29,495,199	3,321,782	2	6	—						
1830	30,047 079	3,367,097	18	9	—						
1831	29,997,100	3,344,918	12	9	—						
1832	31,548,409	3,509,834	13	7	—						
1833	31,829,030	3,447,101	18	1	—						

Irish Currency. British Currency.

* This amount includes all tea shipped to Ireland for consumption in that country subsequently to the passing of the act 3 Geo. 4. c. 44.

IV. Account of the Quantity of Tea entered for Home Consumption, the Rate of Duty, and the Nett Produce of the Duty, in the Year ended 5th of January, 1834.

Year ended 5th of January.	Lbs. Weight of Tea. Sold at or under 2s. per Lb.	Rate of Duty on the Sale Price.	Sold above 2s. per Lb.	Rate of Duty on the Sale Price.	Total Lbs. Weight.	Nett Produce.
	Lbs.	*L.*	*Lbs.*	*l.*	*Lbs.*	*L.* s. d.
1834	7,663,333	96 per cent.	24,166,287	100 per cent.	31,829,620	3,444,101 18 1

It appears from the third of the foregoing Tables, making allowance for the increase of population, that the consumption of tea in Great Britain has been about stationary, or has rather diminished, from 1800 to the present period. This has been occasioned partly, perhaps, by the increased use of coffee; but more, we think, by the enhanced price arising out of the increase of the duty, and the operation of the monopoly. In Ireland, the consumption has been about stationary since 1801, notwithstanding the population has more than doubled in the interval.

II. East India Company's Monopoly—Influence of, on the Price of Tea—Conditions under which it was held—Abolition of.

From its origin down to the present year (1834), the tea trade has been monopolised by the East India Company. Considerable quantities of tea have, indeed, been at different times smuggled into the country; but no British subject, not authorised by the Company, was ever allowed openly to import tea. Being thus the *only sellers*, they had it in their power, by limiting the quantity brought to market, to raise its price above its natural elevation, and to realise immense profits at the expense of the public. They might, no doubt, have declined availing themselves of this power; but no such forbearance could be rationally expected from the Company, or from any other body of men. All individuals and associations exert themselves to obtain the highest price for whatever they have to sell: and it is found that those who are protected from the competition of others, or who have obtained a monopoly of any market, invariably raise the price of their commodities to a very high pitch. The East India Company have done this, probably, to a less extent than most other bodies that have enjoyed such exclusive privileges. Still, however, it is an undoubted fact that *the tea sold by them of late years cost the people of Britain upwards of* 1,500,000*l. a year more than they would have cost had they been sold at the price at which teas of equal quality were sold, under a system of free competition, in New-York, Hamburgh, Amsterdam, &c.!*—(For proofs of this statement, see former edition of this *Dictionary*, p. 1031.)

The legislature endeavoured, at different periods, to prevent the Company from abusing their monopoly, by enacting regulations as to the sale of tea; and though no longer of any practical importance, it may be still worth while briefly to notice some of the more important, and the means by which they were defeated. In 1745, for example, a very great reduction was made from the amount of the tea duties; and by a statute passed in that year (18 Geo. 2. c. 26.), it was enacted, in order to prevent the Company from depriving the public of the benefit of this reduction, that in case the tea imported by the East India Company shall not always be sufficient to answer the consumption thereof in Great Britain, and to *keep the price of tea in this country upon an equality with the price thereof in the neighbouring Continent of Europe*, it shall be lawful for the said Company, and their successors, to import into Great Britain such quantities of tea as they shall think necessary from any part of Europe: and by another section of the same statute, it is enacted, that if the East India Company shall, at any time, neglect to keep the British market supplied with a *sufficient quantity of tea at reasonable prices*, it shall be lawful for the Lords of the Treasury to *grant licences to any other person or persons*, body politic or corporate, to import tea into Great Britain from any part of Europe.

Had this statute been enforced, it would certainly have restrained the demands of the Company within reasonable limits; but it was very soon forgotten, and the Company continued, as before, to sell their teas at an enormous advance as compared with their prices in Hamburgh and Amsterdam.

The same well-founded jealousy, which dictated the act of 1745, was again displayed in the proceedings at the reduction of the duties in 1784. It was then enacted (24 Geo. 3. c. 38.), that the East India Company should make 4 sales of tea every year, as near as conveniently may be at equal distances of time from each other, and should put up at such sales such quantities of tea as may be judged sufficient to supply the demand; and at each sale, the tea to be put up shall be sold without reserve to the highest bidder, provided an advance of 1*d.* per lb. be bid upon the price at which the same is put up. By another clause it was enacted, that it should not be lawful for the East India Company "to put up their teas for sale at any price which shall, upon the whole of the teas so put up at any sale, exceed the prime cost thereof, with the freight and charges of importation, together with lawful interest from the time of arrival of such teas in Great Britain, and the common premium of insurance as a compensation for the sea risk incurred thereon." The Company were further ordered

to keep a stock, equal to at least 1 year's consumption, according to the sales of the preceding year, always beforehand. And they were bound to lay before the Lords of the Treasury, copies of the accounts and estimates upon which their orders for importation, prices for sale, and quantities put up to sale, should be grounded.

The object of these conditions is obvious. They were intended to secure a plentiful supply of tea to the public, and to prevent its being sold at an oppressive increase of price. But monopoly and low prices are altogether incompatible. The conditions now referred to were, as to all practical purposes at least, quite inoperative.

1. In the first place, the Company made various additions to the prime cost, and consequently to the putting up price of their tea, which they ought not to have made, but which the Lords of the Treasury, had they been so disposed, could hardly disallow. They always, for example, charged the cost of the factory at Canton to the price of tea. This establishment consisted of about 20 persons, and cost at an average about 100,000*l.* a year! We do not presume to say that it was altogether useless. Undoubtedly, however, it might have been conducted at half the expense. It is a fact, that the whole American business at Canton has been transacted by the captains of the ships; and every one knows that they have had fewer disturbances with the natives than the English.

2. In the second place, it was established by the evidence taken before the select committee of 1830, that the Company had for many years thrown the whole losses arising from their outward investment upon tea, by estimating the value of the tael, or Chinese money in which the accounts are kept, at the price which it cost for the purpose of being vested in tea. This was a complete evasion of the provisions of the statute; but it was one which it was very difficult, if not impossible to defeat.

3. In the third place, the obligation imposed on the Company, of keeping a year's supply of tea in their warehouses, contributed both to raise its price, and deteriorate its quality. From a return made to an order of the select committee of the House of Commons in 1830 (*First Report*, App. p. 23.), it appears that the shortest time any tea sold by the Company had been in store was 14 months; and that, at an average, all the teas sold during the 3 years ending with 1829 had been 17 months in store. But, according to the evidence of the most respectable American witnesses, the black and coarser kinds of tea are depreciated at least 5 per cent. by being kept a twelvemonth, and are, indeed, hardly saleable after the arrival of fresh teas from China. Adding, therefore, warehouse rent, interest of capital, and insurance for 17 months, to the deterioration in point of quality, we may estimate the loss to the public, by this well-meant but most injudicious interference of the legislature, at 15 per cent. upon the price of all the teas sold.

4. In the fourth place, it is obvious, even supposing the prime cost of the Company's teas had not been improperly enhanced, that the regulation obliging them to be sold at an advance of 1*d.* per lb. if offered, on the putting-up price, could not be otherwise than nugatory. Had the trade been open, private merchants would have undersold each other, until the price of tea, like that of sugar or coffee, had been reduced to the very lowest point that would yield the sellers the customary rate of profit. But the Company was in an entirely different situation. Being the *only sellers*, they invariably *understocked* the market. Instead of bringing forward such quantities of tea as might have occasioned its sale at a small advance upon the upset price, they adjusted the supply so that the price was raised to a much higher elevation. Now, it will be observed, that all that this system of management put into the Company's coffers consisted of *extra profit*; for the putting up price embraced every item that could fairly enter into the cost of the tea, including both *interest* on capital and insurance, and including also, as we have seen, several items that had but little to do with it. To show the extent to which this source of profit was cultivated, we may mention, that at the June sale in 1830, the company put up congou at 1*s.* 8*d.* and 2*s.* 1*d.* per lb.; the lowest sort, or that put up at 1*s.* 8*d.*, being sold partly at 2*s.* 1½*d.*, being an advance of *twenty-two and a half* per cent., and partly at 2*s.* 5*d.*, being an advance of FORTY-FIVE per cent.; while the highest sort, or that put up at 2*s.* 1*d.*, was sold partly at 2*s* 2*d.*, being an advance of *four* per cent., and partly at 3*s.* 7*d.*, being an advance of no less than SEVENTY-TWO per cent. above the upset price; that is, above a price calculated to yield *ordinary profits*. Mr. Mills, an intelligent and extensive wholesale tea merchant, in a paper laid before the recent committee of the House of Lords on East India affairs, showed, that the advance on the teas sold at the Company's June sale in 1830, above the putting-up price, amounted to 122,177*l.* 18*s.* 1*d.*; and as there are 4 such sales in the year, the total advance must have been about 500,000*l.*; and this was considerably under what it had been a few years previously!

These statements show generally how the Company defeated the provisions of the act of 1784, and, indeed, turned them to its own advantage. But, as already observed, nothing else could be expected. It is nugatory to attempt to combine monopoly with low prices and good qualities. They never have existed, and it is not possible they ever should exist, together. Monopoly is the parent of dearness and scarcity; freedom, of cheapness and plenty.

Great, however, as was the sacrifice entailed on the people of Britain by the Company's mono-

poly, it is doubtful whether it yielded any considerable amount of revenue to the Company. Every one, indeed, must be satisfied, on general grounds, that it was impossible for the Company to make any thing like the same profits by the privileges conceded to them, that would have been made by private individuals enjoying similar advantages. "The spirit of monopolists," to borrow the just and expressive language of Gibbon, "is narrow, lazy, and oppressive. Their work is more costly and less productive than that of independent artists; and the new improvements so eagerly grasped by the competition of freedom, are admitted with slow and sullen reluctance, in those proud corporations above the fear of a rival, and below the confession of an error." We have no doubt that the directors of the East India Company were disposed to extend its commerce, and to manage it according to the most approved principles, but they were wholly without the means of giving effect to their wishes. They had to operate through servants; and is it to be imagined that the *employés* of such bodies will ever display that watchful attention to their interests, or conduct the business intrusted to their care with the unsparing economy practised by private merchants trading on their own account, superintending their own concerns, and responsible in their own private fortunes for every error they may commit! The affairs of the Company, notwithstanding the efforts of the directors to introduce activity and economy, have always been managed according to a system of routine. Their captains and mercantile agents were, we doubt not, "all honourable men;" but it were an insult to common sense to suppose that they may be compared for a moment with individuals trading on their own account, in the great requisites of zeal, conduct, and skill.

Several gentlemen of great knowledge and experience, who have carefully inquired into the state of the Company's affairs, have expressed their decided conviction, that they made nothing by the tea trade!—the increased price at which they sold the article not being more than sufficient to balance the immense expenses incident to the monopoly! Perhaps this statement may be somewhat exaggerated, though we incline to think it is not far from the mark.—(See vol. i. p. 629.) Taking, however, the accounts laid by the Company before the late committee on Indian affairs, as they stand, it would appear that the profits realised by them during the 3 years ending with 1827–28 amounted to 2,542,569*l.*, being at the rate of 847,523*l.* a year.—(*Appen. to Second Report of Select Committee of* 1830, p. 95.) But we have already seen that the excess of price received by the Company for their teas, over the price of similar teas sold at New York and Hamburgh, has been above 1,500,000*l.* a year; so that, according to the Company's own showing, their monopoly occasioned an *absolute loss* of 652,477*l.* exclusive of its mischievous influence in lessening the consumption of tea, and in confining our trade with China to less than a third of what it will probably amount to under a system giving free scope to the energies of individual enterprise.

The renewal of a monopoly productive of such results was, therefore, wholly out of the question. There was hardly, indeed, in 1833, an individual in the empire out of the pale of the Company who was not anxious for the opening of the trade to China; and the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 93,—(see vol. i. p. 304.) abolishing the Company's monopoly, and making it lawful for all individuals to import tea, was passed with almost no opposition.

IV. Duties on Tea.—Consumption of, on the Continent and in the United States, etc.

Down to the 22d of April, 1834, the duty on tea was an *ad valorem* one, being 96 per cent. on all teas sold under 2*s.* a pound, and 100 per cent. on all that were sold at or above 2*s.* Seeing that tea may now be considered almost as a necessary of life, this was, certainly, a high duty; though, as a large amount of revenue must be raised, we do not know that it could be fairly objected to on that ground. But under the monopoly system, the duty was, in fact, about 200 per cent. *ad valorem!* For, the price of the tea sold by the Company being forced up to nearly double what it would have been had the trade been free, it followed, inasmuch as the duty varied directly as the price, that it also was doubled when the latter was doubled. The price of Congou at Hamburgh, for example, varies from 1*s.* 2*d.* to 1*s.* 4*d.* per lb.; and had the Company supplied our markets with congou at the same rate, it would have cost us, duty included, from 2*s.* 2*d.* to 2*s.* 8*d.* per lb. But instead of this, the congou sold by the Company has been, at an average, a good deal above 2*s.* per lb.; and, the duty being as much, it has invariably cost us from 4*s.* to 5*s.* per lb. Hence, though the duty was only 100 per cent. on the Company's price, it was really above 200 per cent. on the price of tea in an open market! The mischief of the monopoly was thus aggravated almost beyond endurance; inasmuch as every addition made by it to the cost of the article, made an equal addition to the duty on it.

But this system is now happily at an end. The *ad valorem* duties ceased on the 22d of April, 1834; and all tea imported in the United Kingdom for home consumption is now charged with a customs duty as follows:—

Bohea	1*s.* 6*d.* per lb.
Congou, twankay, hyson skin, orange pekoe, and campoi	2*s.* 2*d.* —
Souchong, flowery pekoe, hyson, young hyson, gunpowder, imperial, and other teas not enumerated	3*s.* 0*d.* —

If we compare these duties with the prices of tea at New York and Hamburgh, they will be found to be exceedingly heavy, particularly on bohea and congou. It is pretty certain, that, at no distant period, bohea will be sold, exclusive of the duty, at or under 1*s.* per. lb.*; and supposing this to be the case, the present fixed duty will be equivalent to an *ad valorem* duty of 150 per cent.! But to impose such a duty on an article fitted to enter largely into the consumption of the lower classes, seems to be in the last degree oppressive and absurd. It will go far to neutralise the beneficial effects that would otherwise result from the abolition of the monopoly; and cannot fail, by confining the consumption of the article within comparatively narrow bounds, to render the duty less productive than it would be were it lower. Nothing can be more injurious, both in a commercial and financial point of view, than the imposition of oppressive duties on articles, the consumption of which would be materially extended by a fall of price; and that such is the case with bohea is beyond all question. The Company, by reducing its price from about 2*s.* 6*d.* to 1*s.* 10½*d.* per lb. (which was, of course, accompanied by a corresponding reduction of duty), increased the consumption from 1,873,981 lbs. in 1822-23, to 6,474,838 lbs. in 1831-32. Here we have the consumption more than trebled by a fall of about 1*s.* 3*d.* per lb. And we have not the slightest doubt that a further fall of 1*s.* 3*d.* would, by bringing the article fairly within the command of a vastly greater number of consumers, extend the demand for it in a much greater degree. But it is hardly possible that such a reduction should take place, unless 6*d.* be taken from the duty. We trust, however, that this may be done. At 1*s.* per lb., the duty would undoubtedly yield more than it will ever do at 1*s.* 6*d.* We may also add that nothing would do so much to weaken the pernicious habit of gin-drinking, as a fall in the price of tea, coffee, &c. And it is not to be endured that the price of such desirable articles should be raised to an exorbitant height by duties, that would be more productive of revenue were they effectually reduced.

It has been wholly owing to their exorbitant prices, that notwithstanding the English are the richest people in the world, and that the taste for tea is so very generally diffused amongst us, we consume very little of the superior qualities! Indeed, some of the finest are not to be met with in our markets; and while about a dozen kinds of tea are regularly quoted in the Hamburgh, Amsterdam, and New York Price Currents, there are never more than 7. and sometimes only 6, species to be met with here. Imperial, a very fine green tea, regularly imported into America, and all parts of the Continent, is unknown in the English market. Singlo, once imported by the Company, has disappeared for about 50 years. Pekoe and gunpowder, the finest qualities of black and green, are little known in the English market; and have been only imported in small quantities by the officers of the Company's ships.

The abolition of the monopoly will, no doubt, introduce a greater variety of teas; and, by lowering their price, will materially extend the demand for those of a superior quality. The fixed duty on the finer teas is, when compared to their prices, a good deal less than that laid on bohea and congou. But a preference of this sort ought not to exist, or to exist only in favour of the coarser teas, or of those consumed by the mass of the people. A duty even of 1*s.* on bohea would be very decidedly higher than a duty of 3*s.* on imperial and gun powder.

We subjoin an abstract of the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 101. regulating the tea duties.

Tea importable into the U. K. from the Cape of Good Hope, &c.—From and after the 23d of April 1834, it shall be lawful to import any tea into the United Kingdom from the Cape of Good Hope, and from places eastward of the same to the Straits of Magellan, and not from any other place.—§ 1.

Tea importable into British possessions, &c.—It shall be lawful to import any tea into any of the islands of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, or Sark, or into the British possessions of America, from the Cape of Good Hope and places eastward of the same to the Straits of Magellan, or from the United Kingdom, and not from any other place.—§ 2.

Duties.—From and after the 23d of April, 1834, the duties of excise payable upon tea shall cease and determine, except as hereafter provided, and in lieu of such duties, there shall be paid the duties of customs set forth in the Table following; and such duties shall be raised, levied, collected, and paid unto his Majesty, and shall be appropriated and applied in like manner as if the same had been imposed by an act passed in the present session of parliament for granting duties of customs; viz.

Table of Duties on Tea in Warehouse, or imported into the United Kingdom:

Tea, viz	*L.*	*s.*	*d.*		*L.*	*s.*	*d.*
Bohea, per lb.	0	1	5	Souchong, flowery pekoe, hyson, young hyson, gunpowder, imperial, and other sorts not enumerated, per lb.	0	3	0
Congou, twankay, hyson skin, orange pekoe, and campoi, per lb.	0	2	2				

Provided, that nothing herein contained shall alter or affect the duties payable upon tea sold by the East India Company at their public sales, prior to the said 23d of April, 1834: provided also, that the allowance commonly called draft, made by the commissioners of excise in the weighing of tea, shall be made by the commissioners of customs under the authority of this act.—§ 3.

Abatement for Sea Damage not allowed.—No abatement of duty shall be made on account of damage received by tea during the voyage; but it shall be lawful for the importer to separate the damaged parts, and to abandon the same to the commissioners of the customs for the duty.—§ 4.

Mixed Tea liable to highest Duty.—If different sorts of tea mixed together be imported in the same package, the whole shall be liable to the highest rate of duty to which any of such sorts would be

* The price of bohea in the New York market, in January, 1834, was from 13 to 16 cents per lb.; that is, about 7·2*d.* Should the price of bohea sink to this level in London, the duty would be nearly 300 per cent. on its value!—(See *post.*)

separately liable; and if 2 or more sorts of tea not perfectly mixed together be imported in 1 package, the same shall be forfeited, and may be seized, sued for, recovered, and dealt with in the same manner as any forfeiture incurred under any law relating to the customs.—§ 5.

Importation of Tea to be under the Customs.—From and after the passing of this act, it shall be lawful for the Lords of the Treasury, by warrant under the hands of 3 or more of them, to order and direct that the importation of tea, and the duties thereon, shall be under the management of the commissioners of customs, instead of the commissioners of excise, and from and after the time specified in such warrant, the same shall be transferred accordingly; provided, that until the transfer of such management, and of the custody of tea in warehouse, shall be fully made under the directions of the Lords of the Treasury, any act, &c. done or performed by, to, or with the commissioners of excise, or their officers, shall have the same effect in law as if it had been done or performed by, to, or with the commissioners of customs, or their officers, under the authority of this act; but nothing hereinbefore contained shall alter or affect any law of excise relating to licences for the sale of tea, or to permits for its removal, or to the internal management of tea by the excise, after the import duties have been paid, and after it has been delivered out of the charge of the officers of the customs.—§ 6.

Treasury may discontinue Permits for Tea and other Goods.—It shall be lawful for the Lords of the Treasury, by warrant or order under the hands of 2 or more of them, to discontinue the practice of issuing permits for the removal of tea, and to make and establish any other rules, regulations, and restrictions in lieu of such practice, as shall appear to them necessary for the security of the revenue; and all rules, regulations, and restrictions so made and established, shall have the force of law, as fully as if they were embodied in this act, and shall be obeyed and enforced in like manner as any rules, regulations, &c. are or can be obeyed or enforced under the provisions of any act or acts of parliament relating to the customs, or to the excise; and copies of such rules, regulations, &c. shall be laid before parliament.—§ 7.

Assessment of the Duties.—A good deal of discussion has recently taken place with respect to these duties. It has been contended, that it will be impossible to assess them fairly; and that it would be better to establish a uniform duty of 2*s.* a pound. We understand, however, that the *ad valorem* duties formerly charged on teas imported into the United States, were collected with considerable fairness; and we do not see why the same may not be done here. But whatever device may be fallen upon to obviate frauds upon the revenue, or to facilitate the collection of the duties, we protest against its being attempted by an equalisation of the duties. The real objection to the present scale is not that the duties differ too much, but that they differ too little—that the duty on bohea is much too high, as compared with that on the finer teas. The equalisation of the duties, would, indeed, be a proceeding too glaringly opposed to every fair principle, to be tolerated. Should it, however, be found necessary to make any alteration in the duties, on account of the difficulty in the way of their assessment, the better way would probably be, to admit congou at the duty of 1*s.* 6*d.* It is only in the substitution of congou for bohea, that any considerable frauds can take place; and this would, of course, effectually obviate them. This plan is objectionable, no doubt, from its leaving the duty on bohea too high; but as we have only to choose among difficulties, it is, perhaps, as good a one as could be made.

Port Charges in China.—We expressed, in a previous article, (see vol. i. p. 304,) our doubts as to the policy of the clause in the act opening the China trade, which authorised the imposition of peculiar duties on the ships and goods engaged in the trade, for the purpose of defraying the cost of the establishment to be kept up at Canton. Soon after that paragraph was printed, an order in council was issued, fixing the duties in question at 2*s.* per ton of tonnage duty, and 7*s.* per cent. on the value of the imports into and exports from China. These were heavy charges; and as the American and other foreign ships resorting to Canton are not liable to any claims of the sort, their imposition on British ships would have been most injurious to them. The order in council, being, in consequence, loudly and justly objected to, was very properly withdrawn. An arrangement has since been made, by which the expense of the factory is to be defrayed, ½ by the British government, and ½ by the East India Company; so that British ships will not be liable to any charges, except such as are imposed by the Chinese, and which fall on all foreigners alike.—(For an account of these charges, see vol. i. p. 296.)

Capacity of China to furnish additional Supplies of Tea.—It has been sometimes contended, that the tea trade being thrown open, were the duties materially reduced, the increased demand of this country could not be supplied, and that the reduction of the duty would not really benefit the British consumer, but the Chinese government. Our readers will hardly expect that we should enter at any length into the refutation of so absurd a notion. At the commencement of last century, the entire annual consumption of tea in this country, the Continent, and America, did not certainly amount to 500,000 lbs.; whereas the consumption of Great Britain, the Continent, and United States, amounts at present to about 50,000,000 lbs.; and yet every one acquainted with the history of the trade is aware, that though the consumption has increased *a hundred fold*, the prices in all open markets have been regularly declining, and even at the Company's sales they have lately been a good deal less than they were 50 or 60 years since. We may, therefore, rest quite easy upon this point. The production of tea is rapidly extending in China; and the vast extent of that empire, its capacities for raising unlimited quantities of tea, and the extent to which it is there used, negative the idea that any conceivable increase of the consumption of this country should have any perceptible or permanent influence on its cost price.

Retail Dealers in Tea.—Retailers of tea are obliged to take out a licence, which costs 11*s.* a year. In 1832, their numbers were, in England, 76,713, in Scotland 13,701, in Ireland 11,273; making, for the United Kingdom, a grand total of 101,687!

Adulteration of Tea.—It might have been fairly enough anticipated, from the high price of, and the high duty on, tea, and the facility with which it may be mixed up with foreign substances, that it would not escape adulteration; and the records of the courts of justice show that such is the case; several dealers having been convicted of this pernicious practice. The adulteration is usually effected either by the intermixture of sloe or ash leaves with fresh teas; or by mixing the latter with tea that has been already used. The penalties on such offences are stated below; but the best, or rather the only, security on which any reliance can be placed, is to be found in the character and respectability of the parties dealing in tea. Even were he influenced by nothing else, it would be extreme folly in any person carrying on an extensive business to engage in such dishonest practices; for they can hardly fail of being detected; and the ruin of his business, that would follow such exposure, would far more than balance whatever gains he could hope to make by his fraudulent schemes.

Penalties on Adulteration.—If any dealer in or seller of tea dye or fabricate any sloe or other leaves in imitation of tea, or mix or colour leaves of tea with terra Japonica or other ingredient, or vend or expose to sale, or have in possession the same, shall forfeit for every pound of such adulteration, 10*l.*—(14 *Geo.* 3. c. 14. s. 11.)

Every person, whether a dealer in or seller of tea, or not, who shall dye or fabricate any sloe leaves, liquorice leaves, or the leaves of tea that have been used, or the leaves of the ash, elder, or other tree, shrub, or plant, in imitation of tea, or who shall mix or colour such leaves with terra Japonica, copperas, sugar, molasses, clay, logwood, or other ingredient, or who shall sell, or expose to sale, or have in custody, any such adulterations in imitation of tea, shall for every pound forfeit, on conviction, by the oath of 1 witness before 1 justice, 5*l.*; or, on non-payment, be committed to the house of correction, for not more than 12 nor less than 6 months.—(17 *Geo.* 3. c. 29. s. 1.)

Any person having in possession any quantity exceeding 6 pounds of sloe, ash, or elder leaves, or the leaves of any other tree, plant, or shrub, green or manufactured, and shall not prove to the satisfaction of the justice hearing the matter that the same were gathered with the consent of the owner of the trees, &c., and that they were gathered for some other purpose than that of being fabricated into imitation of tea, shall forfeit 5*l.* for every pound in his possession or, on nonpayment, be committed to prison.—Sect. 2.

If an officer of excise, or other person, make oath that he suspects herbs dyed, or otherwise prepared in imitation of tea, are hid or lodged in any place, a justice may issue a warrant for seizing the same by day or night, (in the night, in presence of a constable;) to gether with all wagons, tubs, and packages in which they may be contained; the herbs may be directed to be burnt, and the wagons, &c., sold, and, after deducting expenses, the proceeds to be shared, 1-2 to informer, and 1-2 to poor of the parish. Obstructing such seizure, subjects the offender to a penalty of 50*l.*, or not less than 6 or more than 12 months' imprisonment.—Sect. 3.

Herbs not to be burnt, if owner can prove, within 24 hours, that they were gathered with consent of proprietor of trees, plants, or shrubs, and that they were not intended to be fabricated in imitation of tea.—Sect. 4.

Occupier of premises where herbs are found, liable to the penalties, unless he can prove they were lodged without his consent.—Sect. 5.

Consumption of Tea on the Continent and in the United States.—Of the Continental states, Russia and Holland are the only ones in which the consumption of tea is considerable. In 1832, the imports of tea into Russia amounted to 179,474 poods, or 6,461,064 lbs. The imports consist almost entirely of black tea. The consumption of tea in Holland amounts to about 2,800,000 lbs. a year; the duty on which varies from 1½*d.* to 4½*d.* per lb. The consumption of France is not supposed to exceed 230,000 lbs. The importations into Hamburgh vary between 1,500,000 and 2,000,000 lbs., the greater part of which is forwarded to the interior of Germany. The imports into Venice and Trieste do not exceed a few cwt. a year.

The consumption of the United States exceeds 8,000,000 lbs. a year. Duties on tea used to form one of the largest items of American revenue, having in some years produced 650,000*l.* Their magnitude, however, was justly complained of; and it is probably owing to this circumstance that, while the consumption of tea was for several years pretty stationary in the United States, that of coffee increased with even greater rapidity than in England.—(See vol. i. p. 379.) The secretary of the treasury of the United States, in his Report for 1827, observed,—"The use of tea has become so general throughout the United States, as to rank almost as a necessary of life. When to this we add that there is no rival production at home to be fostered by lessening the amount of its importation, the duty upon it may safely be regarded as too high. Upon some of the varieties of the article it considerably exceeds 100 per cent., and is believed to be generally above the level which a true policy points out. A moderate reduction of the duty would lead to an increased consumption of the article, to an extent that, in all probability, would, in the end, rather benefit than injure the revenue. Its tendency would be to enlarge our trade and exports to China; a trade of progressive value, as our cottons and other articles of home production (aside from specie) are more and more entering into it. It would cause more of the trade in teas to centre in our ports; the present rate of duty driving our tea ships, not unfrequently, to seek their markets in Europe, not in the form of re-exportation, but in the direct voyage from China. It would also serve to diminish the risk of the United States losing any portion of a trade so valuable, through the policy and regulations of other nations." These judicious suggestions could not fail to command attention; and the flourishing state of the revenue having admitted of a very great reduction of duties, those on tea have been wholly repealed. As was to be expected, the consumption has since begun rapidly to increase. We subjoin an account of the

Quantity and Value of the different Sorts of Tea imported into and exported from the United States during the Year ended 30th of September, 1832.—(*Papers laid before Congress*, 15th of February, 1833.)

Different Sorts of Tea.	Imports.	Exports.
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*
Bohea	65,341	95,180
Souchong, and other black	2,920,764	841,501
Hyson skin, and other green	1,345,600	19,004
Hyson, and young hyson	4,143,980	340,474
Imperial, gunpowder, and gomee	919,982	310,809
Total	9,906,606	1,378,468
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*
Value of teas imported and exported	2,786,353	702,014

The following is a statement of the wholesale prices of tea in New York on the 15th of January, 1834.

	Cents.	*Doll. Cts.*			*Cents.*	*Doll. Cts.*	
Imperial	65	to 1 0	per lb.	Hyson skin	25	to 0 50	per lb.
Gunpowder	61	— 1 0	—	Souchong	25	— 0 40	—
Hyson	76	— 0 88	—	Bohea	13	— 0 16	—
Young hyson	65	— 0 80	—				

(Tea (Trade in).—We are truly glad to have to state that the results of the first 4 years' experience of the free trade to China have more than justified the anticipations of those who expected the greatest success from the abolition of the monopoly. At an average of the 3 or 4 years preceding the dissolution of the Company's charter, their average annual imports of tea amounted to about 31,500 000 lbs. a year; but in 1833–34, the last year of the charter, the imports were only 29,592,310 lbs. The year 1835, the first year of the free

trade, presents a very different result; the imports having amounted to 43,000,000 lbs., exceeding by above 10,000,000 lbs., or 30 per cent., the Company's imports when largest! We subjoin

An Account of the Quantities of Tea imported into the United Kingdom, the Quantities retained for Consumption, and the Nett Revenue derived from the same, in 1834, 1835, 1836, 1837, and 1838.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Retained for Consumption.	Nett Revenue.
	lbs.	*lbs.*	*lbs.*	£
1834	33,643,080	1,181,005	34,069,651	3,589,361
1835	44,560,550	2,158,029	36,571,004	3,532,427
1836	49,307,701	4 209 862	49,112,236	4,674,535
1837	36,973,981	4,716,348	30,625,206	3,223,840
1838	39,867,441	- -	39,366,413	

The excess of the quantity retained for consumption in 1836 was occasioned by the change in the duties that year, which made it necessary to enter all the heavy stock of bohea then in bond, in order to escape the duty of 2*s.* 1*d.* to which it would otherwise have become liable.

For an account of the species of tea, and the quantities of each exported from Canton to England and the United States, during the year ended 30th of June, 1837, see art. CANTON, vol. i. p. 300—310.

The extension of the trade is not, however, the only gratifying circumstance connected with it. Notwithstanding the great additions made to the exports, there has been no rise of prices at Canton worth mentioning; a fact which sets the ability of China to furnish additional supplies in the most striking point of view. The quality, too, of the free trade teas is said by some to be superior, and is admitted by all to be at least equal, to that of the Company's teas. Many apprehensions were entertained of disturbances taking place between the crews of the private ships and the natives that might interrupt or stop the trade; but nothing of the sort has occurred. Under all the disadvantages of inexperience, the free traders have, with but few exceptions, conducted themselves with singular tact and address; and the captains of the different ships agree in affirming, that Canton is a port where they may unload, load, and clear out, not only without any difficulty, but with as much facility and expedition as at either London or Liverpool. It is singular, indeed, how completely the statements put forth by the Company's advocates, in favour of the monopoly, have been disproved: in fact, the only interruption of any kind given to the free traders was occasioned by the pretensions advanced by the individual sent out to watch over their interests; and, however painful the way in which that interruption was terminated, there can be no doubt that the event was a most fortunate one for the success of this great experiment.

The opening of the trade has been quite as successful as respects exports as imports. The quantity and value of the cottons shipped for China in 1836 very much exceed the quantity and value of those shipped in any previous year; and though, owing to the revulsion in the American trade, they fell off considerably in 1837; they have since nearly reached their highest level. This, indeed, might have been anticipated; but few comparatively anticipated what has turned out to be the fact, that the cotton stuffs have met with a quick and advantageous sale; and that all descriptions of twist, with the exception of some of the higher numbers, have, also, realised good prices and profits. Indeed, we have no doubt, as well for other reasons as from the statements of gentlemen of great experience recently arrived from China, that the trade between that country and England is yet only in its infancy. Nor is it possible to estimate the mighty dimensions to which it may attain, should our cottons, as there seems to be a fair prospect, come into extensive use among the Chinese.

Tea (Duties on).—We mentioned (p. 629.) that objections had been made to the duties imposed on tea by the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 101.; and that it had been proposed to repeal them, and to impose in their stead an equal duty of 2*s.* per lb. Had tea been of a nearly uniform quality, or had the different teas been of nearly the same value, there would have been nothing to object to in the equalisation of the duty; but, so far from this being the case, small beer does not differ more from strong than some sorts of tea from others; and while the price in bond, of the inferior sorts, in most markets, does not exceed 10*d.* or 1*s.* per lb., that of the superior sorts is as high as 4*s.* or 5*s.* Under these circumstances, it is not easy to imagine that any thing can apparently be more oppressive or unjust than the imposition of the same rate of duty on all sorts of tea. But, admitting the injustice, it was contended that it was not really of a kind that could be obviated; that it was impossible to discriminate between different qualities of tea; that, by imposing different rates of duty, a door was opened to every species of fraud; and that teas admitted at one port at the low duty of 1*s.* 6*d.* were charged at another with the higher duties of 2*s.* 2*d.* and 3*s.* per lb. We believe these statements were much exaggerated; though no doubt can be entertained of their being true to a certain extent. It was evident, indeed that considerable difficulties would have to be encountered at the outset of a new system; but it is probable that a little experience would have done much to obviate them; and it is believed by many well-informed persons, that the duties charged under the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 101. might have been, at no very distant period, assessed with considerable fairness. But government, influenced partly by a wish to get rid of the clamour and outcry raised by the importers against the discriminating duties, and partly, perhaps, by a doubt whether they could ever be fairly collected, consented

to their abolition; and, to accomplish it, introduced and carried through the act 5 & 6 Will. 4. c. 32. This statute enacted that from the 1st of July, 1836, a duty of 2*s.* 1*d.* per lb. should be charged on all teas, without exception, entered for home consumption in the United Kingdom.

We do not deny that the necessity of the case—the impossibility of fairly assessing discriminating duties—may justify a measure of this sort, but nothing short of this will afford so much as the shadow of an excuse for it. Tea is no longer, in this country at least, a luxury, but a necessary of life; and as many as 7,000 000 lbs. of bohea have been consumed in a single year. Now, if we take the price of Bohea in bond, in London, at 1*s.* per lb., and of Hyson, and other fine teas, at 4*s.*, the existing duty will be equivalent to an *ad valorem* tax of above 200 per cent. on the beverage of the poor, and of little more than 50 per cent. on that of the rich! This is a grievous anomaly; and, if the difficulties in the way of assessing discriminating duties could have been obviated by the adoption of any means at the disposal of government, it is dealing most unjustly and oppressively by the poor. Perhaps it was not possible entirely to obviate the difficulties in question. But had the plan we suggested (*ante*, p. 629.) been adopted; that is, had a duty of 1*s.* 6*d.* (1*s.* 3*d.* would have been still better) been charged on Congou as well as on Bohea, and the duties on all the other descriptions of tea been allowed to stand as they were, there would have been but little room left for fraud; the revenue would have lost little or nothing; and the duty would have been in all other respects infinitely less objectionable.

Warehousing of Tea.—The commissioners of customs have, by a minute dated the 10th of July, 1834, issued the following regulations with respect to the warehousing of tea, and its removal from the original port of importation to any other warehousing port, for the purpose of being warehoused for home consumption:—

1. That the warehouses which may be approved for the deposit of tea, be exclusively appropriated to that purpose.
2. That the article be weighed and examined at the time of importation, the officers taking care that all the packages imported in each vessel be "scribed" with a progressive number, with the initials of the vessel's and master's names, and the gross landing weight; and that the duty be charged according to the quantity and quality then ascertained.
3. That no packages be allowed to be divided into smaller packages (except for the purpose of sores), nor the mixing of tea, of any sort or sorts be permitted in the warehouses, either for home consumption or exportation.
4. That the packages be sorted and arranged in the warehouse by the occupier, according to their respective "chops" or "beds," so as to enable the officers to select from such the required number of packages for tiring, and to ascertain the proper tare to be allowed on the packages in each "chop" or "bed;" and that the rule to be observed, as to number of chests to be turned out in each "chop" or "bed," being of the same size and description of tea, be as follows, viz:—

1 to 5—	5 chests of the same size and description of teas	1 turned out.
6 to 40—	40	8 ditto
41 to 80—	80	4 or 5 ditto
81 to 120—	120	5 ditto
121 to 200—	200	6 ditto
201 to 300—	300	8 ditto
301 to 400—	400	10 ditto
401 to 800—	800	12 ditto
801 and upwards		16 ditto

And that, in addition to the tare, an allowance for draft be made of 1 lb. upon each package exceeding 28 lbs. gross, to be deducted from the foot of the landing account.

5. That tea entered for exportation be previously weighed, and any deficiency of the landing quantity charged with duty, unless such tea be deposited in a warehouse of special security.
6. That the officers be authorised, under the 124th section of the Regulation Act, to draw samples of tea, not exceeding 3 ounces of each description and quality, unless under special circumstances, such samples to be disposed of as the Board may see fit to direct. And that the merchants or proprietors of the goods be allowed to take the like quantity as samples under the 31st section of the General Warehousing Act.
7. That the removal of teas from the original ports of importation to any other warehousing port in the United Kingdom, for the purpose of being re-warehoused for home consumption, do take place under the regulations and conditions specified in the General Orders of the 14th of June, 1831, and 1st of November, 1833, in regard to the removal of articles the produce of the East Indies; and that tea so removed be allowed to be deposited in warehouses or floors which may have already been approved for other goods.
8. When tea, or other East India goods, shall be imported into either of those ports for the Glasgow market, and transhipped into craft properly secured, for removal to Glasgow in charge of the officers of the revenue, under such regulations for the security of the revenue as may appear necessary in such cases, the examination of the goods, for the purpose of ascertaining the duty thereon, may take place at Glasgow instead of the port of importation.

In all other cases, goods shall be examined at the time of importation, for the purpose of fixing the amount of duty to which they may be liable, and the duty so ascertained shall be assessed on the goods at whatever future period they may be delivered for home consumption.

Under these arrangements, there will be no objection to the goods being removed from the original port of importation to any other warehousing ports in the United Kingdom, for the purpose of being re-warehoused for home consumption, under the same regulations and restrictions now applicable to the removal of articles the produce of the East Indies.

The ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, Hull, Newcastle, Leith, Glasgow, Greenock, Port Glasgow, Dublin, Belfast, and Cork, have been declared ports into which tea may be imported and warehoused.—(*Sup.*)

[The tea imported into the United States, during the year ending September 30th, 1839, amounted to 9,349,817 lbs. valued at $2,428,419. See IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—*Am. Ed.*]

TEAK WOOD, or INDIAN OAK, the produce of the *Tectona grandis*, a large forest tree, that grows in dry and elevated districts in the south of India, the Burman empire, Pegu, Ava, Siam, Java, &c. Teak timber is by far the best in the East; it works easily, and, though porous, is strong and durable; it is easily seasoned, and shrinks very little; it is of an oily nature, and, therefore, does not injure iron. Mr. Crawfurd says, that in comparing teak and oak together, the useful qualities of the former will be found to preponderate. "It is equally strong, and somewhat more buoyant. Its durability is more uniform and decided; and to insure that durability, it demands less care and preparation; for it may be put into use almost green from the forest, without danger of dry or wet rot. It is fit to endure all climates and alternations of climate."—(See *Tredgold's Principles of Carpentry*, p. 206.; *Crawfurd's East. Archip.*, vol. i. p. 451.; *Rees's Cyclopædia*, &c.)

The teak of Malabar, produced on the high table land of the south of India, is deemed the best of any. It is the closest in its fibre, and contains the largest quantity of oil, being at once the heaviest and the most durable. This species of teak is used for the keel, timbers, and such parts of a ship as are under water: owing to its great weight, it is less suitable for the upper works, and is not at all fit for spars. The teak of Java ranks next to that of Malabar, and is especially suitable for planking. The Rangoon or Burman teak, and that of Siam, is not so close grained or durable as the others. It is, however, the most buoyant, and is, therefore, best fitted for masts and spars. Malabar teak is extensively used in the building yards of Bombay. Ships built wholly of it are almost indestructible by ordinary wear and tear; and instances are not rare of their having lasted from 80 to 100 years; they are said to sail indifferently; but this is probably owing as much to some defect in their construction, as to the weight of the timber. Calcutta ships are never wholly built of teak; the timbers and framework are always of native wood, and the planking and deck only of teak. The teak of Burma, being conveyed with comparatively little difficulty to the ports of Rangoon and Martaban, is the cheapest and most abundant of any. It is largely exported to Calcutta and Madras.—(See RANGOON.)—(*Private information.*)

A species of timber called African teak is pretty largely imported into England, from the west coast of Africa. But, in point of fact, it is not teak, and it is destitute of several of its most valuable properties. It is, however, for some purposes, a useful species of timber.

TEASEL, or FULLERS' THISTLE (Ger. *Weberdistel, Kratzdistel*; Fr. *Chardon à carder*; It. *Cardo da cardare*; Sp. *Cardencha, Cardo peinador*). This plant, which is cultivated in the north and west of England, is an article of considerable importance to clothiers, who employ the crooked awns of the heads for raising the nap on woollen cloths; for this purpose they are fixed round the periphery of a large broad wheel, against which the cloth is held while the machine is turned. In choosing teasels, the preference should be given to those with the largest bur, and most pointed, which are generally called *male teasels*. They are mostly used in preparing and dressing stockings and coverlets; the smaller kind, commonly called the fullers' or drapers', and sometimes the *female teasels*, are used in the preparation of the finer stuffs, as cloths, rateens, &c.

THREAD (Ger. *Zwirn*; Du. *Garen*; Fr. *Fil*; It. *Refe*; Sp. *Hilo, Torzal*; Rus. *Nitki*), a small line made up of a number of fibres of some vegetable or animal substance, such as flax, cotton, or silk; whence its names of linen, cotton, or silk, thread.

TILES (Ger. *Dachziegel*; Fr. *Tuiles*; It. *Tegole, Embrici*; Sp. *Tejas*; Rus. *Tcherepiza*), a sort of thin bricks, dried in kilns, and used in covering and paving different kinds of buildings. The best brick earth only should be made into tiles.—(See BRICKS AND TILES.)

TIMBER (Ger. *Bauholz, Zimmer*; Du. *Timmerhout*; Fr. *Bois de charpente, Bois à bâtir*; It. *Legname da fabbricare*; Sp. *Madera de construccion*; Rus. *Stroëwoi Gess*; Pol. *Cembrowina*), the term used to express every large tree squared, or capable of being squared, and fit for being employed in house or ship building. In the language of the customs, when a tree is sawn into thin pieces, not above 7 inches broad, it is called batten; when above that breadth, such thin pieces are called deal. Wood is the general term, comprehending under it timber, dye woods, fire wood, &c.

Timber is generally sold by the load.

The following are the contents of the loads of different species of timber, hewn and unhewn:—

A load of timber unhewn	40	cubic feet.	
squared timber	50	—	
1 inch plank	600	square feet.	
1¼ inch plank	480	—	
2 inch plank	300	—	

A load of 2½ inch plank	240 square feet.
3 inch plank	200 —
3½ inch plank	170 —
4 inch plank	150 —

36½ Russian stand. deals 12 feet long, 1½ inch thick, 11 inches broad, make 1 load timber.

58 1/3	Christiania ditto	11	—	1¼	—	9	—	1	—
53½	Dram ditto	10	—	1½	—	9	—	1	—
3	Riga logs							1	—

Price of Memel Timber per Load, in the Month of January each Year, from 1813 to 1831.

Year	Price per Load.			Years.	Price per Load.			Years.	Price per Load.		
	L. s. d.		L. s. d.		L. s. d.		L. s. d.		L. s. d.		L. s. d.
1813	10 10 0	to	11 0 0	1820	6 0 0	to	6 5 0	1826	5 10 0	to	5 15 0
1814	10 10 0	—	11 0 0	1821	6 0 0	—	6 2 6	1827	4 15 0	—	5 7 6
1815	9 0 0	—	9 15 0	1822	5 0 0	—	5 5 0	1828	4 15 0	—	5 0 0
1816	6 0 0	—	7 0 0	1823	5 15 0	—	5 17 0	1829	5 0 0	—	5 10 0
1817	6 0 0	—	6 10 0	1824	5 10 0	—	5 12 6	1830	4 17 6	—	5 2 6
1818	6 10 0	—	6 12 6	1825	5 15 0	—	6 0 0	1831	4 15 0	—	5 2 6
1819	6 15 0	—	6 17 6								

The following were the prices of the principal species of timber in the London markets, March, 1834, duty paid.—(For the duties, see TARIFF.)

					L.	s.	d.					L.	s.	d.
Teak, African				per load	6	10	0	to	7	10	0			
Oak plank, European				—	8	0	0	-	10	0	0			
Quebec				—	6	0	0	-	6	10	0			
Fir, Riga				—	5	10	0	-	0	0	0			
Dantzic and Memel				—	5	7	6	-	0	0	0			
Norway balks				per 120	36	0	0	-	36	0	0			
Pine, Quebec red				per load	4	0	0	-	4	5	0			
yellow				—	3	10	0	-	3	15	6			
New Brunswick, yellow				—	3	5	0	-	0	0	0			
red				—	3	7	6	-	3	12	6			
Miramichi yellow				—	3	5	0	-	4	0	0			
Birch birch				—	3	4	0	-	3	10	0			
Mast, American				—	3	5	0	-	0	0	0			
Ash				—	3	0	0	-	4	0	0			
Spars, Quebec, 14 feet				each	3	15	0	-	4	0	0			
Lance wood				per ton	13	0	0	-	30	0	0			
Mast, Quebec red, 10 to 19 inches				per load	6	0	0	-	7	0	0			
Yellow, 20 inch. and upwards				—	7	0	0	-	8	0	0			
Riga				—	8	10	0	-	0	0	0			
Norway and Swedish				—	0	0	0	-	0	0	0			
Plank, Dantzic oak				—	9	0	0	-	0	0	0			
Memel				—	16	0	0	-	19	0	0			
Deals, Quebec, 14 feet 3 inches by 10				per 120	38	0	0	-	0	0	0			
Stockholm				—	37	0	0	-	38	0	0			
Gottenburgh, 12 feet 3 in. by 9				—	25	0	0	-	28	0	0			
Christiania, 1st and 2d				—	34	0	0	-	0	0	0			
Frederickshal				—	29	0	0	-	0	0	0			
Onega, Archangel				—	16	0	0	-	17	0	0			
Petersburgh, Dantzic, or Memel, per standard hundred					16	0	0	-	19	0	0			
If white wood, from 2l. to 3l. less.														

				L.	s.	d.				L.	s.	d.
Deals, Quebec red pine, per standard hundred				12	0	0	to	16	0	0	
yellow			—	12	0	0	-	16	10	0	
white spruce			per 120	21	0	0	-	28	0	0	
Dantzic deck			each	26	0	0	-	30	0	0	
Deal ends, &c. generally 2 3ds the price of deals.											
Spars			—								
Lathwood, Memel, &c.			per fathom	8	10	0	-	9	0	0	
British America			—	4	10	0	-	5	0	0	
Staves, per 1,200 viz.											
Quebec pipe				95	0	0	-	0	0	0	
Hhd. 2-3d, and barrel 1-2 price of pipe.											
Virginia pipe				16	0	0	-	0	0	0	
Hhd.				9	0	0	-	12	0	0	
Barrel				7	0	0	-	12	0	0	
Boston pipe				16	0	0	-	0	0	0	
Hhd.				1	0	0	-	0	0	0	
Quebec pipe, of 1 1-2 inch				45	0	0	-	47	10	0	
Hhd. and barrel, in proportion.											
New York pipe, in bond				15	0	0	-	16	0	0	
Hhd.				9	0	0	-	12	0	0	
Barrel				7	0	0	-	10	0	0	
Dantzic crown pipe				150	0	0	-	0	0	0	
Stettin crown pipe				150	0	0	-	0	0	0	
Hhds 2-3ds, barrel 1-2 price											
Long headling, 1-3d, short headling, 1-4 price											
Memel crown pipe				150	0	0	-	0	0	0	
Timber, Riga, per load of 50 cubic feet				5	10	0	-	0	0	0	
Memel, &c.				4	17	6	-	5	5	0	

(During the session of 1835 a committee of the House of Commons was appointed to inquire into the operation of the existing duties on timber. Having examined several witnesses, the committee agreed to the following resolutions:—

1. *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this committee, that the present mode of taking the duties on deals is susceptible of improvement, and that this committee would recommend that a mode be adopted which shall approach more nearly to a payment according to the contents of the deals.

2. *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this committee, that the difference of duty of 45*s*., now imposed by law upon timber the produce of Europe, as compared with timber the produce of our North American colonies, is too great, and may be reduced.

3. *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this committee, that, having a due regard to the interests which have been created in the British North American colonies by the system hitherto pursued, and to the representations of the shipping interest, a reduction of the protective duty, not exceeding 15*s*. per load, appears to them to be a fair arrangement.

4. *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this committee, that such reduction be made, so far as may be consistent with the interests of the revenue, without any augmentation on the duty on colonial timber.

5. *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this committee, that, in any alteration made, such alteration should not affect the shipments made in the year 1836.

6. *Resolved*, That it is the opinion of this committee, that there should be an uniform mode of taking the duty on deals throughout the United Kingdom.

The adoption of these resolutions would be a material improvement. Still, however, they fall far short of what the public exigencies require. An ample supply of the best and cheapest timber being, if not absolutely indispensable, of the *utmost possible importance* to a manufacturing nation, possessed of a large mercantile and warlike navy, it should be about the very last article on which duties should be imposed. But, if a tax must, on the principle of *quocunque modo rem*, be laid on timber, it is surely unnecessary to say that it should be laid equally on all timber imported; or that, if a distinction be made, it ought plainly to be in favour of the best, and not of the worst, article. But, for several years past, our policy, if we may so call it, has been exactly the reverse of this. We have laid high discriminating duties on the superior and cheaper timber of the north of Europe, to force the importation of a dearer and comparatively bad article from our North American possessions! Even supposing the suggestion of the committee were adopted, there would still be a discriminating duty of 30*s*. a load charged on the superior timber of the north of Europe over that which is laid on inferior timber from North America. The folly of thus enhancing the cost, and deteriorating the quality, of so important an article as timber, is the greater, seeing that it is by no means clear that our North American possessions derive any real advantage from the timber trade; at all events, it is certain that they do not gain by it more than a very small part of the loss it entails on us; and any injury that might be done them by the equalisation of the timber duties, would be more than made up by the repeal of the discriminating duties that are at present charged on most articles of foreign produce imported into the colonies; duties which, without being productive of revenue, are the source of much irritation and disgust.

The shipowners would sustain more injury from an equalisation of the timber duties than any one else. But we have shown (vol. ii. p. 639.) that, even as regards them, the inconvenience would not be very considerable. But, whatever it might be, it would be fully obviated by allowing them a bounty of 30*s*. or 40*s*. on the conveyance of emigrants to Quebec; a measure of the policy of which we are on this, as well as on other grounds fully persuaded.—(See *Dict.* in *loc. cit.*)

Statement showing the Importation and Consumption of Timber in the United Kingdom, for the Fifteen Years ending the 1st of February, 1839:

Articles.	IMPORT, Years ending 1st February.					CONSUMPTION, Years ending 1st February.				
	Average of the 11 yrs. 1825 to 1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	Average of the 11 yrs. 1825 to 1835.	1835.	1837.	1838.	1839.
British America:										
Pine, cubic feet	4,541,091	7,281,500	6,284,800	5,691,400	6,527,147	4,459,464	6,300,000	6,933,580	5,240,000	6,807,570
Quebec Deals, standard	1,702	3,223	3,367	3,251	3,306	1,564	3,174	3,460	2,294	2,491
Oak, cubic feet	187,345	208,800	203,8	190,780	217,734	178,136	198,500	243,400	161,640	182,000
Elm and Ash	Elm 80,614 / Ash	117,400	74,700	61,480	101,575	-	98,100	103,4 0	76,480	88,300
Staves, mille	714	2,400	10,051	20,980	5,411	69,723	14,100	13,600	12,000	7,000
		333	308	196	136		241	309	3.6	219
		926	811	8?9	Pun. 579	769	638	9 6	374	668
Pine Planks, feet of 2 in.	2,744,763	6,442,000	4,863,400	5,963,300	7,430,000	2,811,884	5,212,000	6,450,400	4,447,360	5,618,000
Hardwood (Birch), cubic feet	143,796	298,000	278,800	272,400	336,151	220,754	322,140	322,1 0	283,800	307,410
Lathwood, fathoms	1,134	1,857	1,063	1,069	2,199	1,181	1,230	1,177	1,004	1,243
Baltic:										
Timber, Dantzig, Memel, Riga, &c., cubic feet	588,045	573,000	253,750	296,750	537,361	576,818	549,000	401,550	254,850	318,500
Deals, standard	3,743	4,864	3,404	4,366	3,754	3,572	4,267	4,598	3,745	3,667
Waincot Logs	whole 436 / half 59	643	268	579	2 0 6	564	574	228	536	85
		12	8	-	471	49	46	5	10	
Deck Planks, pieces	8,116	13,177	15,726	6,294	7,437	6,901	13,316	13,324	9,547	7,171
Staves, pipe, M.	79	58	60	31	75	92	47	55	40	58
Lathwood, fathoms, 6 feet	536	629	747	476	907	537	6 0	668	354	612
4 feet										
Mahogany, Honduras, Logs	1,171	2,189	4,851	3,043	3,000	1,178	1,945	3,627	2,962	3,393
St. Domingo	2,877	4,151	5,049	7,008	7,03	3,073	3,851	4,697	7,318	7,000
Cuba	742	1,631	3,078	3,551	993	43	1,224	2,979	3,101	1,586
Cedar, Havana, logs	809	1,095	1,524	2,295	755	955	845	1,031	1,471	2,010
Pencil, cubic feet	4,335	23 044	17,000	12 420	13,212	7,537	15,144	16,100	10,920	17,092
Fitch Pine	24,735	121,400	51,900	69,700	4 5,576	25,980	46,20	128,900	43,800	48,900
African Oak	127,774	131,847	6 6 0	139,000	87,812	12 ,023	1 3,000	11 ,000	81,000	130,000

Statement showing the Stock and Prices Current of Timber, in the United Kingdom, for the last Fifteen Years, ending the 1st of February, 1839.

Articles.	STOCK, on the 1st February.					Prices Current, on 1st February.				
	Average of the 11 yrs. 1825 to 1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	Average of the 11 years 1825 to 1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.
						L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*	*L. s. d.*
British America:										
Pine, cubic feet -	2,059,091	2,826,780	2,178,000	2,029,400	2,740,000	Yel. 1 7 3-4	Yel. 1 8	Yel. 1 8	Yel. 1 7½	Yel. 1 8
						Red 1 10 1-4	Red 1 11 3-4	Red 2 0	Red 1 11	Red 1 10½
Quebec Deals, standard -	714	1,282	1,210	2,207	3,022	11 13 3	11 15 0	14 0 0	11 10 0	11 10 0
Oak, cubic feet	116,233	145,640	106,000	75,200	110,500	0 2 5 1-2	0 2 6	0 2 9	0 3 0	0 3 3
Elm and Ash -	43,509	61,570	38,800	14,800	31,500	0 1 7 1-2	0 1 4	0 2 0	0 2 4	0 2 7½
	3,974	9,900	6,000	4,500	2,800		0 1 5		0 1 5½	0 2 4½
Staves, mille -	475	298	237	227	114	72 3 5 1-4	82 10 0	47 10 0	45 0 0	85 0 0
		709	844	979	850	31 4 7 1-2	17 10 0	20 5 0	16 10 0	20 10 0
Fir planks, feet of 1 inch -	922,454	2,468,000	868,000	2,381,000	4,193,000	0 0 2 3-4	0 0 2 3-4	0 0 3½	0 0 2½	0 0 2½
Eastwood (Birch), cubic feet -	61,891	89,560	46,200	35,300	64,000	0 1 8 1-4	0 1 4 1-2	0 1 8½	0 1 5	0 1 7
Lathwood, fathoms -	343	271	157	222	576	4 18 11 1-4	5 5 0	7 15 0	7 5 0	5 5 0
Baltic:										
Timber, Planting, Memel, Riga, &c. cubic feet -	291,361	259,000	143,200	81,100	260,000	0 2 1 1-2	0 2 4 1-2	0 2 5½	0 2 7	0 2 5½
Deals, standard -	1,337	2,023	832	1,473	1,750	15 16 9 3-4	16 5 0	17 10 0	17 0 0	17 0 0
Wainscot Logs -	330	178	218	259	1,772	4 4 8 1-4	4 15 0	6 0 0	5 5 0	5 5 0
	70	7	10	-	471	1 10 1	2 0 0	2 5 0	5 0	2 0 0
Deck planks pieces	2,814	5,437	7,933	4,880	5,149	0 0 4 1-2	0 0 0 1 4	0 0 4½	0 0 4½	0 0 4
Staves, pipe M. -	28	24	49	30	47	141 16 4 1-2	190 0 0	180 0 0	180 0 0	147 10 0
Lathwood, fathoms, 6 feet -	152	92	171	113	238	14 5 8 1-4	16 0 0	19 10 0	18 10 0	16 15 0
4 feet -	-	-	-	-	-	8 11 2 1-2	9 0 0	9 10 0	9 15 0	8 15 0
Mahogany, Honduras, logs -	469	588	1,782	1,863	1,555	0 0 7 1-2	0 1 0	0 0 10	0 0 8½	0 0 8½
P. Domingo -	1,403	1,365	1,747	1,447	1,401	0 1 9 1-4	0 1 10	0 1 9	0 1 5½	0 1 6½
Cuba -	206	426	1,126	1,579	696	0 1 11 4	0 1 11-4	0 0 10	0 0 9½	0 0 11½
Cuba, Havana, logs -	258	270	763	1,587	352	0 0 6 1-2	0 0 8	0 0 7	0 0 5½	0 0 6½
Pencil, cubic ft.	12,872	9,500	10,400	12,300	7,850	0 4 11 3-4	0 5 6	0 5 6	0 5 0	0 5 6
Fish Pine -	18,018	81,200	5,500	30,200	23,400	0 2 4 1-2	0 2 1-2	0 2 7½	0 2 6	0 2 4½
African Oak -	46,511	59,100	15,800	71,200	28,800	0 3 9 1-4	0 3 10 1-2	0 4 4½	0 3 7½	0 5 0

Statement of the Cargoes of Timber, &c., imported into the United Kingdom from British America and the Baltic, for the Eighteen Years ending the 1st of February, 1839.

Years ending 1st Feb.	British America.		Baltic.		Years ending 1st Feb.	British America.		Baltic.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.		Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1822	317	92,499	77	18,121	1831	341	106,992	66	18,166
1823	318	96,369	122	27,6-0	1832	354	118,501	62	17,086
1824	349	97,6-3	172	33,495	1833	331	112,866	96	26,539
1825	427	123,694	182	37,595	1834	247	89,904	64	20,209
1826	369	89,363	204	41,369	1835	335	117,996	91	27,344
1827	338	101,161	114	27,820	1836	420	163,284	102	28,545
1828	239	71,081	109	23,437	1837	328	143,181	66	18,806
1829	281	86,017	165	27,2-2	1838	275	135,0-2	63	18,600
1830	266	85,474	96	23,641	1839	302	160,294	72	23,116

Supp.)

TIMBER TRADE. Having, in separate articles, described those species of timber most in demand in this country, we mean to confine ourselves in this article to a few remarks on the policy of the regulations under which the trade in timber is conducted.

I. *Importance of a cheap Supply of Timber.*—It is surely unnecessary to enter into any lengthened statements on this head. If there be one article more than another with which it is of primary importance that a great commercial nation like England should be abundantly supplied on the lowest possible terms, that article is timber. Owing to the deficiency of our home supplies, most of the timber, with the exception of oak, required for building ships and houses; and most part, also, of that employed in the construction of machinery; is imported from abroad. Any individual acquainted with the purposes to which timber is applied, but ignorant of our peculiar policy with respect to it, would never, certainly, imagine that such an article could be made the subject of oppressive duties, and of still more oppressive preferences. Timber is not to be looked at in the same light as most other commodities. It is against all principle to impose duties on materials intended to be subsequently manufactured; but timber is the raw material of the most important of all manufactures—that of the instruments of production! Suppose it were proposed to lay a heavy tax on ships, wagons, looms, or workshops when completed, would not such a monstrous proposal be universally scouted? And yet this is what is really done. The finished articles are not, indeed, directly taxed; but the principal material of which they are made, and without which they could not be constructed, is burdened with an exorbitant duty! To dwell on the absurdity of such a tax would be worse than useless. Of all things essential to the prosperity of manufacturing industry, improved and cheap machinery is the most indispensable. Most individuals amongst us are ready enough to ridicule the contradictory conduct of the French government, who, at the very moment that they are endeavouring to bolster up a manufacturing interest, lay enormous duties on foreign iron, and thus double or treble the price of some of the most important manufacturing implements. Timber is, however, of quite as much importance in this respect as iron; and our conduct in burdening it with exorbitan

duties partakes as largely of the *felo-de-se* character as that of our neighbours! Indeed, as will be immediately seen, it is decidedly less defensible. Some plausible, though inconclusive, reasonings might be urged in defence of duties on iron and timber, were they imposed for the sake of revenue: but even this poor apology for financial ignorance and rapacity cannot be set up in defence of the iron duties of France or the timber duties of England. The former, however, are the least objectionable; they were imposed, and are still kept up, to encourage the production of iron in France: whereas the duties on timber in England have been imposed for the sake, principally, of promoting the lumber trade of Canada, and of forcing the employment of a few thousand additional tons of shipping! We do not sacrifice the goose for the sake of the golden eggs, but for the sake of the offal she has picked up.

2. *Origin and Operation of the discriminating Duty in favour of American Timber.*—The practice of encouraging the importation of the timber of Canada and our other possessions in North America, in preference to that of foreign countries, is but of recent growth. It took its rise during the administration of Mr. Vansittart, and bears in every part the impress of his favourite policy. The events that took place in 1808 having seriously affected our previous relations with the Baltic powers, a deficiency in the accustomed supply of timber began to be apprehended; and the ship owners and Canada merchants naturally enough availed themselves of this circumstance, to excite the fears of the ministry, and to induce them to change the fair and liberal system on which the trade in timber had been conducted down to that time, by granting extraordinary encouragement to its importation from Canada. Even as a temporary expedient, applicable to a peculiar emergency, the policy of giving any such encouragement is extremely doubtful. Supposing timber not to have been any longer obtainable from the north of Europe, its price would have risen, and it would, of course, have been imported from Canada, the United States, or wherever it could be had, without any interference on the part of government. But, in 1809, a large addition was made to the duties previously charged on timber from the north of Europe, at the same time that those previously charged on timber from Canada and our other possessions in America were almost entirely repealed; and in the very next year (1810), the duties thus imposed on Baltic timber were *doubled!* Nor did the increase of duties on such timber stop even here. In 1813, after Napoleon's disastrous campaign in Russia, and when the free navigation of the Baltic had been restored, 25 per cent. were added to the duties on European timber! The increase of the revenue was pleaded as a pretext for this measure; but we believe it was really intended to augment the preference in favour of Canada timber; for how could it be supposed that an increase of the duties on an article imported from a particular quarter of the world, that was already taxed up to the very highest point, could add any thing considerable to the revenue, when a convertible article might be imported from another quarter duty free? The various duties laid on European timber amounted, when consolidated by the act 59 Geo. 3. c. 52., to 3*l.* 5*s.* per load.

Admitting, for the moment, that the peculiar and unprecedented aspect of things in 1808 and 1809 warranted the giving of some preference to the importation of timber from Canada, such preference should plainly have ceased in 1813. So long as the communication with the bridge is interrupted, we may be forced to use a boat to cross the river; but when the communication is again opened, and when there is not the remotest chance of its future interruption, it would be a singular absurdity to refuse to resume the use of the bridge, and to continue the costly and inconvenient practice of being ferried over! This, however, is exactly what we have done in the case of the Canada trade. Because a fortuitous combination of circumstances obliged us, upon one occasion, to import inferior timber at a comparatively high price, we resolved to continue the practice in all time to come! The history of commerce affords no parallel display of gratuitous folly.

The absurdity of this conduct will appear still more striking, if we reflect for a moment on the peculiar situation of the countries in the north of Europe. The nations round the Baltic have made little progress in manufacturing industry. They abound in valuable raw products; but they are wholly destitute of the finer species of manufactured commodities, and of colonies. Nor have they any real inducement to attempt supplying themselves directly with the former, or to establish the latter. Their iron and copper mines, their vast forests, and their immense tracts of fertile and hitherto unoccupied land, afford far more ready and advantageous investments for their deficient capital, than could be found in manufactures or foreign trade. Russia and Prussia have, indeed, been tempted, by our corn and timber laws, to exclude some species of manufactured goods; but it is not possible that they should succeed in materially limiting our exports to them, provided we do not second their efforts by refusing to admit their products.

Of all the countries in the world, there is obviously none which has so many facilities for carrying on an advantageous trade with the North as Great Britain. We have a surplus of all those products of which Russia, Prussia, Sweden, Denmark, and Norway stand most in need; and, on the other hand, they have a surplus of many of those of which we are comparatively destitute. The immense traffic we carry on with the Baltic does not, therefore, depend in any considerable degree on artificial or accidental circumstances. It does not rest

on the wretched foundation of Custom-house regulations or discriminating duties, but on the gratification of mutual wants and desires. It has been justly remarked by the Marquis Garnier, the excellent translator of the "Wealth of Nations," that no inconsiderable portion of the increased power and wealth of England may be traced to the growing opulence of Russia. But the Russian empire is yet only in the infancy of civilisation; she must continue for a very long period to advance in the career of improvement, and it will be our own fault if we do not reap still greater advantages from her progress.

Such is the nature of that commerce against which the discriminating duties on timber from the north of Europe aimed a severe blow! In 1809, when this system began, 428,000 tons of British shipping entered inwards from the Baltic. In 1814, the year after the 25 per cent. of additional duty had been imposed on Baltic timber, and when all the ports of that sea were open to our ships, only 242,000 tons of British shipping entered inwards,—being little more than the half of what it amounted to when the system began. In 1816, the British shipping entered inwards from the Baltic amounted to 181,000 tons. It was materially augmented in 1818 and 1819, in consequence of the failure of the crops in this country in 1817 and 1818; but even in 1819 the entries inwards were 55,000 tons under what they had been 10 years before!

By diminishing our imports from the northern nations, the high discriminating duty on timber necessarily diminished our exports to them in the same proportion.

The following extract from the evidence of Mr. Edward Patzcker, a merchant of Memel, given before the committee of the House of Commons on the foreign trade of the country, in 1821, shows the effect that the increased duties on timber had on the commerce with Prussia:—

"Has there been a great alteration in the timber trade between Memel and this country of late years?"—"Since the war, a great alteration; before the war we used to have 950 to 1,000 English ships in 1 year, and since the war we have had from 200 to 300 only."

"When you talk of 900 ships, do you mean 900 ships trading between Great Britain and Memel?"—"Yes."

"Do you mean that number of cargoes were loaded in the year for England?"—"Yes."

"How many cargoes were loaded for Great Britain during the last year (1820)?"—"About 270 or 280 cargoes; there have not been more."

"To what cause do you attribute that diminution in the trade?"—"*To the high duties in England*: for formerly the duties were only 10*s.* and some pence; now they are 3*l.* 5*s.* in a British, and 3*l.* 8*s.* in a foreign ship."

"Has that diminished trade in timber produced a great alteration in the circumstances of the people of Prussia?"—"Yes: for it is the only trade which we can carry on; wheat and all the rest of our articles cannot be brought here; *timber* is the only one that can be brought, and the trade from Poland has very much ceased in consequence of the diminished demand for it; the people cannot sell their goods, and we cannot take such quantities of timber as we used to do; and, therefore, they cannot take English goods from us."

"If such an alteration was to take place in the duties on timber in this country, as to give the Prussians a larger share of the trade than they at present enjoy, do you think that would produce increased friendly feelings on the part of the people of your country to the people of this country?"—"It would. *They would certainly take far more goods from hence*, as they could get better rid of them. The Poles, too, would take more of them."—(*Report*, 9th of March, 1821, p. 107.)

The effect that the increased duties had on the trade with Norway and Sweden, aggravated as they in some degree were by an absurd method of charging the duty on deals, was still more striking and extraordinary. These countries had few products, except timber and iron, to exchange for our commodities; and as neither of these could be advantageously imported into England under the new system, the trade with them almost entirely ceased; and they were reluctantly compelled to resort to the markets of France and Holland for the articles they had formerly imported from us. In proof of this, we may mention, that the exports to Sweden, which had amounted in 1814 to 511,818*l.*, declined in 1819 to 46,656*l.*; and the exports to Norway, which had in 1815 amounted to 199,902*l.*, amounted in 1819 to only 64,741*l.**—(*Lords' Report on the Foreign Trade of the Country*, 3d of July, 1820, p 34.)

This extraordinary falling off in so very important a branch of our commerce having been established beyond all question by the evidence taken before the committees now referred to, an approach to a better system was made in 1821, when the duty on timber from the north of Europe was reduced from 3*l.* 5*s.* to 2*l.* 15*s.* per load, at the same time that a duty of 10*s.* per load was laid on timber from British America. This, however, was a comparatively inefficient measure. It was stated, to be sure, at the time, that the 2*l.* 5*s.* per load of excess of duty that was thus continued on Baltic timber over that laid on timber imported from Canada, was not more than enough to balance the higher prime cost, the greater freight, and other charges consequent upon the importation of the latter; and that it would, there-

*Even at present, the official value of the total exports, including colonial produce, from the United Kingdom to Sweden, does not exceed 160,000*l.* a year. Our exports of all sorts in Norway amount to about 150,000*l.* a year, while our imports hardly amount to 85,000*l.* In fact, were it not that Norway finds means of paying us by drafts on Holland, into which her produce is admitted, she could import almost nothing from England. The injury done to our commerce with these two nations, by our heavy discriminating duties on the principal equivalent they have to give in exchange for commodities brought from abroad, was placed in a very striking point of view by Lord Althorp, in the debate on the timber duties, the 18th of March, 1821.

fore, be in future indifferent to a merchant whether he imported timber from Memel or Miramichi! In point of fact, however, the discriminating duty continued in favour of Canada timber has been far too high to allow of this equalisation being effected. So much so is this the case, that there have been instances of ships loading with timber in the north of Europe, carrying that timber to Canada, and then bringing it to England as Canada timber; the difference of duty being about sufficient to indemnify the enormous expense of this round-about voyage! We do not mean to say that this has been a common practice; but what are we to think of a commercial regulation that admits of such an adventure being undertaken with any prospect of success? Admitting, however, that the duty had been adjusted so as to have had the anticipated effect, could any thing be more preposterous and absurd than to impose it on such a principle? There are mines of coal in New Holland; but what should we think, were an attempt made to impose such duties on coals from Newcastle as should render it indifferent to a London merchant whether he imported a cargo of coal from the Tyne or Botany Bay? Now, the case of the timber duties is, in point of principle, precisely the same. We may obtain timber from countries so near at hand that our ships may make 3, 4, 5, and even 6 voyages a year to them;* and we refuse to admit it unless loaded with a duty that raises its price to a level with what is brought from the other side of the Atlantic—a voyage which our ships cannot, at most, perform above twice a year!

The following official account shows the extent to which the system of preference has been carried:—

An Account of the Rates of Duty payable in Great Britain on the Principal Articles of Wood.

Timber.	Of Foreign Countries.	Of the British Plantations in America.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
Battens, 6, and not exceeding 16 feet long, and not exceeding 2 3-4 inches thick, per 120	10 0 0	1 0 0
16, and not exceeding 21 feet long, and not exceeding 2 3-4 inches thick, per 120	11 10 0	1 2 0
exceeding 21 feet long, or if exceeding 2 3-4 inches thick, per 120	20 0 0	2 0 0
Deals, 8, and not above 10 feet long, and not exceeding 1 1-2 inch thick, per 120	8 2 6	
6, and not above 16 feet long, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches thick, per 120	18 0 0	2 0 0
16, and not exceeding 21 feet long, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches thick, per 120	22 0 0	2 10 0
21, and not above 45 feet long, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches thick, per 120	44 0 0	
exceeding 45 feet long, or above 3 1-4 inches thick (not being timber 8 inches square or upwards) the load containing 50 cubic feet	2 10 0	
and further, per 120	6 0 0	
N. B.—There is no class of deals brought from the colonies of the same dimensions as the 2 previous classes; but the preference on those that do come corresponds to its amount on other articles.—(*See Tariff.*)		
Deal ends, under 6 feet long, and not exceeding 3 1-4 inches thick, per 120	6 0 0	0 15 0
and exceeding 3 1-4 inches thick, per 120	12 0 0	1 10 0

Timber.	Of Foreign Countries.	Of the British Plantations in America.
	L. s. d.	*L. s. d.*
Lathwood, in pieces under 5 feet long, per fathom	4 5 0	0 15 0
5, and under 8 feet long, —	6 15 0	1 5 0
8, and under 12 feet long, —	10 0 0	
12 feet long and upwards, —	13 1s 0	
Masts, 6, and under 8 inches in diameter, each	0 8 0	0 1 6
8, and under 12 inches in diameter, each	1 2 0	0 4 0
12 inches in diameter or upwards, per load	2 15 0	0 10 0
Oak plank, 2 in. thick or upwards, —	4 0 0	0 15 0
Spars, under 4 inches in diameter, and under 22 feet long, per 120	2 8 0	0 9 0
and 24 feet long or upwards, —	4 5 0	0 16 0
4, and under 6 inches in diameter, per 120	9 0 0	1 15 0
Staves, not exceeding 36 inches long —	1 3 0	0 2 0
above 36, and not exceeding 60 inches long, per 120	2 6 0	0 4 0
above 60, and not exceeding 60 inches long, per 120	3 0 0	0 6 0
above 60, and not exceeding 72 inches long, per 120	4 4 0	0 8 0
above 72 inches —	4 16 0	0 10 0
N. B.—Staves of the United States of America, of Florida, of the Ionian Islands, or of the British colonies, and not exceeding 1 1-2 inch in thickness, are chargeable with 1-3d part only of the above rates.		
Fir, 8 inches square or upwards, per load	2 15 0	0 10 0
Oak do. —	2 15 0	0 10 0
Unenumerated do. —	1 8 0	0 5 0
Wainscot logs, 8 inches square or upwards, per load	3 15 0	0 12 0

So long as the foreigner can lay his finger on such a Table as this, it will not be easy to convince him that our commercial system has lost so much of its exclusive character as it really has done during the last few years. Having set such an example to the Russians and Prussians, need we wonder at their having attempted to shut several of our peculiar productions out of their markets? Could we expect that they were to follow our precepts rather than our practice?

3. *Comparative Quality of Baltic and Canada Timber.*—Had the timber of Canada been decidedly superior to that of the north of Europe, something might have been found to say in favour of the discriminating duty: for it might have been contended, with some show of reason, that it was of the utmost consequence, considering the application of timber to ship and house building, and other important purposes, to prevent the importation of an inferior species, even though it might be cheaper. But the system we have adopted is of a totally different character. We have not attempted to shut out an article which, though cheap, is inferior; but have committed the twofold absurdity of shutting out one that is at once *cheap and superior!*

The committee of the House of Lords observe, in their *First Report on the Foreign*

* According to the evidence of Mr. J. D. Powles, an extensive ship and insurance broker, ships can make *six* voyages from Norway, 3 or 4 from Prussia, and 2 from Russia, in a season.—(*Commons' Report*, p. 59.)

Trade of the Country, that the "North American timber is more soft, less durable, and every description of it more liable, though in different degrees, to the dry rot, than timber of the north of Europe. The red pine, however, which bears a small proportion to the other descriptions of timber, and the greater part of which, though imported from Canada, *is the produce of the United States*, is distinguished from the white pine by its greater durability. On the whole, it is stated by one of the commissioners of his Majesty's navy, most distinguished for practical knowledge, experience, and skill, that the timber of Canada, both oak and fir, *does not possess, for the purpose of ship building, more than half the durability of wood of the same description, the produce of the north of Europe.* The result of its application to other purposes of building is described by timber merchants and carpenters to be nearly similar."—(p. 4.)

We subjoin the following extracts from the evidence of Sir Robert Seppings, the commissioner alluded to by the committee, whose great intelligence and experience render his opinion of the highest authority:—

"Can you state to the committee the result of any observations that you or others in his Majesty's service have made, on the durability of timber, the produce of the North American colonies, or timber imported from the north of Europe, applied to the same purposes?"—"About the year 1796, there were a certain number of frigates built of the fir of the Baltic, and *their average durability was about* EIGHT *years*. About the year 1812, there were a considerable number of frigates built also, of fir of the growth of North America, and their *average durability was not* HALF *that time*."

"You have stated that Canada timber is peculiarly subject to the dry rot, and the dry rot is known to have prevailed lately to a great degree in the navy; has that prevailed principally since the introduction of Canada timber to the uses of the navy?"—"I believe *the navy has suffered very considerably from the introduction of Canada timber*, or timber of the growth of North America; and in consequence, from experience, we have *entirely discontinued the use of it*, except for deals and masts."—(p. 50.)

Mr. Copland, an extensive builder and timber merchant, being asked by the committee what was his opinion with respect to the comparative qualities of American and Baltic timber, answered,—"The timber of the Baltic in general, speaking of Norway, Russian, Prussian, and Swedish timber, is of very superior quality to that imported from America; the bulk of the latter *is very inferior in quality, much softer in its nature, not so durable, and very liable to dry rot*; indeed, it is not allowed by any professional man under government to be used, nor is it ever used in the *best* buildings in London; it is only speculators that are induced to use it, from the price of it being much lower (in consequence of its exemption from duty) than the Baltic timber; if you were to lay two planks of American timber upon each other, in the course of a twelvemonth they would have the dry rot, almost invariably, to a certain extent."—(p. 56.) And many passages to the same effect might be produced, from the evidence of persons of the greatest experience in building.

Now, we would beg leave to ask whether any thing can be more absolutely monstrous, than to force, by means of a system of discriminating duties, a large proportion of the public to use that very timber in the construction of their ships and houses, which government will not use for either of these purposes, and which the most experienced engineers and builders pronounce to be utterly unfit for them? This is not to impose duties on a fair and equal principle for the sake of revenue, but for the sake of securing a preference to a worthless article: it is not imposing them in the way in which they may be least, but in that in which they are certain to be *most injurious* to those who have to pay them.

It appears from the official account subjoined to this article, that, at an average of the years 1828 and 1829, the revenue would have gained considerably more than 1,500,000*l.* a year, had the same duty been laid on Canada timber that is laid on timber from the north of Europe; and this, therefore, may be considered as the amount of the pecuniary sacrifice we consent to make, in order that our ships and houses may be inoculated with dry rot!

4. *Apologies for the discriminating Duty.*—If any thing ought, more than another, to make legislators pause before enacting a restrictive regulation, it is the difficulty of receding from it. After it has been enforced for a while, a variety of interests usually grow up under its protection, which may be materially injured by its repeal. *All*, however, that the persons so interested can justly claim, is, that sufficient time, and every possible facility, should be afforded them to prepare for a change of system. Because the interests of a comparatively small portion of the community may be injuriously affected by the abolition of a regulation ascertained to be in the last degree inimical to the public, is it, therefore, to be contended that we ought, at all hazards, to continue to enforce the regulation we have so unwisely enacted? To maintain the affirmative, would be to give perpetuity to the worst errors and absurdities, and would be an effectual bar to every sort of improvement. No change, even from a bad to a good system, ought to be rashly set about: but when once the expediency of an alteration has been clearly established, it ought to be resolutely carried into effect.

It is objected to the abolition of the discriminating duties on timber, that it would be injurious to Canada and the shipping interest. We believe, however, that the injury would not be nearly so great as has been represented; that it would, in fact, be quite inconsiderable. So far from the *lumber trade*—or the trade of felling wood, squaring it, and floating it down the rivers to the shipping ports—being advantageous to a colony, it is distinctly and com-

pletely the reverse. The habits which it generates are quite subversive of that sober, steady spirit of industry, so essential to a settler in a rude country; to such a degree, indeed, is this the case, that lumberers have been described as the pests of a colony, "made and kept vicious by the very trade by which they live."—But abstracting altogether from the circumstances now alluded to, Mr. Poulett Thomson showed, in his unanswerable speech on the timber question (March 18, 1831), that the abolition of the lumber trade would materially benefit the real interests of the colonies. It is ludicrous, indeed, seeing that not one tree in a hundred is fit for the purposes of being squared for timber, to suppose that the discontinuance of the trade could be any serious loss. But the fact is, that when trees are cut down by lumberers, for export as timber, instead of being burnt down, so great a growth of brushwood takes place, that it actually costs more to clear the ground where the lumberers have been, than where they have not been. Mr. Richards, who was sent out by government to report on the influence of the lumber trade, represents it as most unfavourable; and observes, that, "when time or chance shall induce or compel the inhabitants to desist from this employment, agriculture will begin to raise its head." The statements of Captain Moorsom, in his *Letters from Nova Scotia*, are exactly similar. He considers the depression of the timber market although a severe loss to many individuals, a "decided gain to the colony," from the check it has given to the "lumbering mania."—(p. 53.)

The statements that have been made as to the amount of capital expended on saw mills, and other fixed works for carrying on the lumber trade, have been singularly exaggerated. Mr. Thomson, who had the best means of acquiring accurate information on this point, made the following statement with respect to it in his speech already referred to:—"From the means I have had of calculating the amount of capital embarked in these saw mills, I believe it is about 300,000*l.*: I am sure that I may say that if 500,000*l.* were taken as the amount, it would be a great deal above rather than under the real value; but, after all, this description of property is not to be sacrificed by the arrangements proposed, even if they were carried to the fullest extent. I am ready at once to admit, that the consequence of the proposed alteration may be, that it will diminish the exports of timber from Canada to England, and affect the productiveness of the capital vested in the mills to which I have referred; but the committee ought not to lose sight of the fact, that though in this one branch of industry there will be a great falling off, yet the same amount of labour might be applied to much greater advantage on land in the colonies; and the mills, which will be rendered useless for their original purposes, may be converted to useful auxiliaries to the agricultural and other pursuits of the colonists; so that the enormous losses that have been placed in so frightful a point of view, will, as I have shown, be absolutely next to nothing."

So far, therefore, as the interests of the colonies are concerned, it is plain they would not really lose, but gain, by a repeal of the discriminating duties on foreign timber. They would still continue to possess a respectable share of the trade; for their timber, though unfit for more important purposes, is well suited, by its softness and freedom from knots, for the finishing of rooms and cabins, the manufacture of boxes, &c.; and in the mast trade, it is believed, that they would be able to maintain a successful competition with Riga. It might also be expedient to assist in turning the industry of the colonies into the profitable channel of agriculture, by giving their corn and flour a still more decided preference than they now enjoy in our markets. In our opinion, it would be good policy to admit them, at all times, duty free.

The ship owners would undoubtedly have more cause to complain of injury from the equalisation of the duties; but even as respects them, it would not be nearly so great as is commonly supposed. The statement usually put forward by those who represent the timber trade to North America as of vital importance to the shipping interest, is, that it employs 1,800 ships, of 470,000 tons, navigated by 20,000 sailors. But Mr. Poulett Thomson showed, in his previously quoted speech, that this statement is utterly erroneous. The entries inwards of British ships from our possessions in North America correspond with the sums now stated; but, at an average, every ship employed in the trade makes 1¾ voyage a year; so that, in point of fact, only 1,028 ships, of 270,000 tons and 11,427 men, are employed in the trade.* From this latter number must, however, be struck off ships employed in other branches of trade; for no one pretends that the only trade we carry on with British North America is the importation of timber. We believe that the number to be so struck off may be safely estimated at 200 ships, of 54,000 tons and 2,200 men, leaving about 800 ships, of 216,000 tons and 9,200 men, to be affected by the change. Inasmuch, however, as about a third part of the timber now brought from Canada would most probably continue to be brought for the purposes already referred to, were the duties equalised, only 534 ships, of 144,000 tons and 6,134 men, would be forced to change their employments. Now of these, a half, at least, would be immediately employed in bringing from the Baltic the same quantity of timber that is brought from America; and as the price of timber would be materially

* It is singular that Mr. Bouchette should have fallen into the common but palpable error on this point.—(See the Preface to his valuable work on British America.)

...ased by the reduction of the duty, the demand for it would no doubt materially increase; so that it is abundantly plain that very few, if any, ships would be thrown out of employment by the abolition of the discriminating duties. It is material, too, to observe, that whatever temporary inconvenience the shipping interest might sustain from the change, its future consequences would be singularly advantageous to it. The high price of timber employed in the building of ships is at present the heaviest drawback on the British ship owners; but the equalisation of the duties would materially reduce this price; and we have the authority of the best practical judges for affirming, that were the duty (as it ought to be) entirely repealed, ships might be built decidedly cheaper in England than in any part of the world.

It would be desirable, however, to secure the interests of so important a class as that of the ship owners from any chance even of temporary loss or inconvenience from an equalisation of the duties. And it is fortunate that this object may be attained, not only without any loss, but with certain benefit to the public. The expediency of encouraging emigration to the colonies, as a means of relieving parts of England and Ireland from that mass of paupers by which they are burdened, is no longer questioned; and we incline to think that no more effectual means of promoting emigration could be devised, than the giving a bounty to the owners of ships landing emigrants in Canada, the Cape of Good Hope, or New South Wales. We have already seen that the number of emigrants to British North America, in 1832, amounted to about 66,000 (*antè*, p. 274.); and supposing that a bounty of 30*s.* or 40*s.* a head were in future to be paid on the arrival of emigrants at Quebec, it would more than indemnify the ship owners for any inconvenience resulting from a new arrangement of the timber duties; at the same time that the stimulus it would give to emigration would be of the utmost importance to Great Britain and to the colonies.

5. *Alteration proposed in the Timber Duties in* 1831.—To suppose that the timber trade should be allowed to continue on its present footing, seems to be quite out of the question. We have already seen that the discriminating duties impose a pecuniary sacrifice of 1,500,000*l.* a year on the British public, besides forcing the use of a comparatively worthless article where none but the very best ought to be employed. We have also seen that this sacrifice produces no real benefit to the colonies; and that the benefit it does produce to the ship owners is but trifling, and may be more than made up to them without loss to the public. The existing government seems to have been early satisfied of the propriety of attempting to introduce a less objectionable system; and on the 18th of March, 1831, Lord Althorp moved that the duties on Baltic timber should be reduced 6*s.* a load on the 1st of January, 1832; 6*s.* more on the 1st of January, 1833; and 3*s.* on the 1st of January, 1834; making the total reduction 15*s.* a load, and leaving a protection in favour of Canada timber of 30*s.* a load. The only real objection to this scheme was, that it did not go far enough; that "it scotched the snake, without killing it." There is not the shadow of a ground on which to justify the granting of a bounty (for such is the real operation of the duty) to force the use of an inferior and more costly article; and even if a reasonable bounty could be justified, one of 30*s.* a load is quite excessive. But singular as it may seem, this proposal, moderate as it certainly was, encountered a very keen opposition. Some of those who had previously expressed their concurrence in the expediency of some measure of that sort, thought proper to vote against it; and, upon a division, it was lost by a majority of 46. Lord Althorp seems to have been much discouraged by the result of this motion; for, during the lengthened period that has since elapsed, he has made no attempt to effect any modification of the duties. But notwithstanding these unfavourable appearances, we do not believe that a system so destructive of the public interests will be upheld much longer. It were much to be wished that the duties could be wholly dispensed with. Timber is about the very worst subject for taxation; but, at all events, an end must be put to the discriminating duties. It is not to be endured, that so essential an article—that *the prime necessary of manufacturing industry*—should be loaded with exorbitant duties, imposed, not for the sake of revenue, but for the sake of those who either reap no advantage from them, or none that is material.

Account of the Amount of Duties paid in the United Kingdom on Timber and other Articles of Wood, imported from the British Provinces of North America, in each of the Years ending the 5th of January, 1828, the 5th of January, 1829, and the 5th of January, 1830; and of the Amount of Duties which would have been paid on such Timber and other Articles of Wood, if they had been charged with the Rates of Duty payable on similar Articles imported from the Baltic.

	Amount of Duty paid in the United Kingdom on Timber, Deals, and other Articles of Wood, imported from the British Provinces in North America.	Amount of Duty which would have been paid upon such Timber, Deals, and other Articles of Wood, if they had been imported from the Baltic.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Year ending 5th of January, 1828 -	213,749 15 4	1,251,922 13 4
— 1829 -	221,108 12 9	1,4[illegible]4,867 4 1
— 1830 -	232,799 17 0	1,5[illegible],795 9 4

II. Account of the Quantities of the different Species of Timber imported into the United Kingdom in 1831; specifying the Countries whence they were brought, and the Quantities brought from each.

Countries from which imported.	Battens and Batten Ends.	Deals and Deal Ends.	Lath-wood.	Masts, Yards, & Bowsprits under 12 Inches in Diameter.	Masts, Yards, & Bowsprits 12 Inches in Diameter and upwards.	Oak Plank 6 Inches thick or upwards.	Staves.	Teak.	Timber, Fir, Oak, & unenumerated, 6 Inches square, or upwards.	Wainscot Logs, 6 Inches square or upwards.
	Gt.hds.qrs.No.	Gt.hds.qrs.No.	Fath.	No.	Lds. ft.	Lds. ft.	Gt.hds.qrs.No.	Lds. ft.	Lds. ft.	Lds. ft.
Russia	2,708 1 26	14,078 3 0	4,170	2,030	731 12	12 30	.	.	6,486 17	1,946 23
Sweden	1,999 2 20	3,7 3 1 12	.	6	2,520	6 11	0 2 7	70 5 20	3,920 11	
Norway	5,430 1 32	10,457 2 13	.	66	4,288	9 57	.	.	23,587 44	
Denmark	.	0 0 14	.	.	.	.	.	.	576 2	
Prussia	308 2 25	4,560 0 4	2,264	510	266 4	2,668 4	20,927 3 3	.	100,264 14	708 13
Germany	0 0 8	3 3 0	.	.	40 15	210 12	366 1 27	.	4,174 23	
The Netherlands	.	20 1 7	.	2	2	.	7 1 18	.	397 26	13 45
Other pl. of Europe	0 1 16	11 3 20	.	11	253 40	3 35	20 0 4	64 26	243 27	
West. co. of Africa	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	23,677 6		
E. I. Co.'s territories and Ceylon	.	.	.	4	3 25	.	.	.		
Mauritius	.	.	.	1	.	.	1 1 6	197 16		
New S. Wales and V Diemen's Land	.	.	.	2	1 0	.	.	0 36	785 26	
New Zealand and South Sea Islands	.	.	.	.	250 5	.	.	.		
Brit. Northern col.	1,282 1 6	22,066 2 3	5,269	2,145	3,186 5	180 46	54,147 2 27	.	418,979 20	3 40
West Indies	.	0 1 6	.	9	.	.	836 3 17	.	27 18	
Hayti	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	6 6	
U. S. of America	2 2 8	15 1 7	.	12	.	.	922 0 21	.	2,078 49	
Isle Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney and Man, for goods	0 0 2	0 0 4	.	55	.	.	.	.	0 6	
Total import	14,566 0 3	54,915 0 7	11,373	13,456	4,703 1	2,925 24	76,431 1 29	23,930 36	563,199 9	2,671 3

III. Account of the Quantities of Timber and Hard Woods imported, exported, and retained for Home Consumption, with the Nett Revenue thereon, in 1831 and 1832.—(*Papers published by Board of Trade*, vol. ii. p. 22. and p. 27.)

	Quantities imported.		Quantities exported.		Quantities retained for Consumption.		Nett Revenue.	
	1831.	1832.	1831.	1832.	1831.	1832.	1831.	1832.
Timber.							L.	L.
Battens and batten ends great 100	14,566	11,119	61	51	11,627	11,773	108,908	110,729
Deal and deal ends —	54,915	51,264	457	1,006	49,490	50,184	830,841	817,535
Masts, 6 and under 8 inches in diameter No.	2,000	6,784	139	585	8,047	6,776	} 10,258	11,173
8 inches and under 12 —	4,478	3,104	58	280	3,990	3,085		
12 and upwards loads	4,708	6,246	90	100	4,125	6,077		
Oak plank —	2,825	1,752	.	6	2,280	1,859	8,470	7,266
Staves great 100	78,431	85,528	2,207	1,521	70,207	83,676	50,293	49,097
Fir, 6 in. square and upwards, lds.	512,156	498,260	403	600	497,057	503,582	465,107	454,548
Oak, ditto —	23,502	20,176	4	18	22,673	29,581	30,967	38,265
Unenumerated, ditto —	36,463	33,403	8	84	26,848	32,329	6,526	8,151
Wainscot logs, ditto —	.	2,719	.	8	.	2,870	.	7,876
							L. 1,212,560	1,185,226
Hard Woods.								
Box wood tons	434	327	48	32	447	399	2,034	1,868
Cedar —	1,089	1,127	.	31	1,017	1,338	1,424	2,717
Mahogany —	11,542	15,264	493	791	13,175	18,293	47,592	47,511
Rosewood —	1,285	252	67	185	848	509	5,484	5,372
							L. 59,974	60,501

TIN (Ger. *Blech, Weissblech*; Fr. *Fer blanc*; It. *Latta, Banda stagnata*; Sp. *Hoja de lata*; Rus. *Blïcha, Shest*; Arab. *Resas*; Sans. *Trapu* and *Ranga*), a metal which has a fine white colour like silver; and when fresh, its brilliancy is very great. It has a slightly disagreeable taste, and emits a peculiar smell when rubbed. Its hardness is between that of gold and lead. Its specific gravity is 7·29. It is very malleable; *tin-foil*, or tin leaf, is about $\frac{1}{1000}$ part of an inch thick; and it might be beat out into leaves as thin again, if such were required for the purposes of art. In ductility and tenacity it is very inferior. A tin wire 0·078 inch in diameter is capable of supporting a weight of 34·7 pounds only without breaking. Tin is very flexible, and produces a crackling noise when bent. It may be readily alloyed with copper, zinc, &c., forming very valuable compounds.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

The ores of this metal are found in comparatively few places; the principal, and perhaps the only ones are Cornwall, Gallicia, Erzgebirge in Saxony, Bohemia, the Malay countries, China, and Banca in Asia. They are peculiar to primitive rocks, generally in granite, either in veins or beds, and are often associated with copper and iron pyrites.

Tin is much used as a covering to several other metals: iron is tinned, to prevent its rapid oxidation when exposed to air and moisture; and the same process is applied to copper, to avoid the injurious effects to which those who are in the habit of employing cooking utensils made of this metal are always liable. The solutions of tin in the nitric, muriatic, nitro-sulphuric, and tartaric acids, are much used in dyeing, as giving a degree of permanency and brilliance to several colours, to be obtained by the use of no other mordants with which we are at present acquainted: tin forms the basis of pewter, in the composition of which it is alloyed with lead; when rolled into thin sheets, it is called tin-foil, and is applied, with the addition of mercury, to cover the surface of glass, thus forming looking-glasses, mirrors, &c.; and in combination with sulphur, it constitutes what is called mosaic gold.—(*Joyce's Chem. Min.*)

TIN PLATES, known in Scotland by the name of *white iron*, are applicable to a great variety of purposes, and are in very extensive demand. They are formed of thin plates of iron dipped into molten tin. The tin not only covers the surface of the iron, but penetrates it completely, and gives the whole a white colour. It is usual to add about 1-10th of copper to the tin, to prevent it from forming too thick a coat upon the iron.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

Historical Notice of the British Tin Trade.—The tin mines of Cornwall have been worked from a very remote era. The voyages of the Phœnicians to the Cassiterides, or tin islands, are mentioned by Herodotus (lib. iii. c. 115.), Diodorus Siculus (lib. iv. p. 301. ed. 1604), and Strabo (*Geog.* lib. iii.). Some difference of opinion has, indeed, been entertained as to the particular islands to which the Phœnicians applied the term Cassiterides; but Borlase (*Account of the Scilly Islands*, p. 72.). Larcher (*Herodote*, tome iii. p. 384, ed. 1802), and the ablest critics, agree that they are the Scilly Islands, and the western extremity of Cornwall. After the destruction of Carthage, the British tin trade, which was always reckoned of peculiar importance, was carried on by the merchants of Marseilles, and subsequently by the Romans. Besides Britain, Spain furnished the ancients with considerable quantities of tin. We have no very precise information as to the purposes to which they applied this metal. It has been supposed that the Phœnicians, so famous for their purple dyes, were acquainted with the use of the solution of tin in nitro-muriatic acid in fixing that colour. The best of the ancient mirrors, or *specula*, were also made of a mixture of copper and tin; and tin was used in the coating of copper vessels.—(*Watson's Chemical Essays*, vol. iv.)

In modern times, the tin mines of Cornwall and Devon have been wrought with various degrees of energy and success. Queen Elizabeth brought over some German miners, by whom some of the processes were improved. During the civil wars, the mines were much neglected. At the commencement of last century, however, the business of mining was carried on with renewed vigour; and from 1720 to 1740, the annual produce was about 2,100 tons. The produce went on gradually increasing, till it amounted, in the 10 years from 1790 to 1800, to 3,254 tons a year. During the next 15 years, the produce fell off; and for the 5 years ending with 1815, it was always considerably under 3,000 tons a year. But in the last-mentioned year, a considerable increase took place; and since 1816, the produce has been, with the exception of 1820, always above 3,000 tons a year; and in 1827 and 1828, it was very near 5,000 tons. The present average produce of the mines may be estimated at 4,500 tons a year. We subjoin from the papers published by the Board of Trade and other authorities, an

Account of the Quantities of British Tin coined and exported, and of the average Price of the same, in each Year from 1820 to 1832, both inclusive; exhibiting, also, the Imports and Exports of Foreign Tin during the same Period.

Years.	British Tin.									Foreign Tin.	
	Coined in Cornwall.		Coined in Devon.			Exported.		Average Price Per Cwt.		Imported.	Exported.
	Blocks.	*Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	*Blocks.*	*Cwt. qrs. lbs.*		*Cwt. qrs. lbs.*		*L. s. d.*		*Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	*Cwt. qrs. lbs.*
1820	16,000	50,239 2 18	-	- - -		54,248 1 15		3 18 6		1,309 0 5	3,047 1 24
1821	18,125	54,341 3 1	-	- - -		39,229 1 15		3 17 6		1,106 0 25	646 3 23
1822	18,740	56,676 3 13	61	231 2 20		35,643 2 8		4 8 0		1,536 2 14	1,9-9 0 5
1823	2,325	67,602 1 0	20	252 1 4		26,264 1 27		5 5 6		6,461 1 24	5,502 1 21
1824	22,495	67,125 2 15	279	834 2 5		34,790 0 15		4 8 6		6,430 1 14	4,709 2 20
1825	21,083	77,699 2 14	268	1,180 0 14		34,527 3 19		4 5 6		4,213 3 20	4,749 3 11
1826	21,555	78,574 1 1	400	1,510 2 20		43,643 0 0		3 19 0		2,394 2 8	5,847 1 3
1827	20,541	95,982 1 14	602	1,949 3 7		49,474 0 21		3 17 6		2,317 2 4	2,936 0 24
1828	24,563	9 ,397 3 19	647	1,739 3 23		41,629 2 15		3 13 0		3,366 0 18	3,246 1 10
1829	21,761	83,4-9 2 11	543	1,827 1 22		33,215 0 8		3 14 6		2,974 3 21	3,580 2 21
1830	24,306	80,579 3 26	589	2,064 0 24		30,425 1 8		3 10 0		15,530 2 5	10,426 0 5
1831	24,016	79,971 1 9	452	1,651 0 12		21,782 2 0				8,099 2 9	12,125 3 10
1832	-	- - -	-	- - -		31,837 2 8		3 13 0		22,208 1 8	21,719 3 13

Account showing the Quantity of British and of Foreign (Banca and Malay) Tin exported to different Countries in 1833, specifying the Quantities shipped for each.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 233. Sess. 1834.)

Countries to which exported.	British Tin.	Foreign Tin.	Countries to which exported.	British Tin.	Foreign Tin.
	Cwt. qrs. lbs.	*Cwt. qrs. lbs.*		*Cwt. qrs. lbs.*	*Cwt. qrs. lbs.*
Russia	3,753 3 24	5,014 1 16	Asia	25 3 0	4 3 6
Sweden	506 2 3		Africa	220 1 26	
Norway	18 0 21		British North American colonies	143 3 0	
Denmark	118 3 1	504 0 23	British West Indies	114 3 14	
Prussia	332 2 6	659 2 25	Foreign West Indies	27 0 0	
Germany	1 2 3 7	1,469 3 13	United States of America	1,177 0 0	3,569 2 17
Holland	687 2 0	4,285 2 10	Mexico	4 0 0	
Belgium	42 2 0	15,745 2 10	Colombia	4 0 0	
France	3,966 2 0	1,554 3 17	Brazil	322 0 0	
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	175 0 0		States of the Rio de la Plata	8 0 0	
Spain and the Canaries	937 0 0	89 3 23	Peru	6 0 0	
Gibraltar	48 0 0	20 0 2	Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	14 2 20	
Italy	3,097 3 18	5,368 0 24			
Malta	180 0 0	95 2 27	Total	24,989 1 0	39,849 3 27
Turkey	3,790 0 0	1,499 1 10			
Morea and Greek Islands	20 0 0				

Prices, &c.—The prices of tin and tin plates in the London market in March, 1834, were as follows:—

		L. s. d.			*L. s. d.*
Tin, British, in blocks	per cwt.	3 15 6	Tin plates, per box of 225 shts.	per cwt.	
ingots	—	3 15 0	No. I. C. 13 3 4 by 10 inches	112 lbs.	1 18 0
in bars	—	3 17 6	I. X.	160	2 9 0
grain blocks	—	4 13 0	I. XX. 161	161	2 9 0
broken	—	4 18 0	IXXX	188	2 15 0
Foreign, Banca, in bond	—	3 2 0	IXXXX	208	3 1 0
Straights	—	3 0 0	No. II. C. 13 1-4 by 9 3-4 inches	105	1 15 0

Tin plates, per box of 225 sh.			£. s. d.
No. II. X. 13 1-4 by 9 3-4 inches		125 lbs.	1 1 0
III. C. 12 3-4 by 9 1-4 inches		98	1 15 0
III. X.		120	1 19 0
Small Double	SDC (15 by 11 SDX (200 sheets	127	2 19 0
	SDXX	169	3 5 0
	SDXXX	200	3 15 0
	SDXXXX	230	3 17 0
	SDXXXXX	251	4 3 0

			£. s. d.
Double	C. 16 3-4 by 12 1-2 inches X. 100 sheets	98 lbs.	1 13 0
	XX.	126	1 19 0
	XXX.	147	2 5 0
	XXXX.	168	2 11 0
	XXXXX.	189	2 17 0

Taggers, 14 by 10 inches, 2l. 5s.
14 1-2 by 10 1-2 inches.
Waisters of No. I. C., No. I. X., and No. XX. 3s. per box less than perfect plates; all other sorts of waisters 6s. per box less. Duty and shipping charges 6d. per box.

The price of British tin, at an average, from 1811 to 1815, inclusive, was about 7*l.* a cwt. Its fall from 1815 to 1820, and its comparatively low price since, have been owing to a variety of causes; partly to improvements in the art of working the mines, partly to the increased supply of metal obtained from them, and partly and principally to the competition of the tin of Banca and of the Malay countries. Previously to 1814, we had in some measure a monopoly of the market of the world. But since then the Banca mines have been wrought with unusual spirit; and their produce has been so much increased, as not only fully to supply the market of China, to which we formerly exported from 600 to 1,000 tons, but to meet us in every European market. It appears, from the foregoing Tables, that Malay tin is now very extensively imported, for warehousing, into England, at the same time that large quantities are carried direct to Holland, where there are refining houses. Hence, notwithstanding the fall of price, and the increased produce of the Cornish mines, our exports of tin have continued nearly stationary, or have rather fallen off; having been less in 1831 and 1832, when the produce of the mines exceeded 4,000 tons a year, than in 1820 and 1821, when it was only about 2,000 tons a year.

Duty on British Tin.—All tin produced in Cornwall has been subject, from a very remote period, to a coinage duty of 4*l.* a ton, payable to the Duke of Cornwall: the tin raised in Devonshire is subject to a similar duty of 1*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* a ton. This duty produces from 16,000*l.* to 20,000*l.* a year; and is felt to be a serious grievance, not only from its amount, but from the vexatious regulations under which it is collected. Though the orders sent the miner were for tin of a peculiar description, he is not allowed to smelt it at once into the required form, but is obliged to cast it, in the first instance, into *blocks*. This regulation being complied with, it might be expected that the tin would be surveyed by officers at the smelting-house, and the duty charged accordingly; but instead of this the miner is obliged to convey it sometimes as far as 8 or 10 miles, to one of the *coinage towns*, where it is (and where only it can be) coined; that is, a small piece is struck off one of the corners, and the block is impressed with the arms of the duchy, and the duty paid. This useless ceremony being gone through, the tin has frequently to be carried back, before it can be shipped, to the very place whence it was taken to be coined! Another grievance is, that the coinage is only performed quarterly; so that, however pressing the demand for tin may be in the interim, the miner cannot supply it. There are also certain fees payable on the coinage, particularly if it take place during the Christmas and Ladyday quarters; so that if we add to the duty of 4*l.* a ton, those charges, and make a reasonable allowance for the expense of carriage, and for the trouble and inconvenience to which the miner is put, the whole may be moderately estimated at 5*l.* a ton.

It is surely high time that this tax, and the preposterous regulations connected with it, were abolished. So long as we enjoyed a sort of monopoly of the tin trade, the duchy duty was comparatively little felt; but now that we have to sustain a competition that has already sunk the price of tin about 50 per cent., and that is every day becoming more severe, it is found to be quite oppressive. And it is not to be endured that the existence of an ancient and important branch of industry, supposed to afford employment for about 20,000 persons, should be endangered, that the Crown may gain a paltry revenue of from 16,000*l.* to 20,000*l.* a year. This is a subject which calls loudly for the interference of the legislature; and should another edition of this work be called for, we trust we shall then have to announce the abolition or commutation of the tin duty.—(For further particulars, see an excellent little tract entitled the *Tin Duties*, (ascribed to Sir Charles Lemon) published in 1833. There is a useful and instructive paper on the tin trade in the *Spectator*, No. 217.)

Tin, Oriental (Malay, *Timá*; Hind. *Kalai*; Siamese, *Dibuk*; Burmese, *Kye-p'kyn*, white copper), in commercial language usually called Banca tin. It is found in several provinces of China; but the most extensive and, probably, richest tin district in the world, exists in the Malay countries. This comprehends the whole of the peninsula, from the extreme cape to the latitude of 14° on its western side, and to 11° on its eastern, and comprehends several of the small islands lying in the route between the peninsula and Java, as far as the latitude of 3° south; so that the whole of this tin district has an extreme length of near 1,200 miles. By far the greater number of the mines within these limits are as yet unwrought and unexplored. It was only in the beginning of last century that the mines of Banca, the most productive at present worked, were accidentally discovered. The whole tin of the Malay countries is the produce of alluvial ores, or what is called, in Cornwall, "Stream-work;" and from the abundance in which the mineral has been found by the mere washing of the soil, no attempt has hitherto been made at regular mining, or obtaining the ore from its rocky matrix. Malay tin, consequently, is grain tin, or tin in a very pure state; that being the species which alluvial ore uniformly produces. The mines, or rather excavations, are perpendicular pits of from 15 to 25 feet deep; and when the soil and a superstratum of common clay are removed, the bed containing the ore, consisting of quartz and granatic gravel, is reached. The sand and gravel are separated from the ore by passing a stream of water through the whole materials. The ore so obtained is preserved in heaps, and smelted periodically with charcoal in a blast furnace. The mine or pit is kept clear of water by the Chinese wheel. No cattle are used in any part of the process; human labour being had recourse to throughout the whole of its stages. The most imperfect part of the process is the smelting. The stream ores of Cornwall, which are generally poor, afford from 65 to 75 per cent. of grain tin; whereas, owing to the imperfection of the process, from those of Banca not more than 55 or 60 are usually obtained. The difference in the produce suggested, a few years ago, the practicability of sending the ore to England for the purpose of being smelted; and the experiment was tried; but our customs regulations not allowing the produce to be bonded and re-exported without duty, rendered the scheme abortive.

With very trifling exceptions, the whole tin of the Malay islands is mined and smelted by Chinese settlers; and before their skill and enterprise were applied to its production, the metal seems to have been obtained by the inhabitants of the countries which produce it, by processes hardly more skilful than those by which the precious metals were procured by the native inhabitants of America, prior to the introduction of European skill and machinery. The following estimate has been given of the annual produce of the principal states and places producing tin:—

East coast of the Malay peninsula—	Piculs.
Junk Ceylon	6,000
Queda	2,000
Pera	3,000
Salangore	3,000
Malacca	4,000
Total	Piculs 17,000

West coast of the Malay peninsula and islands—	Piculs.
Sungora and Patani	8,000
Tringanu	7,000
Pahang	3,000
Singkep	5,000
Banca	35,000
Total	Piculs 55,000

This can be considered only as a rough estimate; but we believe it is not far wide of the truth. At an average of the 2 years, 1826–27 and 1827–28 the exports of Singapore amounted to 16,342 piculs, or about 970 tons. The most considerable port of exportation is Batavia; from which there is sent annually, either directly, or through orders from the Dutch government or the authorities at Banca, 2,000 tons. From Prince of Wales Island there is also a considerable quantity exported; and a smaller one direct to China in junks, from several of the native ports on the eastern shore of the Malay peninsula. The great marts for the consumption of tin are China, Hindostan, and the continent of Europe. The quality of the different descriptions of Malay tin, although there may be some inconsiderable difference in the quality of the original ores, seems to be derived chiefly from the greater or less skill with which the process of smelting is conducted; and this, again, necessarily depends upon the extent of capital, and goodness of the machinery employed. The mining operations of Banca have long been conducted upon a larger scale, and with more skill, than in any other of the Malay countries; and consequently, the metal produced in this island is superior by from 10 to 12 per cent.: in the market of Canton it is called "old tin," in contradistinction to "new tin," the produce of the other Malay countries. Next, in point of quality, to the produce of Banca, are those of Tringanu and Singkep, which are not more than 5 per cent. inferior to it. The tin of the state of Pera, a considerable part of which is produced by the natives themselves, without Chinese assistance, is the worst, and usually about 15 per cent. below that of Banca. The native tin of China is 10 per cent. inferior to that of Banca, and is probably block tin, like the greater part of that of Cornwall; and, like it, the produce of regular mining operations, and not alluvial. The produce of the Chinese mines is said of late years to have greatly decreased; probably owing to the great increase which has recently taken place in the produce of the Malay countries, and the cheapness and abundance with which it finds its way to China. It should be added, that of late years, and chiefly owing to the very low price and abundance of German spelter (zinc) in the Indian market, this commodity has occasionally been fraudulently mixed with tin. The Chinese brokers of Canton, however, are sufficiently expert to detect the adulteration; and it is believed that this discreditable practice has lately ceased.

The price of tin, taking the market of Singapore as the standard, has fluctuated of late years from 14 to 20 Spanish dollars per picul; equal, at the exchange of 4*s.* per dollar, to 47*s.* and 67*s.* per cwt. At an average of these prices, the annual value of the whole Malay tin will be about 240,000*l.* per annum.—(*Crawfurd's History of the Indian Archipelago; Dr. Horsfield's MS. Statistical View of the Island of Banca; Singapore Chronicle; Canton Register, &c.*)

(We have great satisfaction in being able to state that the duties on tin raised in Cornwall and Devon, and all regulations with respect to the coinage of the same, have been abolished by the 1 & 2 Vict. c. 120. This wise and beneficial measure provides that compensation shall be made to the duchy of Cornwall for the loss arising from this abolition, by settling on its possessors a perpetual annuity equal to the nett average amount of the duties during the 10 years ending with 1837. And having thus secured the interests of the miners and the duke of Cornwall, the act goes on to secure those of the public, by enacting that the duties on foreign tin and tin ore shall be reduced to 15*s.* and 10*s.* a cwt. respectively. The total quantity of tin produced in Devon and Cornwall, in 1837–38, amounted to 5,130 tons, of the average value of 82*l.*, making its total value 420,660*l.*—*Sup.*)

TOBACCO (Da. *Tobak*; Du. *Tubak*; Fr. *Tabac*; Ger. *Taback*; It. *Tabacco*; Pol. *Tobaka*; Rus. *Tabak*; Sp. *Tabaco*; Arab. *Bujjerbhang*; Hind. *Tumbākū*; Malay, *Tambeco*), the dried leaves of the *Nicotiana Tabacum*, a plant indigenous to America, but which succeeds very well, and is extensively cultivated, in most parts of the Old World. The recent leaves possess very little odour or taste; but when dried, their odour is strong, narcotic, and somewhat fœtid; their taste bitter and extremely acrid. When well cured, they are of a yellowish green colour. When distilled, they yield an essential oil, on which their virtue depends, and which is said to be a virulent poison. The leaves are used in various ways; being chewed, smoked, and ground and manufactured into snuff. It is in the last mentioned form that tobacco is principally used in Great Britain; and, though the contrary has been often asserted, its use does not seem to have been productive of any perceptible bad consequences.

I. *Historical Sketch of Tobacco.*—The taste for tobacco, though apparently administering only to a frivolous gratification, has given birth to a most extensive commerce, and been a powerful spur to industry. Being a native of the New World, its introduction into Europe dates only from the early part of the 16th century. Seeds of the plant were sent, in 1560, from Portugal, to Catharine de' Medici, by Jean Nicot, the French ambassador in that country, from whom it has received its botanical name. The notion, at one time so general, that the specific appellation tobacco was derived from its having been imported from Tobago, is now universally admitted to be without foundation. Humboldt has shown, that tobacco was the term used in the Haytian language to designate the pipe, or instrument made use of by the natives in smoking the herb; and the term having been transferred by the Spaniards from the pipe to the herb itself, has been adopted by the other nations of the ancient world.—(*Essai Politique sur la Nouvelle Espagne*, vol. iii. p. 50. 2d edit.) Tobacco is believed to have been first introduced into England by the settlers who returned, in 1586, from the colony which it had been attempted to found in Virginia, under the auspices of Sir Walter Raleigh, in the preceding year. Harriott, who accompanied this expedition, gives, in his description of Virginia, an account of the tobacco plant, and of the manner in which it was used by the natives; adding, that the English, during the time they were in Virginia, and since their return home, were accustomed to smoke it after the fashion of the Indians, "and found many rare and wonderful experiments of the virtue thereof."—(*Hakluyt*, vol. i. p. 75.)

Raleigh, and other young men of fashion having adopted the practice of smoking, it spread amongst the English; as it had previously spread amongst the Spaniards, Portuguese, French, and other Continental nations. But it made its greatest progress in this country

after the foundation of the colony at James Town in Virginia, in 1607. The soil of the colony being found particularly well fitted for the culture of tobacco, considerable quantities were raised and sent home; and the numerous individuals interested in the colony contributed to introduce that taste for it which was diffused amongst all classes with astonishing rapidity.

James I. attempted, by repeated proclamations and publications, some of them couched in very strong terms, to restrain the use of tobacco. But his efforts had very little effect; and the settlers in Virginia continued to experience a more rapidly increasing and better demand for tobacco than for any other product of the colony.

During the earlier part of the reign of Charles I., the trade in tobacco was monopolised by the Crown. This monopoly was not, however, of long continuance, and totally ceased at the breaking out of the civil war.

Tobacco plants had been early introduced into England, and were found to answer remarkably well. Their cultivation was, indeed, prohibited by James, and afterwards by Charles, but apparently without effect. At length, however, the growing consumption of tobacco having excited the attention of the government financiers, it was seen that, by imposing a duty on its importation, a considerable revenue might be raised; but that, were it allowed to be freely cultivated at home, it would be very difficult to collect a duty upon it. In 1643, the Lords and Commons imposed a moderate duty, for the sake of revenue, on plantation tobacco; but instead of directly prohibiting the use of native tobacco, they burdened it with such a duty as, it was supposed, would occasion its culture to be abandoned. The facility, however, with which the duty was evaded, soon satisfied the republican leaders that more vigorous measures were required to stop its cultivation, and consequently to render its importation a source of revenue. Hence, in 1652, an act was passed, prohibiting the growth of tobacco in England, and appointing commissioners to see its provisions carried into effect. This act was confirmed at the Restoration, by the act Charles 2. c. [illegible], which ordered that all tobacco plantations should be destroyed. These measures were believed, at the time, to have been principally brought about by the solicitations of the planters; but their real intention was not so much to conciliate or benefit the latter, as to facilitate the collection of a revenue from tobacco; and, considered in this point of view, their policy seems quite unexceptionable.

This act did not, however, extend to Ireland; and, of late years, the cultivation of tobacco made considerable progress in that country. Had this been allowed to continue, there can be no question, that in a few years the revenue from tobacco, amounting to about 3,000,000*l.* a year, would have been materially diminished; for it would be quite visionary to suppose that any plan could have been devised for collecting a duty even of 100 per cent. upon tobacco—(see *post*)—supposing it to have been generally cultivated in Ireland. No one, therefore, can question the wisdom of the late act prohibiting its growth in that country, and of rigorously enforcing its provisions. Any advantage Ireland might have gained by its cultivation, would have been but a poor compensation for the sacrifice of revenue it must have occasioned.

In some countries, as England, tobacco is principally used in the form of snuff; in others it is principally chewed; but in one form or other it is everywhere made use of. So early as 1624, Pope Urban VIII. issued a bull, excommunicating those who smoked in churches! The practice of smoking was at one time exceedingly prevalent in this country; but during the reign of George III. it was well nigh superseded, at least amongst the higher and middle classes, by the practice of snuff taking. Latterly, however, smoking has been in some measure revived, though it is still very far from being so extensively practised as formerly.

We quote the following statement as to the universality of the use of tobacco from a learned and able paper on its "Introduction and Use," in the 22d volume (p. 142.) of the *Asiatic Journal*:—"In Spain, France, and Germany, in Holland, Sweden, Denmark, and Russia, the practice of smoking tobacco prevails amongst the rich and poor, the learned and the gay. In the United States of America, smoking is often carried to an excess. It is not uncommon for boys to have a pipe or cigar in the mouth during the greatest part of the day. The death of a child is not unfrequently recorded in American newspapers, with the following remark subjoined:—'supposed to be occasioned by excessive smoking.' If we pass to the East, we shall find the practice almost universal. In Turkey, the pipe is perpetually in the mouth; and the most solemn conferences are generally concluded with a friendly pipe, employed like the *calumet of peace* amongst the Indians. In the East Indies, not merely all classes, but both sexes, inhale the fragrant steam; the only distinction among them consisting in the shape of the instrument employed, and the species of the herb smoked. In China, the habit equally prevails; and a modern traveller in that country (Barrow) states, that every Chinese female, from the age of 8 or 9 years, wears, as an appendage to her dress, a small silken purse or pocket to hold tobacco, and a pipe, with the use of which many of them are not unacquainted at this tender age. This prevalence of the practice, at an early period, amongst the Chinese, is appealed to by M. Pallas as an evidence that 'in Asia, and especially in China, the use of tobacco for smoking is more ancient than the discovery of

the New World.' He adds—'Among the Chinese, and amongst the Mongol tribes who had the most intercourse with them, the custom of smoking is so general, so frequent, and has become so indispensable a luxury; the tobacco purse affixed to their belt so necessary an article of dress; the form of the pipes, from which the Dutch seem to have taken the model of theirs, so original; and, lastly, the preparation of the yellow leaves, which are merely rubbed to pieces and then put into the pipe, so peculiar; that they could not possibly derive all this from America by way of Europe; especially as India, where the practice of smoking is not so general, intervenes between Persia and China.'"

This, however, is a very doubtful proposition. It seems sufficiently established that the tobacco plant was first brought from Brazil to India about the year 1617; and it is most probable that it was thence carried to Siam, China, and other Eastern countries. The names given to it in all the languages of the East, are obviously of European, or rather American, origin; a fact which seems completely to negative the idea of its being indigenous to the East.

Sources of Supply. Importation into Great Britain.—Tobacco is now very extensively cultivated in France and other European countries, in the Levant, and in India; but the tobacco of the United States is still very generally admitted to be decidedly superior to most others. It is much higher flavoured than the tobacco of Europe; a superiority attributable in some degree, perhaps, to a different mode of treatment; but far more, it is believed, to differences of soil and climate.

Previously to the American war, our supplies of tobacco were almost entirely derived from Virginia and Maryland; and they are still principally imported from these states; so much so, that of 33,107,679 lbs. of unmanufactured tobacco imported in 1831, 32,712,108 lbs. came from the United States. Mr. Jefferson, in his *Notes on Virginia*, has given a very unfavourable view of the effects of the tobacco culture. It was, indeed, well known to be a crop that speedily exhausted all but the very best lands; and in addition to this, Mr. J. says, that "it is a culture productive of infinite wretchedness. Those employed in it are in a continued state of exertion, beyond the powers of nature to support. Little food of any kind is raised by them; so that the men and animals on these farms are badly fed, and the earth is rapidly impoverished."—(English ed. p. 278.)

Tobacco is extensively cultivated in Mexico, but only for home consumption. It might probably, however, were it not for the restrictions under which it is placed, form a considerable article of export from that country. Under the Spanish government, the tobacco monopoly was one of the principal sources of revenue; yielding from 4,000,000 to 4,500,000 dollars, exclusive of the expenses of administration, amounting to about 800,000 dollars. No tobacco was allowed to be cultivated, except in a few specified places. Commissioners, or *guardas de tabaco*, were appointed, whose duty it was to take care that all tobacco plantations without the privileged districts should be destroyed. The government fixed the price at which the cultivators of tobacco were obliged to sell it to its agents. The sale of the manufactured tobacco was farmed out; and *cigars* were not allowed to be sold, except at the royal *estancos*. No one was allowed to use cigars of his own manufacture. This most oppressive monopoly was established in 1764. It has been continued, from the difficulty of supplying the revenue which it produces, by the present government.—(*Humboldt, Nouvelle Espagne*, vol. iii. p. 49.; *Poinsett's Notes on Mexico*, note 116. Lond. ed.)

Cuba is celebrated for its tobacco, particularly its cigars. These consist of the leaves, formed into small rolls, for the purpose of smoking. Formerly their importation into this country was prohibited; but they may now be imported on paying the exorbitant duty of 9*s.* per lb. Havannah cigars are usually reckoned the best. Previously to 1820, the cultivation and sale of tobacco were subjected to the same sort of monopoly in Cuba as in Mexico: but, at the period referred to, the trade was thrown open. In consequence of the freedom thus given to the business, the production and exportation of tobacco are both rapidly increasing, though hardly, perhaps, so much as might have been expected; the culture of sugar and coffee being reckoned more profitable. In 1828, the declared value of the tobacco exported from Cuba amounted to 868,000 dollars; but there is good reason to think that its real value considerably exceeded this sum. At present, the total real value of the exports of tobacco from the Havannah and other ports is probably not much under 2,000,000 dollars. The tobacco used in Cuba by the lower classes is chiefly imported from the United States.

Consumption of Duty-paid Tobacco in the United Kingdom.—It appears from the following official account, that the consumption of duty-paid tobacco in Great Britain has increased from about 8,000,000 lbs. in 1789, to 16,214,000 lbs. in 1833; the duty having fluctuated during the same period from 1*s.* 3*d.* to 4*s.* and 3*s.* per lb. There are, however, sufficient grounds for thinking that the consumption would have been at least *one-fourth part* greater, had the duty been less. But, whatever difference of opinion may exist as to the influence of the duty in Great Britain, there can be none as to its influence in Ireland. The subjoined Table shows that during the 5 years ending with 1798, when the duty was 8*d.* a pound, the annual average consumption of duty-paid tobacco was 7,337,217 lbs.

Since 1798, the population of Ireland has been more than *doubled*; and yet, during the 5 years ending with 1833, when the duty was 3*s.* per lb., the annual average consumption has been only about 4,266,000 lbs.; which, making allowance for the increase of population, shows that the consumption has sunk to little more than a *fourth part* of what it amounted to at the former period! This statement warrants the conclusion, that were the duty on tobacco in Ireland reduced to 1*s.* per lb., the consumption would be so much increased, that the revenue would gain, and not lose, by the reduction.

Smuggling.—The price of tobacco in bond varies from 3*d.* to 6*d.* per lb.; so that the duty of 3*s.* amounts to 1,200 per cent. on the inferior, and to 600 per cent. on the superior qualities. Now, though the use of tobacco be a frivolous one, it is, at the same time, an innocent gratification; and we do not really see any reason whatever for loading it with such oppressive duties, even supposing it were possible to collect them. The more the wants and desires of men are multiplied, the more inventive and industrious they become; and so far from preventing luxurious indulgences, a wise government should exert itself to increase their number, and to diffuse a taste for them as widely as possible. But supposing it to be otherwise, still the magnitude of the tobacco duty is altogether indefensible: it is neither calculated to produce the largest amount of revenue, nor to eradicate the taste for the article. Its exorbitancy is advantageous to the smuggler, and to him only. With the exception of brandy and geneva, tobacco is the principal article clandestinely imported. If, as one might be half inclined to suspect, the duty were intended to give life and activity to the nefarious practices of the illicit traders, it has completely answered its object; but in every other point of view, its failure has been signal and complete. "According," said Mr. Poulett Thomson, in his admirable speech on the taxation of the empire, on the 26th of March, 1830, "according to all accounts laid before the house on this subject, smuggling in this article in England, Ireland, and Scotland, is carried on to the greatest possible extent. I have heard it stated, and I have the fact upon the best authority, that numbers of vessels are constantly leaving the ports of Flushing, Ostend, &c., carrying contraband tobacco to this country. It is a fact which was established in evidence before a committee of this house, that *seventy* cargoes of tobacco, containing 3,644,000 lbs., were smuggled in 1 year, on the coast of Ireland, from the port of Waterford to the Giant's Causeway alone! In Scotland, smuggling in this article is also carried on to a great extent. There is no doubt," added the Right Honourable gentleman, "that the only mode of meeting this system of smuggling consists *in fairly reducing the duty upon the article.* I believe, that were the duty upon it reduced to 1*s.* or 1*s.* 6*d.* per lb., the public would be greatly served, and smuggling put down."

We question, indeed, whether, allowing for the clandestine importation, the consumption be relatively less at this moment, in Ireland, than at any former period. Under the present system, government collects an exorbitant duty upon about a *fourth part* of the tobacco consumed in Ireland, the other *three-fourths* being supplied by the smuggler; the duty being at once an incentive to his energies, and a premium to indemnify him for his risks! A *fourth part* of the demand of Great Britain is, probably, supplied in the same way.

Account of the Number of Pounds' Weight of Leaf Tobacco, manufactured Cigars, and Snuff, that paid Duty in the United Kingdom, for the Year ending the 5th of January, 1840; with the Rates of Duty, and Total Amount of the same.

	Quantities entered for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom.				Gross Amount of Duty received thereon.			
	Leaf Tobacco.	Manufactured Tobacco and Cigars.	Snuff.	Total.	Leaf Tobacco.	Manufactured Tobacco and Cigars.	Snuff.	Total.
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*
Year ended 5th Jan. 1840.	22,971,400	196,037	978	23,167,711	3,431,908	88,176	83	3,520,167

Prices of Tobacco, in Bond, in the London Market, March, 1824.

	s. *d.*		*s.* *d.*
Kentucky and Carolina, per lb.	0 3½	to	0 5½
Virginia, ordinary	0 3	—	0 3½
part blacks	0 3½	—	0 3½
middling and leafy	0 4½	—	0 4½
fine	0 4½	—	0 5½
Fine Irish and spinners	0 5½	—	0 7
middling	0 4½	—	0 5
fine long leafy	0 4½	—	0 5
ordinary and middling	0 3½	—	0 4½
Lux, or stript leaf	0 3½	—	0 7
Cargoes — 100 lbs.	0 0	—	0 0

	s. *d.*		*s.* *d.*
Maryland scrubs, per lb.	0 0	to	0 0
brown and leafy	0 3½	—	0 5
colourly and yellow	0 5½	—	1 0
fine yellow	1 2	—	1 4
Cuba, in rolls	0 11	—	1 2
East India	0 0	—	0 0
Turkey	0 6	—	0 8
St. Domingo	0 6	—	0 8
Amersfoot or German	0 4½	—	0 10
Havannah and Cumana	1 8	—	3 6
Cigars	5 0	—	12 9

Rates of Duty charged in the Year ended the 5th of January, 1834.

	s. *d.*	
Unmanufactured tobacco, the produce of, and imported from, any British possession in America	2 9	per lb.
Unmanufactured tobacco, otherwise imported	3 0	—
Manufactured tobacco and cigars	9 0	—
Snuffs	6 0	—

Account of the Quantities of Tobacco retained for Home Consumption, the Rates of Duty thereon; and the Total Nett Produce of the Duties, in Great Britain and Ireland; from 1789 to 1833, both inclusive.—(*Parl. Papers*, No. 340. Sess. 1829, No. 747. Sess. 1833, and No. 212. Sess. 1834.)

Year	Great Britain. Quantities retained for Home Consumption.	Nett Revenue of Customs and Excise.	Total Rate of Duty per Lb. on unmanufactured Tobacco. American.	Of the Dominions of Spain and Portugal.	Ireland. Quantities entered for Home Consumption.	Nett Revenue of Customs and Excise.	Total Rate of Duty per Lb. on unmanufactured Tobacco.
	Lbs.	*L.* s. d.			*Lbs.*	*L.* s. d.	
1789	8,142,185	408,037 4 1	1s. 3d.	3s.	2,765,441	138,704 3 4	1s. Irish currency.
1790	8,960 324	512,383 7 1	" "	3s. 6d.	2,905,437	134,195 18 10	" "
1791	8,840,87	585,9 6 9 1	" "	" "	3,549,043	117,420 0 2	" "
1792	8,979,221	582,496 7 7	" "	" "	1,767,581	80,068 4 5	" "
1793	8,617,987	547,3 7 14 4	" "	" "	5,486,857	123,811 17 1	6d. ditto.
1794	9,783,536	606,262 12 10	" "	" "	9,426,211	180,158 10 7	" "
1795	10 972,380	659,989 3 4	" "	" "	7,874,409	215,719 9 0	8d. ditto.
1796	10,047,843	755,451 15 1	1s. 7d.	4s. 6d.	5,045,790	186,759 19 0	" "
1797	9,921,439	8 3,027 16 2	1s. 7d. 6-20ths.	4s. 6d. 13-20ths.	9,445,355	267,731 16 4	" "
1798	10,248,741	967,302 14 0	1s. 7d. 12-20ths.	4s. 7d. 4-20ths.	4,994,121	215,917 12 7	1s. ditto.
1799	10,253,113	799,369 14 2	" "	" "	5,876,172	246,048 4 9	1s. 6-10ths ditto.
1800	11,796,415	987,110 8 6	" "	" "	6,737 2 5	327,916 9 0	" "
1801	10,514,998	943,855 3 5	1s. 7d. 6-20ths.	4s. 6d. 13-20ths.	6,389,754	286,482 6 4	" "
1802	12,121,379	928,678 9 1	1s. 7d. 33-50ths.	4s. 7d. 13-50ths.	6,827,542	309,738 9 2	{ 1s. 7-10ths per lb. and 3s. per 100 lbs.
1803	12,589,870	1,088,563 16 1	1s. 7 9-4d.	4s. 8 1-4d.	5,978,511	266,944 3 4	" "
1804	12,54,494	1,060,319 18 0	1s. 8 1-6d.	4s. 10 1-2d.	5,783,487	314,007 5 8	1s. 6d. Brit. currency.
1805	12,616 471	1,088 821 4 5	1s. 8d. 13-20ths.	4s. 10d. 19-20ths	4,168,794	302 316 8 1	" "
1806	12,435,035	1,185,830 14 1	2s. 2d. 13-20ths.	5s. 4d. 19-20ths.	5,092,196	358,8 7 8 4	" "
1807	14,492,984	1,336,542 17 9	" "	" "	4,531,049	318,417 4 3	1s 6d. ditto.
1808	12,876,230	1,448,286 3 7	" "	" "	5,547,416	405,973 3 3	" "
1809	13,674,970	1,325,151 5 7	" "	4s. 1d. 13 20ths.	6,487 162	451,278 19 11	" "
1810	14,108,193	1,598,376 18 9	" "	" "	6,22 .646	444,198 5 0	" "
1811	14,823,341	1,701,848 8 2	" "	" "	8,453,024	552,082 9 9	1s. 2d. 13-20ths ditto.
1812	13,043,383	1,679,912 2 2	2s. 4d. 13-20ths.	4s. 5d. 18-20ths.	5,986,702	607,597 9 11	" "
1813	13,648,245	{ Customs recorded destroyed. }	2s. 8d. 3-16ths.	4s. 11d. 11-16ths.	5,944,917	746,006 5 2	2s. 2d. 3-20ths ditto.
1814	10,503,917	1,581,884 12 9	" "	" "	4,869,504	663,708 12 11	" "
1815	15,207,192	1,794,497 7 10	3s. 2d.	5s. 5 1-2d.	4,748,205	740,379 13 1	3s. 2d. ditto.
1816	12,815,996	2,035,108 2 8	" "	" "	4,732,085	730,510 7 6	" "
1817	13,591,088	2,159,800 3 11	" "	" "	4,778,169	737,316 8 3	" "
1818	13,688,437	2,173,860 19 2	" "	" "	4,194,041	664,1 3 3 9 1	" "
1819	12,911 245	2,285,045 2 10	4s.	6s.	3,466,852	614,9 9 5 7	4s. ditto.
1820	13,016,564	2,010,912 7 9	" "	" "	2,-82,4 8	516,448 2 6	" "
1821	14,988 198	2,600,415 7 8	" "	" "	2,614,154	522,1 69 6 9	" "
1822	12,910,568	2,599,155 15 1	" "	" "	3,309,072	664,0 18 7 4	" "
1823	13,41 .554	2,695,009 15 0	" "	" "	3,546,126	730,507 12 8	" "
1824	13,083,094	2,627,955 12 6	" "	" "	3,749,732	750,589 5 4	" "
1825	14,510,515	2,930,617 6 3	3s.	5s.	4,160,049	728,289 13 11	3s. ditto.
1826	13,783,370	2,077,875 14 7	" "	3s.	3,998,647	680,893 11 0	" "
1827	14,704,615	2,223,310 18 4	" "	" "	4,041,752	693,037 18 9	" "
1828	14,510,368	2,198,142 18 2	" "	" "	4 013 916	695,883 4 3	" "
1829	14,781 48	2,236,366 0 0	" "	" "	4,125,297	613 341 0 0	" "
1830	15,1 0,719	2,309,297 0 0	" "	" "	4,122,782	614,978 0 0	" "
1831	15 .. 018	2,338,107 0 0	" "	" "	4,189,823	626,495 0 0	" "
1832	15,692,792	2,428,532 0 0	" "	" "	4,942,676	652,306 0 0	" "
1833	16,114,179	" "	" "	" "	4,-66,448	" "	" "

Regulations as to Importation.—Tobacco is not to be imported in a vessel of less than 120 tons burden; nor unless in hogsheads, casks, chests, or cases, containing at least 100 lbs. nett weight, if from the East Indies; or 450 lbs. weight, if from any other place; or 100 lbs. weight, if cigars; except tobacco from Turkey, which may be packed in separate bags or packages, provided the outward package be a hogshead, cask, chest, or case, containing 450 lbs. nett at least; and except Guatemala and Colombian tobacco, which may be imported in packages of not less than 90 lbs. Tobacco is not allowed to be imported, unless into the following ports; viz. London, Liverpool, Bristol, Lancaster, Cowes, Falmouth, Whitehaven, Hull, Glasgow, Port Glasgow, Greenock, Leith, Newcastle, Plymouth, Belfast, Cork, Drogheda, Dublin, Galway, Limerick, Londonderry, Newry, Sligo, Waterford, and Wexford. A rent of *four* shillings is charged upon every hogshead, cask, chest, or case of tobacco, warehoused in every warehouse provided by the Crown: 2*s.* being paid immediately upon depositing the tobacco in the warehouse, and 2*s.* more before the tobacco is taken out for home consumption, or exportation: it may remain for *five* years in the warehouse without any additional charge for rent. No abatement is made from the tobacco duties on account of damage; but the merchant may, if he choose, abandon the tobacco, which is to be destroyed. The allowance of duty-free tobacco for each officer on board his Majesty's navy, and for each soldier on foreign service, is fixed at 2 lbs. per lunar month. Tobacco that has been exported, cannot be reimported, without being subject to the same duty as if it were imported for the first time. Tobacco cannot be entered for exportation in any vessel of less than 70 tons burden.—(See a full statement of the regulations in *Ellis's British Tariff for* 1830-31.) When tobacco is reshipped for exportation, an allowance is made for shrinkage, from the seller to the buyer, of 30 lbs. per hhd. on Virginia and Kentucky, and 15 lbs. per hhd. on Maryland, on the landing weights; the draft of the former 8 lbs. and of the latter 4 lbs., with a tret on all sorts of 4 lb. per 104 lbs.

[Stocks of Maryland and Ohio Tobacco.

Stocks Remaining In the Warehouses in Baltimore & D. C.	Unsold in Europe, 31st Dec. In Holland.	In Bremen.	Total.	*Baltimore Inspections.* Inspected in	Maryland.	hhds.	Ohio. hhds.
1825 hhds. 7,370	13,100	4,700	17,800	"	1825	15,794	——
1826 " 14,400	11,752	2,100	13,852	"	1826	19,091	——
1827 " 9,750	14,100	3,500	18,600	"	1827	19,672	——
1828 " 12,800	6,971	4,000	10,971	"	1828	16,478	2,800
1829 " 9,390	8,454	1,600	10,054	"	1829	14,994	4,600
1830 " 11,700	7,442	2,100	9,542	"	1830	18,333	1,100
1831 " 11,250	8,579	3,086	11,665	"	1831	32,050	2,200
1832 " 5,000	9,080	4,720	13,800	"	1832	24,174	3,200
1833 " 10,800	8,494	5,540	14,034	"	1833	23,115	5,000
1834 " 8,750	13,536	6,545	19,181	"	1834	27,224	8,000
1835 " 9,150	9,118	8,080	17,769	"	1835	34,11"	9,000
1836 " 13,000	9,200	8,308	17,508	"	1836	30,509	3,400
1837 " 9,950	7,289	6,126	12,395	"	1837	30,245	4,380
1838 " 9,820	5,597	2,557	8,304	"	1838	23,205	4,539
1839 " 10,040	5,424	4,890	10,314	"	1839	22,582	4,096
1840 " 7,365	8,318	1,001	9,278	"	1840	30,661	8,488

Imported into Germany and Holland in 1840.

The following table exhibits the number of hogsheads of Tobacco and Stems, received at the principal European markets, *from the United States*, during the year 1840; the number sold; and the number remaining in first hands, at the close of the year. Maryland denomination includes that also of Ohio.

		Imported into Bremen.	Rotterdam.	Amsterdam.
Maryland and Ohio	hhds.	14,570	13,552	10,332
Virginia	"	3,492	3,504	1,444
Kentucky	"	2,493	175	195
Stems	"	2,362	636	306
Total	hhds.	22,227	17,856	12,277
		Disposed of.		
Maryland and Ohio	hhds.	18,398	12,380	8,741
Virginia	"	3,432	2,856	1,614
Kentucky	"	2,469	256	142
Stems	"	4,764	676	326
Total	hhds.	30,064	16,197	10,823
		Stocks remaining on hand, December 31.		
Maryland and Ohio	hhds.	1,061	4,305	3,568
Virginia	"	265	532	250
Kentucky	"	295		
Stems	"	1,631	906	271
Total	hhds.	3,292	5,095	4,373

Imported into Liverpool.

			Stocks, Dec. 31.
Virginia leaf	hhds.	3,730	2,317
Stems	"	2,208	2,575
Kentucky leaf	"	811	336
Stems	"	2,023	2,161
Other kinds	"	722	153
Total	"		hhds. 7,584
Do. 1839	"		" 7,226

Imported into London.

		Stocks, Dec. 31.
Virginia and Kentucky, chiefly hhds.	13,936	12,803

Stocks remaining in Europe, December 31.

		1840.	1839.	1838.
London	hhds.	12,668	12,428	11,220
Liverpool	"	7,584	7,226	5,100
Bristol, Newcastle, and Hull	"	1,100	1,357	1,760
Scotland	"	1,480	1,330	1,400
Ireland	"	1,200	1,100	1,250
Forth of Europe	"	200	200	200
Bremen and Hamburg	"	3,400	5,000	3,250
Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Antwerp	"	9,020	7,600	5,850
Spain, Gibraltar, and Portugal	"	800	1,200	600
France	"	200	200	200
Total	hhds.	37,597	38,755	31,030

Shipments of Maryland and Ohio Tobacco, from Baltimore and the District of Columbia.

Year.	Shipped from.	To Amsterdam.	To Rotterdam.	To Bremen.	To Hamburg.	To Cowes, France, and Coastwise.	Total.
		Hogsheads.	*Hogsheads.*	*Hogsheads.*	*Hogsheads.*	*Hogsheads.*	*Hogsheads.*
1825	Baltimore	2,235	5,796	5,554	545	934	26,471
"	District of Columbia	2,899	246	1,636	"	5,405	
1826	Baltimore	3,260	5,437	9,764	307	567	30,209
"	District of Columbia	3,083	978	628	"	2,504	
1827	Baltimore	4,602	6,967	8,157	508	1,367	35,771
"	District of Columbia	5,296	1,527	3,654	"	2,872	
1828	Baltimore	2,571	3,500	7,049	1,936	"	23,736
"	District of Columbia	5,611	1,071	2,921	471	3,106	
1829	Baltimore	5,895	6,864	7,138	"	1,594	24,943
"	District of Columbia	3,960	"	"	"	3,090	
1830	Baltimore	3,794	4,418	11,296	"	773	27,406
"	District of Columbia	5,797	"	581	"	1,133	
1831	Baltimore	4,138	4,420	11,619	610	1,508	30,799
"	District of Columbia	5,084	853	946	"	2,148	
1832	Baltimore	3,763	5,116	15,491	314	3,273	40,235
"	District of Columbia	7,278	1,544	300	258	3,978	
1833	Baltimore	2,372	5,191	13,118	442	2,323	33,301
"	District of Columbia	5,836	961	413	"	3,045	
1834	Baltimore	3,182	7,495	13,418	596	973	33,126
"	District of Columbia	5,673	371	"	"	1,639	
1835	Baltimore	2,565	9,656	19,709	209	2,571	40,935
"	District of Columbia	5,971	415	"	"	"	
1836	Baltimore	3,434	7,150	12,367	"	4,062	30,709
"	District of Columbia	1,745	1,892	418	"	240	
1837	Baltimore	3,940	7,247	14,291	55	7,354	33,644
"	District of Columbia	5,272	260	"	"	"	
1838	Baltimore	2,350	5,098	12,181	"	4,802	30,451
"	District of Columbia	1,691	"	"	"	1,279	
1839	Baltimore	6,153	5,111	10,227	"	4,348	27,913
"	District of Columbia	1,607	"	"	"	356	
1840	Baltimore	7,470	10,088	16,259	116	6,270	49,615
"	District of Columbia	3,266	2,177	"	"	"	

Lloyd's Price Current.

Annual Average Exportations of American Tobacco for Three Years, from October 1, 1835, to September 30, 1838.

Countries to which the tobacco was exported.	Number of hogsheads.	Value.	Average duty imposed in the U. States, per 100 lbs. American currency.	Duty levied in each country, estimated in American currency, per 100 lbs.
		Dollars.	*D. Cts.*	
Russia	181	10,778	4 09	Leaf with its stems, and stems, *D.* 10 66; leaves without stems, *D.* 21 32.
Sweden and Norway	1,788	141,988	6 72	In Norway, *D.* 3 29.
Denmark	89	10,071	9 64	Leaves and stems, 43 1-2 cents.
Holland	10,87[illegible]	955,825	4 04	Virginia, &c., 12 1-2 cents; Maryland, 14 1-4 cents.
Belgium	2,4[illegible]	185,107	6 24	Virginia, &c., 23 1-3 cents; Maryland, 26 2-3.
Great Britain	28,773	3,110,170	9 00	Leaves and stems, *D.* 72 72.
Gibraltar	4,674	378,610	6 45	Free port.
Malta	256	15,938	5 15	Free port.
Spain	1,729	100,317	5 19	Monopoly by the regie, except in 4 provinces.
France	10,[illegible]26	946,856	7 30	Monopoly by the regie.
Portugal	[illegible]7	6,360	6 88	Monopoly by the farm; also a duty of *D.* 8 95.
Italy	709	66,021	9 31	Monopoly in Sardinia, Roman States, Parma, Naples, and Tuscany.
Sicily	73	2,233	5 93	Monopoly in Naples.
Trieste (Austria)	265	23,497	8 84	Monopoly in the Austrian dominions, with the exception of Hungary; also a duty in Austria of *D.* 5 56.
Other countries of Germany	25,773	1,195,868	5 56	See note below.
All other countries	5,771	480,976		
	103,422	7,748,772	6 25	

Note.—The duty on importation of American raw tobacco and stems, is in Prussia, Baden, Wurtemburg, Bavaria, Hesse Cassel, Hesse Darmstadt, Nassau, Saxony, Liechtenstein, Hohenzollern, Hesse-Homburg, Frankfort, Waldeck, Schaumburg-Lippe, Lippe Detmold, in the Anhalt dukedoms, Saxe Weimar Eisenach, Saxe-Meningen-Hildburghausen, Saxe-Altenburg, Saxe Coburg Gotha, and the Reuse principalities, *D.* 3 23 per 100 lbs.; in Hanover and Brunswick, 70 cents per 100 lbs.; in Bremen, 3 4 per cent.; in Hamburg, 1 1-2 per cent.; in Lubec, 1-2 per cent.; in Mecklenburg-Schwerin, and in Mecklenburg-Strelitz the duty is very trifling.—*U. S. Com. and Stat. Reg.—Am. Ed.*]

TON, an English weight containing 20 cwt.

TONNAGE, in commercial navigation, the number of tons burden that a ship will carry.

The mode in which the tonnage of British ships is at present, and has hitherto been, ascertained is specified in the Registry act, 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55. §§ 16. & 17. (see vol. ii. p. 390.). This mode has, however, led to very inaccurate conclusions; and as most shipping charges depend on the tonnage, it has occasioned the building of ships of an improper form for the purpose of navigation, in order that, by measuring less than their real burden, they might evade a part of the duties. It, therefore, has long been felt to be desirable that some change should be made in the plan of measuring ships. But the practical obstacles in the way of any change are much greater than is commonly supposed. The accurate estimation of the tonnage of a ship is a very difficult problem indeed; and it is indispensable that any system to be adopted in practice be not very complex; for if so, it will either be wholly inapplicable, or it will be sure to be incorrectly applied. At best, therefore, only an approximative measurement can be obtained.

(The subjoined statute, 5 & 6 Will. 4. cap. 56., which has embodied similar clauses, prescribes the rules according to which the tonnage of ships has been ascertained since the 1st of January, 1836. These rules are not so simple or easily applied as those that were previously used; but they give the tonnage of all ships, however built, with tolerable accuracy, and, consequently, take away the temptation, that till then existed, to build ships of a form unsuitable for the purposes of navigation, in order that, by measuring less than their true burden, the duties charged according to the tonnage might be evaded.

Repeal of Former Regulations.—The rules laid down in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 55. (see vol. ii. p. 390.) relating to the admeasurement of ships, are hereby repealed, so far as relates to the merchant ships to be hereafter registered.—§ 1.

Rules by which Tonnage of Vessels is to be ascertained.—From and after the commencement of this act the tonnage of every ship or vessel shall, previous to her being registered, be measured and ascertained while her hold is clear, and according to the following rule; viz.: divide the length of the upper deck between the afterpart of the stem and the forepart of the sternpost into 6 equal parts. Depths: at the foremost, the middle, and the aftermost of those points of division, measure in feet and decimal parts of a foot the depths from the under side of the upper deck to the ceiling at the limber strake. In the case of a break in the upper deck, the depths are to be measured from a line stretched in a continuation of the deck. Breadths: divide each of those 3 depths into 5 equal parts, and measure the inside breadths at the following points; viz. at 1-5th and at 4-5ths from the upper deck of the foremost and aftermost depths, and at 2-5ths and 4-5ths from the upper deck of the midship depth. Length: at half the midship depth measure the length of the vessel from the afterpart of the stem to the forepart of the sternpost; then to twice the midship depth add the foremost and the aftermost depths; the sum of the depths; add together the upper and lower breadths at the foremost division, 3 times the upper breadth, and the lower breadth at the midship division, and the upper and twice the lower breadth at the after division, for the sum of the breadths; then multiply the sum of the depths by the sum of the breadths, and this product by the length, and divide the final product by 3,500, which will give the number of tons for register. If the vessel have a poop, or half deck, or a break in the upper deck, measure the inside mean length, breadth, and height of such part thereof as may be included within the bulk-head; multiply these 3 measurements together, and, dividing the product by 92·4, the quotient will be the number of tons to be added to the result as above found. In order to ascertain the tonnage of open vessels, the depths are to be measured from the upper edge of the upper strake.—§ 2.

Tonnage to be entered on Register.—The tonnage or burden of every ship belonging to the U. K. ascertained in the manner before directed, shall, in respect of any ship registered after the commencement of this act (except as herein excepted), be inserted in the certificate of the registry thereof, and be taken and be deemed to be the tonnage or burden thereof for all the purposes of the said act.—§ 3.

Tonnage of Steam Vessels.—In each of the rules before prescribed, when applied to ascertain the tonnage of any ship or vessel propelled by steam, the tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room shall be deducted from the total tonnage of the vessel as determined by either of the rules aforesaid, and the remainder shall be deemed the true register tonnage of said ship or vessel. The tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room shall be determined in the following manner; viz.: measure the inside length of the engine room in feet and decimal parts of a foot from the foremost to the aftermost bulk-head, then multiply the said length by the depth of the ship or vessel at the midship division as aforesaid, and the product by the inside breadth at the same division at 2-5ths of the depth from the deck taken as aforesaid, and divide the last product by 92·4, and the quotient shall be deemed the tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room.—§ 4.

Length and Contents of Engine Room to be set forth in Description of Steam Vessel.—The tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room, and also the length of the engine room, shall be set forth in the certificate of registry as part of the description of the ship or vessel; and any alteration of such tonnage due to the cubical contents of the engine room, or of such length of the engine room, after registry, shall be deemed to be an alteration requiring registry *de novo* within the meaning of the said act for the registering of ships or vessels.—§ 5.

For ascertaining Tonnage of Vessels when laden.—The tonnage of all ships, whether belonging to the U. K. or otherwise, as there shall be occasion to measure while their cargoes are on board, the following rule shall be observed; viz.: measure, first, the length on the upper deck between the afterpart of the stem and the forepart of the sternpost; secondly, the inside breadth on the underside of the upper deck at the middle point of the length; and, thirdly, the depth from the underside of the upper deck down the pumpwell to the skin; multiply these 3 dimensions together, and divide the product by 130, and the quotient will be the amount of the register tonnage of such ships.—§ 6.

Amount of Register Tonnage to be carved on Main Beam.—The true amount of the register tonnage of every merchant ship or vessel belonging to the U. K., ascertained according to the rule by this act established in respect of such ships, shall be deeply carved or cut in figures of at least 3 inches in length on the main beam of every such ship or vessel, prior to her being registered.—§ 7.

Not to alter Tonnage of Vessels already registered.—Nothing herein contained shall extend to alter the present measure of tonnage of any ship or vessel which registered prior to the commencement of this act, unless in cases where the owners of such ships shall require to have their tonnage established according to the rule before provided, or unless there be occasion to have such ship admeasured again on account of any alteration made in the form or burden of the same, in which cases only such ships shall be re-admeasured according to the said rule, and their tonnage registered accordingly.—§ 8.

Commencement of Act.—This act shall commence and take effect upon and from the 1st day of January, 1836.—(§ 9.)—*Sup.*

The tonnage of goods and store is taken sometimes by weight, and sometimes by measurement; that method being allowed to the vessel which yields the most tonnage. In tonnage by weight, 20 cwt. make a ton. In tonnage by measurement, 40 cubic feet are equal to a ton. All carriages, or other stores measured by the tonnage, are taken to pieces and packed so as to occupy the least room. Ordnance, whether brass or iron, is taken in tonnage at its actual weight; as are musket cartridges in barrels or boxes, ammunition in boxes, &c.

TOOLS AND MACHINES. Under this designation are comprised all sorts of instruments employed to assist in the performance of any undertaking, from the rudest and simplest to the most improved and complex. But we only mention them here for the purpose of making one or two remarks on the restrictions to which the trade in them is subjected.

Importation and Exportation of Tools and Machines.—Tools and machines being instruments of production, it is obviously of the utmost importance that they should be as much improved as possible, and hence the expediency of allowing their free importation. Their exclusion, or the exclusion of the articles of which they are made, would obviously lay every branch of industry carried on in a nation less advanced than others in their manufacture, under the most serious disadvantages. And supposing the implements it employed to be superior to those of other countries when the exclusion took place, the absence of foreign competition, and of the emulation which it inspires, would most probably, in a very short time, occasion the loss of this superiority. The injury arising from the prohibition of most other articles is comparatively limited, affecting only the producers and consumers of those that are prohibited. But a prohibition of machines strikes at the root of every species of industry: it is not injurious to one, or a few branches, but to all.

The question, whether the exportation of machinery ought to be free, is not so easy of solution. It is the duty of a nation to avail itself of every fair means for its own aggrandizement; and supposing the machinery belonging to any particular people were decidedly superior to that employed by their neighbours, and that they had it in their power to preserve this advantage, their generosity would certainly out-run their sense, were they to communicate their improved machinery to others. We do not, however, believe that it is possible, whatever measures may be adopted in that view, for one country to monopolise, for any considerable period, any material improvement in machinery or the arts: and on this ground we think that the existing restraints on the exportation of machinery had better be abolished. Drawings and models of all sorts of machines used in Manchester, Glasgow, and Birmingham, are to be found in most parts of the Continent; and at Rouen, Paris, &c., numbers of the best English workmen are employed in the manufacture of prohibited machines. Now, it does certainly appear not a little preposterous to prevent the exportation of a machine, at the same time that we allow (it could not, indeed be prevented) the free egress of the workmen by whom it is made! The effect of this absurd policy is, not to secure a monopoly of improved machines for the manufactures of England, but to occasion the emigration of English artisans to the Continent, and the establishment there of machine manufactories under their superintendence. The prejudice that must arise from this state of things to the interests of England, is too obvious to require being pointed out. It is plain, therefore, that the exportation of all sorts of machinery, on payment of a moderate duty, ought to be allowed. A policy of this sort would afford much more efficient protection to our manufacturers than they enjoy at present; at the same time that it would tend to keep our artisans at home, and make England the grand seat of the tool as well as of the cotton manufacture.

For an account of the restrictions on the exportation of machinery from Great Britain, see *antè*, vol. ii. p. 16.

Account of the Value of the Machinery exported from Great Britain, during the Six Years ending with 1829.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 373. Sess. 1830.)

Years.	Steam Engines and Parts of Steam Engines.	Mill Work of all Sorts allowed by Law to be exported.	Machinery of all other Kinds allowed by Law to be exported.	Machinery exported under Licence from the Treasury or Privy Council.	Total.
	L.	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*
1824	28,123	22,996	23,575	44,066	129,652
1825	78,027	25,654	104,983	4,472	212,416
1826	128,826	25,724	66,247	13,158	233,955
1827	111,930	24,738	60,507	17,154	214,129
1828	133,969	65,372	56,413	19,674	265,368
1829	133,573	47,543	52,019	21,404	249,539

TOPAZ (Ger. *Topas*; Fr. *Topase*; It. *Topazio*; Sp. *Topacio*; Rus. *Topas*). The name Topaz has been restricted by M. Haüy to the stones called by mineralogists Occidental ruby, topaz, and sapphire; which, agreeing in their crystallisation and most of their properties, were arranged under one species by M. Romé de Lisle. The word topaz, derived from an island in the Red Sea, where the ancients used to find topazes, was applied by them to a mineral very different from ours. One variety of our topaz they denominated Chrysolite. Colour, wine yellow. From pale wine yellow it passes into yellowish white, greenish white, mountain green, sky blue: from deep wine yellow into flesh red and crimson red. Specific gravity from 3·464 to 3·641.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*)

"*Yellow Topaz.*—In speaking of the topaz, a gem of a beautiful yellow colour is always understood; this wine yellow of different degrees of intensity; and the fuller and deeper the tinge, the more the gem is esteemed. In hardness it yields to the spinelle.

"There are few gems more universal favourites than the yellow topaz, when perfect; the rich warm tone of its colour, the vivacity of its lustre (which it retains even by the side of the diamond), and its large size, compared with many others, are characters which deservedly entitle it to distinction it bears accordingly a high price when of good quality.

"It is chiefly employed for necklaces, ear-drops, bracelets, &c. in suit. No little skill and taste are required in cutting and duly proportioning this gem; the table should be perfectly symmetrical, and not too large, the bizel of sufficient depth, and the collet side should be formed in delicate steps. It cuts easily on the mill, and the lapidaries are in general tolerably well acquainted with it; yet it is uncommon to meet with one well cut.

"The yellow topaz varies in price according to its beauty and perfection. A superlatively fine gem, perfect in colour and workmanship, sufficiently large for an armlet, or any other ornament, and weighing nearly 80 carats, was sold for 100*l.*

"Topazes have become more common since our intercourse with Brazil; consequently they are less in demand, and lower in price. A fine stone of 60 carats may be purchased at from 20*l.* to 25*l.*; and smaller, calculated for ring stones, at from 2*l.* to 5*l.*: but it is not usual to sell them by weight.

"*Pink Topaz.*—This is made from the yellow, which, when of intense colour, is put into the bowl of a tobacco pipe or small crucible, covered with ashes or sand: on the application of a low degree of heat, it changes its colour from a yellow to a beautiful pink. This is performed with little hazard; and if the colour produced happens to be fine, the price is much augmented.

"*Red Topaz.*—This beautiful gem, which very seldom occurs naturally, is of a fine crimson colour, tinged with a rich brown; it is extremely rare, and generally taken to be a variety of ruby, for which I have seen it offered for sale. Its price, from its scarcity, is quite capricious; it has an exquisite pleasing colour, very different from the glare of the artificial pink topaz.

"*Blue Topaz*—is also a beautiful gem, of a fine celestial blue colour. It has occurred of considerable magnitude; the finest specimen known, I brought in the rough from Brazil; when cut and polished, it weighed about 1½ oz. Smaller specimens are not uncommon, and, when light-coloured, are often taken for aqua-marinas, from which they may always be distinguished by their greater weight and hardness, &c.

"*White Topaz*—is familiarly called *Minas Nova*. It is a beautiful pellucid gem, and is used for bracelets, necklaces, &c. It possesses greater brilliancy than crystal; and, from its hardness, has been used to cover paste, &c., and to form doublets.—(*Mawe on Diamonds, &c.* 2d ed. p. 108—112.)

TORTOISESHELL (Fr. *Ecaille de Tortue*; It. *Scaglia de Tartaruga*; Ger. *Schilpad*; Malay, *Sisik kurakura*), the brown and yellow scales of the *Testudo imbricata*, or tortoise, a native of the tropical seas. It is extensively used in the manufacture of combs, snuff-boxes, &c., and in inlaying and other ornamental work. The best tortoiseshell is that of the Indian Archipelago; and the finest of this quarter is obtained on the shores of the Spice Islands and New Guinea. When the finest West Indian tortoiseshell is worth, in the London market, 46*s.*, the finest East Indian is worth 60*s.* per lb. Under the latter name, however, a great deal of inferior shell is imported, brought from various parts of the East Indies. The goodness of tortoiseshell depends mainly on the thickness and size of the scales, and in a smaller degree on the clearness and brilliancy of the colours. Before the opening of the British intercourse with India, the greater part of the tortoiseshell which eventually found its way to Europe, was first carried to Canton, which then formed the principal mart for the commodity. It is still an article of trade from that city; the value of the tortoiseshell exported by British ships, in 1831 and 1832, having amounted to 19,017 dollars. At present, however, Singapore is the chief mart, the exports from it in 1831 and 1832 having amounted at an average to 208 piculs. The price at Singapore varies from 750 and 900 to from 1,000 to 1,600 dollars per picul, according to quality.—(*Crawfurd's Indian Archipelago; Singapore Chronicle; Canton Register.*)

The imports of tortoiseshell into Great Britain from all places eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, except China, were, in 1830, 32,189 lbs.; in 1831, 30,908; and in 1832, 39,004.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 425. Sess. 1833.) The duty, which is 2*s.* per lb. on the shells imported from foreign countries, and 1*s.* per lb. on those imported from a British possession, produced, in 1832, 458*l.* 1*s.* 7*d.* nett.

TOYS (Ger. *Spielzeug*, *Speilsachen*; Du. *Speelgoed*; Fr. *Jouets*, *Bimbelots*; It. *Trastulli*; Sp. *Dijes*, *Juguetes de ninnos*; Rus. *Igrushki*), include every trifling article made expressly for the amusement of children. How frivolous soever these articles may appear in the estimation of superficial observers, their manufacture employs hundreds of hands, and gives bread to many families in London, Birmingham, &c. The greatness of the demand for them may be inferred, from the fact, that a manufacturer of glass beads, and articles of that description, has received a single order for 500*l.* worth of dolls' eyes!—(*Fourth Report, Artisans and Machinery*, p. 314.) Considerable quantities are also imported from Holland; which supplies us with several sorts of wooden toys on more reasonable terms than we can afford to produce them. But of late years, these have been made in greater abundance in England than formerly. The duty on toys, which is an *ad valorem* one of 20 per cent., produced, in 1832, 3,469*l.* 1*s.* 7*d.*, showing that the value of the toys imported for home use amounted to 17,345*l.*

TRAGACANTH, a species of gum, the produce of the *Astragalus Tragacantha*, a thorny shrub growing in Persia, Crete, and the islands of the Levant. It exudes about the end of June from the stem and larger branches, and soon dries in the sun. It is inodorous; impressing a very slightly bitter taste as it softens in the mouth. It has a whitish colour; is semitransparent; and in very thin, wrinkled, vermiform pieces; it is brittle, but not easily pulverised, except in frosty weather, or in a warmed mortar. It should be chosen in long twisted pieces, white, very clear, and free from all other colours; the brown, and particula

ly the black pieces, should be wholly rejected.—(*Thomson's Chemistry; Dr. A. T. Thomson's Dispensatory; Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

The entries of tragacanth for home consumption in 1831 and 1832, were at the rate of 45,836 lbs. a year. In March, 1834, tragacanth sold in the London market at from 11*l.* 10*s.* to 16*l.* per cwt., duty (6*s.*) included.

TREATIES (COMMERCIAL). By a commercial treaty is meant a treaty between two independent nations, for facilitating, and most commonly, also, regulating, the commerce carried on between them.

Origin, Objects, and Policy of modern Commercial Treaties.—During the middle ages, and down, indeed, to a comparatively recent period, foreigners resident in a country, whether for commercial or other purposes, were, for the most part, subject to very harsh treatment. At one time, it was usual in England to make aliens liable for the debts and crimes of each other; and the practice, formerly so common, of laying heavier duties on the goods imported and exported by aliens than by British subjects, is not even yet, we grieve to say, altogether abandoned. In France, and some other countries, during the 14th and 15th centuries, a stranger was incapable of bequeathing property by will; and the whole of his personal as well as real estate fell, at his death, to the king or the lord of the barony. This barbarous law was known by the name of *Droit d'Aubaine*, and was not completely abolished in France till a very late period.—(*Robertson's Charles V.* vol. i. note 29.) Previously to last century, the laws with respect to shipwreck, though infinitely more humane than they had been at a more remote period, were calculated rather to promote the interests of the sovereign of the country, or the feudal lords on whose territories shipwrecked vessels might be thrown, than those of the unfortunate owners or survivors.—(See WRECK.*) The most serious obstacles were then, also, opposed, by the prevalent insecurity, and the arbitrary nature of the tolls which the lords were in the habit of exacting, to the transit of commodities through the territories of one state to those of another.

Under such circumstances, it became of much importance for commercial states to endeavour to obtain, by means of treaties, that protection and security for the persons and properties of their subjects, when abroad, against unjust treatment and vexatious exactions, which they could not have obtained from the laws of the countries in which they might happen to reside. Thus, it was stipulated by Edward II., in 1325, that the merchants and mariners of Venice should have power to come to England for 10 years, with liberty to sell their merchandise and to return home in safety, "*without having either their persons or goods stopped on account of other people's crimes or debts.*"—(*Anderson, anno* 1325.) The commercial treaties negotiated during the 15th, 16th, and 17th centuries, are full of similar conditions; and there can be no doubt that, by providing for the security of merchants and seamen when abroad, and suspending, with respect to them, the barbarous laws and practices then in force, they contributed materially to accelerate the progress of commerce and civilisation.

Commercial treaties were also negotiated at a very early period for the regulation of neutral commerce during war; and for defining the articles that should be deemed contraband, or which it should not be lawful for neutral ships to convey or carry to either belligerent. These are obviously points that can only be decided by express stipulations.†

Instead, however, of confining commercial treaties to their legitimate and proper purposes —the security of merchants and navigators, and the facility of commercial transactions— they very soon began to be employed as engines for promoting the commerce of one country at the expense of another. For more than 2 centuries, those engaged in framing commercial treaties have principally applied themselves to secure, either by force or address, some exclusive advantage in favour of the ships and products of their particular countries. Hence these compacts are full of regulations as to the duties to be charged on certain articles, and the privileges to be enjoyed by certain ships, according as they were either produced by or belonged to particular countries. It was in the adjustment of these duties and regulations that the skill of the negotiator was chiefly put to the test. It was expected that he should be thoroughly acquainted with the state of every branch of industry, both in his own country, and in the country with which he was negotiating; and he was to endeavour so to adjust the tariff of duties that those branches in which his own country was deficient might be benefited, and those in which the other was superior might be depressed! The idea of conducting a negotiation of this sort on a fair principle of reciprocity is of very late origin; success in circumventing, in over-reaching, or in extorting from fear or ignorance some oppressive, but at the same time worthless privilege, was long esteemed the only proof of superior talent in negotiators.

* The practice of confiscating shipwrecked property continued in France till 1681, when it was abolished by an edict of Louis XIV. It was at one time common in Germany, to use the words of M Bouchaud, "pour les prédicateurs de prier Dieu en chaire, *qu'il se fasse bien des naufrages sur leurs côtes!*"—(*Théorie des Traités de Commerce*, p. 116.) And the fact that the celebrated jurist Thomasius wrote a dissertation in defence of such prayers, affords, if possible, a still more striking proof of the spirit of the period.

† There is a good collection of treaties as to this point, in the Appendix to the excellent work of Lampredi, *Del Commercio de' Popoli Neutrali*.—(See CONTRABAND.)

In an able tract, attributed to Mr. Eden, afterwards Lord Auckland, published in 1787 (*Historical and Political Remarks on the Tariff of the French Treaty*), there is the following outline of the qualifications necessary to the negotiator of a commercial treaty:—"Besides a general knowledge of the trade and reciprocal interests of the contracting parties, he ought to be precisely acquainted with their several kinds of industry and skill; to discover their wants, to calculate their resources, and to weigh with nicety the state of their finances, and the proportionate interest of their money: nay, further, he should be able to ascertain the comparative population and strength of each country, together with the price and quality both of first materials, and also of the labour bestowed upon them: for this purpose he should inquire into the operations of every class of merchants and manufacturers concerned in the trade; should consult their expectations on each of its several branches; and collect their hopes and fears on the effect of such commercial revolution, on the competition of rival nations. A good treaty of commerce, independent of the art of negotiation, is pronounced, by one who well knew the extent and difficulty of the subject, to be a '*masterpiece of skill*."—(p. 10.)

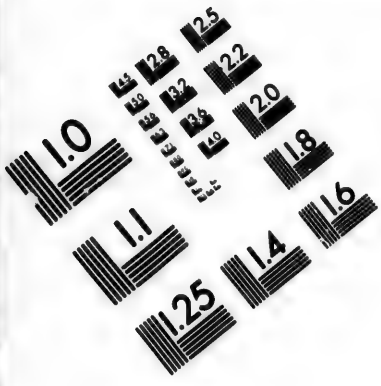
Had Mr. Eden concluded by stating, that no individual, or number of individuals, ever possessed, or ever would possess, the various qualifications which in his estimation were required in negotiating a "good commercial treaty," he would only have affirmed what is most certainly true. We believe, however, that he had formed a very false estimate, not only of the qualifications of a negotiator, but of the objects he ought to have in view. It was the opinion of the Abbé Mably—(*Droit Publique de l'Europe*, p. 561.),—an opinion in which we are disposed, with very little modification, to concur, that when a few general rules are agreed upon for the effectual security of trade and navigation, including the importation and exportation of all commodities not prohibited by law; the speedy adjustment of disputes; the regulations of pilotage, harbour, and light-house duties; the protection of the property and effects of merchants in the event of a rupture, &c.; all is done that ought to be attempted in a commercial treaty. It may, indeed, be properly stipulated that the goods of the contracting powers shall be admitted into each other's ports on the same terms as "those of the most favoured nations,"—that is, that no higher duties shall be charged upon them than on those of others. But here stipulations ought to cease. It is an abuse and a perversion of commercial treaties, to make them instruments for regulating duties or prescribing Custom-house regulations.

We admit, indeed, that occasions may occur, in which it may be expedient to stipulate for a reduction of duties or an abolition of prohibitions on the one side, in return for similar concessions on the other. But all arrangements of this sort ought to be determined by a convention limited to that particular object; and a fixed and not very distant term should be specified, when the obligation in the convention should expire, and both parties be at liberty to continue or abandon the regulations agreed upon. Generally speaking, all treaties which determine what the duties on importation or exportation shall be, or which stipulate for preferences, are radically objectionable. Nations ought to regulate their tariffs in whatever mode they judge best for the promotion of their own interests, without being shackled by engagements with others.* If foreign powers be all treated alike, none of them has just grounds of complaint; and it can never be for the interest of any people to show preferences to one over another. Those, for example, by whom *we* may be most advantageously supplied with foreign products, require no preferences; and if we exclude them, or give a preference to others, we incontestably injure ourselves: and yet 19 out of 20 of the regulations as to duties in commercial treaties have been founded on this preposterous principle. They have been employed to divert trade into channels, where it would not naturally flow; that is, to render it less secure and less profitable than it would otherwise have been.

A great deal of stress has usually been laid upon the advantages supposed to be derived from the privileges sometimes conceded in commercial treaties. But we believe that those who inquire into the subject will find that such concessions have, in every case, been not only injurious to the party making them, but also to the party in whose favour they have been made. The famous commercial treaty with Portugal, negotiated by Mr. Methuen in 1703, was almost universally regarded, for a very long period, as admirably calculated to promote the interests of this country; but it is now generally admitted, by every one who has reflected upon such subjects, that few transactions have taken place by which these interests have been more deeply injured. It stipulated for the free admission of British woollens into Portugal, from which they happened, at the time, to be excluded; but in return for this concession—a concession far more advantageous to the Portuguese than to us—we bound ourselves "for ever hereafter" to admit wines of growth of Portugal into Great Britain at ⅔ds of the duty payable on the wines of France! Thus, in order to open an access for our woollens to the limited market of Portugal, we consented, in all time to come, to drink inferior wine, bought at a comparatively high price!—(See WINE.) This, however, was not all: by excluding one of the principal equivalents the French had to offer for our com-

* This principle is laid down as fundamental by a very high authority, Sir Henry Parnell, in his tract *Sur les Avantages des Rélations Commerciales entre la France et l'Angleterre.*





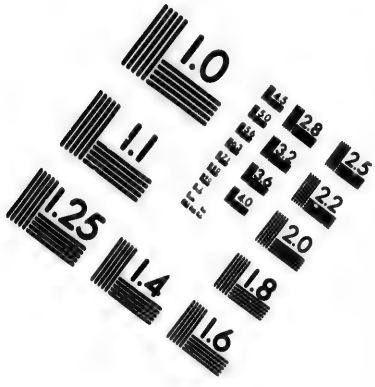
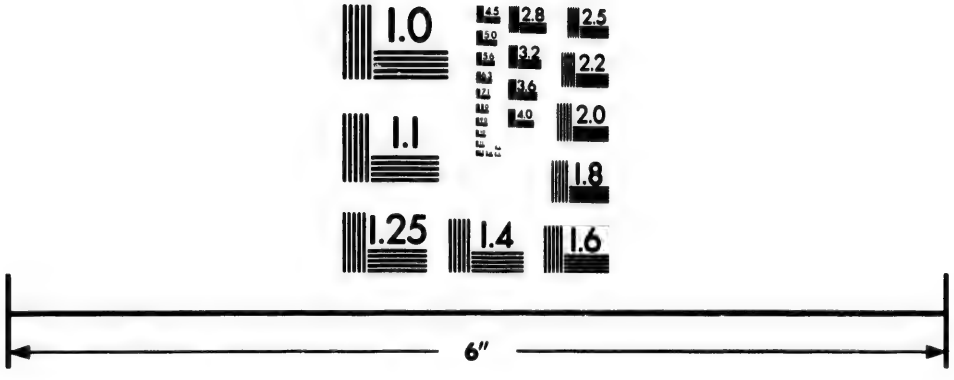
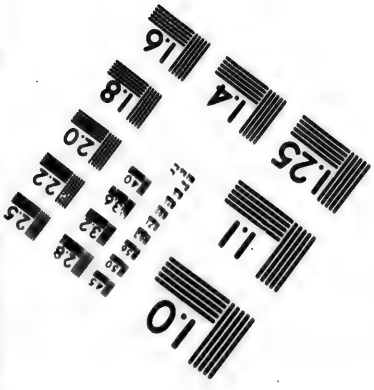
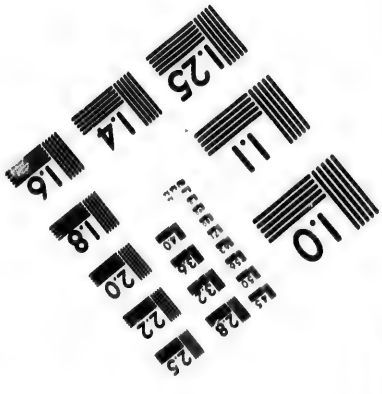


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modities, we necessarily lessened their ability to deal with us; at the same time that we provoked them to adopt retaliatory measures against our trade. It is owing more to the stipulations in the Methuen treaty than to any thing else, that the trade between England and France—a trade that would naturally be of vast extent and importance—is confined within the narrowest limits; and is hardly, indeed, of as much consequence as the trade with Sweden and Norway.—(See *antè*, p. 644.)

It is visionary to imagine that any nation will ever continue to grant to another any exclusive advantage in her markets, unless she obtain what she reckons an equivalent advantage in the markets of the other. And if a commercial treaty stipulating for an exclusive privilege be really and *bonâ fide* observed by the country granting the privilege, we may be sure that the concessions made by the country in whose favour it is granted are sufficient fully to countervail it. Those who grasp at exclusive privileges in matters of this sort, or who attempt to extort valuable concessions from the weakness or ignorance of their neighbours, are uniformly defeated in their object. All really beneficial commercial transactions are bottomed on a fair principle of reciprocity; and that nation will always flourish most, and have the foundations of her prosperity best secured, who is a universal merchant, and deals with all the world on the same fair and liberal principles.

The justness of these principles, we are glad to observe, is now beginning to be very generally admitted. Stipulations as to duties and Custom-house regulations are disappearing from commercial treaties; and it is to be hoped that, at no distant period, every trace of them may have vanished.

A good work on the principles, style, and history of commercial treaties is a desideratum. The best we have seen are Mascovius *De Fœderibus Commerciorum*, 4to. Leipsic, 1735.; and Bouchaud, *Théorie des Traités de Commerce*, 12mo. Paris, 1777. But these are principally works of erudition, and were written before the sound principles of commercial policy had been unfolded. There is no good collection of treaties in the English language; but Mr. Hertslet's work is valuable, as containing the recent treaties in an accessible form. A work containing new treaties and state papers is annually compiled at the Foreign Office; it used to be distributed to a few official personages only, but it is now sold to the public.

We subjoin copies of some of the commercial treaties and conventions existing at this moment between Great Britain and other powers.

AUSTRIA.

Convention of Commerce and Navigation between His Britannic Majesty and the Emperor of Austria, signed at London, December 21, 1829.

Article 1. From the 1st day of February, 1830, Austrian vessels entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and British vessels entering or departing from the ports of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty's dominions, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever than are or shall be levied on national vessels entering or departing from such ports respectively.

2. All articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of the dominions of either of the high contracting parties, which are or shall be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of the United Kingdom and of Austria, respectively, in vessels of the one country, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be imported into and exported from those ports in vessels of the other.

3. All articles not of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, which can legally be imported from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland into the ports of Austria, in British ships, shall be subject only to the same duties as are payable upon the like articles if imported in Austrian ships: and the same reciprocity shall be observed in the ports of the United Kingdom, in respect to all articles not the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty, which can legally be imported into the ports of the United Kingdom in Austrian ships.

4. All goods which can legally be imported into the ports of either country shall be admitted at the same rate of duty, whether imported in vessels of the other country or in national vessels; and all goods which can be legally exported from the ports of either country shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, whether exported in vessels of the other country or in national vessels.

5. No priority or preference shall be given, directly or indirectly, by the government of either country, or by any company, corporation, or agent, acting in its behalf, or under its authority, in the purchase of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, imported into the other, on account of or in reference to the national character of the vessel in which such article may be imported; it being the true intent and meaning of the high contracting parties, that no distinction or difference whatever shall be made in this respect.

6. In respect to the commerce to be carried on in Austrian vessels with the British dominions in the East Indies, or now held by the East India Company in virtue of their charter, his Britannic Majesty consents to grant the same facilities and privileges, in all respects, to the subjects of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty, as are or may be enjoyed under any treaty or act of parliament by the subjects or citizens of the most favoured nation; subject to the laws and regulations which are, or may be, applicable to the ships and subjects of any other foreign country enjoying the like facilities and privileges of trading with the said dominions.

7. All the possessions of his Britannic Majesty in Europe, except the British possessions in the Mediterranean Sea, shall, for all the purposes of this convention, be considered as forming part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

8. That clause of article 7. of the convention concluded at Paris on the 5th of November, 1815, between the courts of Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, and Russia, which relates to the commerce between the dominions of his Imperial and Royal Apostolic Majesty and the United States of the Ionian Islands, is hereby confirmed.

9. The present convention shall be in force until the 18th day of March, 1836; and further, until the end of twelve months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other, on or at any time after the said 18th day of March, 1836; and it is hereby agreed between them, that, at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall

have been received by either party from the other, this convention, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine.

10. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within 1 month from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the 21st day of December, in the year of our Lord 1829.

ABERDEEN.
W. F. VESEY FITZGERALD.
ESTERHAZY.

Austrian ships may import from the dominions of his Majesty the Emperor of Austria into any of the British possessions abroad, goods the produce of such dominions, and export goods from such British possessions abroad, to be carried to any foreign country whatever.—(*Order in Council*, April 7, 1830.)

DENMARK.

Convention of Commerce between Great Britain and Denmark, signed at London, the 16th of June, 1824.

Article 1. From and after the 1st day of July next, Danish vessels entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and British vessels entering or departing from the ports of his Danish Majesty's dominions, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever, than are or shall be levied on national vessels entering or departing from such ports respectively.

2. All articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of the dominions of either of the high contracting parties, which are or shall be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of the United Kingdom and of Denmark respectively, in vessels of the one country, shall, in like manner, be imported into and exported from those ports in vessels of the other.

3. All articles not of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, which can legally be imported from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland into the ports and dominions of the King of Denmark, in British ships, shall be subject only to the same duties as are payable upon the like articles if imported in Danish ships; and the same reciprocity shall be observed with regard to Danish vessels in the ports of the said United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, in respect to all articles not the growth, produce, or manufacture of the Dominions of his Danish Majesty, which can legally be imported into the ports of the United Kingdom in Danish ships.

4. All goods which can legally be imported into the ports of either country, shall be admitted at the same rate of duty, whether imported in vessels of the other country, or in national vessels; and all goods which can be legally exported from the ports of either country, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, whether exported in vessels of the other country, or in national vessels.

5. No priority or preference shall be given, directly or indirectly, by the government of either country, or by any company, corporation, or agent, acting on its behalf, or under its authority, in the purchase of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country imported into the other, on account of or in reference to the character of the vessel in which such article was imported: it being the true intent and meaning of the high contracting parties, that no distinction or difference whatever shall be made in this respect.

6. The high contracting parties having mutually determined not to include, in the present convention, their respective colonies, in which are comprehended, on the part of Denmark, Greenland, Iceland, and the islands of Ferroe; it is expressly agreed that the intercourse which may at present legally be carried on by the subjects or ships of either of the said high contracting parties with the colonies of the other, shall remain upon the same footing as if this convention had never been concluded.

7. The present convention shall be in force for the term of 10 years from the date hereof; and further, until the end of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other, at the end of the said term of 10 years; and it is hereby agreed between them, that, at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall have been received by either party from the other, this convention, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine.

8. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within 1 month from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the 16th of June, 1824.

GEORGE CANNING.
W. HUSKISSON.
C. E. MOLTKE.

Separate Article.

The high contracting parties reserve to themselves to enter upon additional stipulations for the purpose of facilitating and extending, even beyond what is comprehended in the convention of this date, the commercial regulations of their respective subjects and dominions, upon the principles either of reciprocal or equivalent advantages, as the case may be. And in the event of any articles or article being concluded between the said high contracting parties, for giving effect to such stipulations, it is hereby agreed, that the article or articles which may hereafter be so concluded shall be considered as forming part of the aforesaid convention.

Additional Articles.

Their Britannic and Danish Majesties mutually agree, that no higher or other duties shall be levied in either of their dominitions (their respective colonies being excepted from the convention of this date), upon any personal property of their respective subjects, on the removal of same from the dominions of their said Majesties reciprocally, either upon the inheritance of such property, or otherwise, than are or shall be payable in each state, upon the like property, when removed by a subject of such state, respectively.

FRANCE.

Convention of Commerce between His Britannic Majesty and the Most Christian King, together with two additional Articles thereunto annexed, signed at London, January 26, 1826.

Article 1. French vessels coming from or departing for the ports of France, or, if in ballast, coming from or departing for any place, shall not be subject, in the ports of the United Kingdom, either on entering into or departing from the same, to any higher duties of tonnage, harbour, light-house, pilotage, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties, of whatever nature, or under whatever denomination, than those to which British vessels, in respect of the same voyages, are or may be subject, on entering into or departing from such ports; and, reciprocally, from and after the same period, British vessels coming from or departing for the ports of the United Kingdom, or, if in ballast,

coming from or departing for any place, shall not be subject, in the ports of France, either in entering into or departing from the same, to any higher duties of tonnage, harbour, light-house, pilotage, quarantine, or other similar or corresponding duties, of whatever nature, or under whatever denomination, than those to which French vessels, in respect of the same voyages, are or may be subject, on entering into or departing from such ports; whether such duties are collected separately, or are consolidated in one and the same duty;—his Most Christian Majesty reserving to himself to regulate the amount of such duty or duties in France, according to the rate at which they are or may be established in the United Kingdom: at the same time, with a view of diminishing the burdens imposed upon the navigation of the two countries, his Most Christian Majesty will always be disposed to reduce the amount of the said burdens in France, in proportion to any reduction which may hereafter be made of those now levied in the ports of the United Kingdom.

2. Goods which can or may be legally imported into the ports of the United Kingdom, from the ports of France, if so imported in French vessels, shall be subject to no higher duties than if imported in British vessels; and, reciprocally, goods which can or may be legally imported into the ports of France, from the ports of the United Kingdom, if so imported in British vessels, shall be subject to no higher duties than if imported in French vessels. The produce of Asia, Africa, and America, not being allowed to be imported from the said countries, nor from any other, in French vessels, nor from France in French, British, or any other vessels, into the ports of the United Kingdom, for home consumption, but only for warehousing and re-exportation, his Most Christian Majesty reserves to himself to direct that, in like manner, the produce of Asia, Africa, and America, shall not be imported from the said countries, nor from any other, in British vessels, nor from the United Kingdom in British, French, or any other vessels, into the ports of France, for the consumption of that kingdom, but only for warehousing and re-exportation.

With regard to the productions of the countries of Europe, it is understood between the high contracting parties, that such productions shall not be imported, in British ships, into France, for the consumption of that kingdom, unless such ships shall have been laden therewith in some port of the United Kingdom; and that his Britannic Majesty may adopt, if he shall think fit, some corresponding restrictive measure, with regard to the productions of the countries of Europe imported into the ports of the United Kingdom in French vessels: the high contracting parties reserving, however, to themselves the power of making, by mutual consent, such relaxations in the strict execution of the present article, as they may think useful to the respective interests of the 2 countries, upon the principle of mutual concessions, affording each to the other reciprocal or equivalent advantages.

3. All goods which can or may be legally exported from the ports of either of the 2 countries, shall, on their export, pay the same duties of exportation, whether the exportation of such goods be made in British or in French vessels, provided the said vessels proceed, respectively, direct from the ports of the one country to those of the other. And all the said goods so exported in British or French vessels, shall be reciprocally entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and other allowances of the same nature, which are granted by the regulations of each country, respectively.

4. It is mutually agreed between the high contracting parties, that in the intercourse of navigation between their 2 countries, the vessels of any third power shall, in no case, obtain more favourable conditions than those stipulated, in the present convention, in favour of British and French vessels.

5. The fishing-boats of either of the 2 countries, which may be forced by stress of weather to seek shelter in the ports, or on the coast of the other country, shall not be subject to any duties or port charges of any description whatsoever; provided the said boats, when so driven in by stress of weather, shall not discharge or receive on board any cargo, or portion of cargo, in the ports, or on the parts of the coast where they shall have sought shelter.

6. It is agreed that the provisions of the present convention between the high contracting parties shall be reciprocally extended and in force, in all the possessions subject to their respective dominions in Europe.

7. The present convention shall be in force for the term of 10 years, from the 5th of April of the present year; and further, until the end of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate its operation; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other, at the end of the said term of 10 years: and it is agreed between them, that, at the end of the 12 months' extension agreed to on both sides, this convention, and all the stipulations thereof, shall altogether cease and determine.

8. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged in London, within the space of 1 month, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the 26th day of January, in the year of our Lord 1826.

GEORGE CANNING. LE PRINCE DE POLIGNAC.
WILLIAM HUSKISSON.

Additional Articles.

Article 1. French vessels shall be allowed to sail from any p[illegible]ever of the countries under the dominion of his Most Christian Majesty, to all the colonies of s[illegible]ed Kingdom (except those possessed by the East India Company), and to import into the s[illegible] colonies all kinds of merchandise (being productions the growth or manufacture of France, or of any country under the dominion of France), with the exception of such as are prohibited to be imported into the said colonies, or are permitted to be imported only from countries under the British dominion; and the said French vessels, as well as the merchandise imported in the same, shall not be subject, in the colonies of the United Kingdom, to other or higher duties than those to which British vessels may be subject, on importing the same merchandise from any foreign country, or which are imposed upon the merchandise itself.

The same facilities shall be granted, reciprocally, in the colonies of France with regard to the importation, in British vessels, of all kinds of merchandise, (being productions the growth and manufacture of the United Kingdom, or any country under the British dominion,) with the exception of such as are prohibited to be imported into the said colonies, or are permitted to be imported only from countries under the dominion of France. And whereas all goods, the produce of any foreign country, may now be imported into the colonies of the United Kingdom, in the ships of that country, with the exception of a limited list of specified articles, which can only be imported into the said colonies in British ships, his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom reserves to himself the power of adding to the said list of excepted articles any other, the produce of the French dominions, the addition whereof may appear to his Majesty to be necessary for placing the commerce and navigation to be permitted to the subjects of each of the high contracting parties with the colonies of the other, upon a footing of fair reciprocity.

2. French vessels shall be allowed to export from all the colonies of the United Kingdom (except those possessed by the East India Company), all kinds of merchandise which are not prohibited to be exported from such colonies in vessels other than those of Great Britain; and the said vessels, as well as the merchandise exported in the same, shall not be subject to other or higher duties than those to

which British vessels may be subject, on exporting the said merchandise, or which are imposed upon the merchandise itself; and they shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and other allowances of the same nature, to which British vessels would be entitled, on such exportation.

The same facilities and privileges shall be granted, reciprocally, in all the colonies of France, for the exportation, in British vessels, of all kinds of merchandise, which are not prohibited to be exported from such colonies in vessels other than those of France.

These 2 additional articles shall have the same force and validity as if they were inserted, word for word, in the convention signed this day. They shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at the same time.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, Jan. 26, 1826.

GEORGE CANNING. LE PRINCE DE POLIGNAC.
WILLIAM HUSKISSON.

A Treasury letter, dated 28th of March, 1826, directs that French vessels, and their cargoes legally imported or exported on board the same, according to the terms of the convention in the preceding pages, are, from the 5th of April, 1826, to be charged with such and the like duties only, of whatever kind they may be, that are charged on British vessels, and similar cargoes laden on board thereof; and in like manner the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances are to be paid on articles exported in French vessels, that are paid, granted, or allowed on similar articles exported in British vessels. And the necessary instructions are to be transmitted to the officers in the colonies for carrying into effect the stipulations contained in the 2 additional articles of the said convention, respecting French vessels and their cargoes, from the 1st of October, 1826.

HANSE TOWNS.

Convention of Commerce between His Britannic Majesty and the Free Hanseatic Republics of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburgh, signed at London, Sept. 29, 1825.

Article 1. From and after the date hereof, British vessels entering or departing from the ports of the free Hanseatic republics of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburgh; and Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburgh vessels entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; shall not be subject to any other or higher ship duties or charges than are or shall be levied on national vessels entering or departing from such ports respectively.

2. All goods, whether the production of the territories of the free Hanseatic republics of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburgh, or of any other country, which may be legally imported from any of the ports of the said republics into the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in British vessels, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be imported in Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburgh vessels; and all goods, whether the production of any of the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, or of any other country, which may be legally exported from the ports of the United Kingdom in British vessels, shall in like manner, be permitted to be exported from the said ports, in Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburgh vessels. And all goods, which may be legally imported into or exported from the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburgh, in national vessels, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburgh, in British vessels.

3. All goods which can be legally imported into the ports of the United Kingdom directly from the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburgh, or either of them, shall be admitted at the same rate of duty, whether imported in British vessels, or in vessels belonging to either of the said republics; and all goods which can be legally exported from the United Kingdom shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, whether exported in British or Hanseatic vessels. And the like reciprocity shall be observed, in the ports of the said republics, in respect to all goods which can be legally imported into or exported from any or either of the said ports in vessels belonging to the United Kingdom.

4. No priority or preference shall be given, directly or indirectly, by any or either of the contracting parties, nor by any company, corporation, or agent, acting on their behalf or under their authority, in the purchase of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of their states respectively, imported into the other, on account of or in reference to the character of the vessel in which such article was imported; it being the true intent and meaning of the high contracting parties that no distinction or difference whatever shall be made in this respect.

5. In consideration of the limited extent of the territories belonging to the republics of Lubeck, Bremen, and Hamburgh, and the intimate connection of trade and navigation subsisting between these republics, it is hereby stipulated and agreed, that any vessel which shall have been built in any or either of the ports of the said republics, and which shall be owned exclusively by a citizen or citizens of any or either of them, and of which the master shall also be a citizen of either of them, and provided 3-4ths of the crew shall be subjects or citizens of any or either of the said republics, or of any or either of the states comprised in the Germanic Confederation, such vessel, so built, owned, and navigated, shall, for all the purposes of this convention, be taken to be and be considered as a vessel belonging to Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburgh.

6. Any vessel, together with her cargo, belonging to either of the three free Hanseatic republics of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburgh, and coming from either of the said ports to the United Kingdom, shall, for all the purposes of this convention, be deemed to come from the country to which such vessel belongs; and any British vessel and her cargo trading to the ports of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburgh, directly or in succession, shall, for the like purposes, be on the footing of a Hanseatic vessel and her cargo making the same voyage.

7. It is further mutually agreed, that no higher or other duties shall be levied, in any or either of the states of the high contracting parties, upon any personal property of the subjects and citizens of each respectively, on the removal of the same from the dominions or territory of such states, (either upon inheritance of such property, or otherwise), than are or shall be payable, in each state, upon the like property when removed by a subject or citizen of such state respectively.

8. The high contracting parties reserve to themselves to enter upon additional stipulations for the purpose of facilitating and extending, even beyond what is comprehended in the convention of this date, the commercial relations of their respective subjects and dominions, citizens and territories, upon the principle either of reciprocal or equivalent advantages, as the case may be; and, in the event of any article or articles being concluded between the said high contracting parties, for giving effect to such stipulations, it is hereby agreed that the article or articles which may hereafter be so concluded shall be considered as forming part of the present convention.

9. The present convention shall be in force for the term of 10 years from the date hereof; and further, until the end of 12 months after the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, on the one part, or the governments of the free Hanseatic republics of Lubeck, Bremen, or Hamburgh, or either of them, on the other part, shall have given notice of their intention to terminate the same; each of the said high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other at the end of the said term of 10 years: and it is hereby agreed between them, that, at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall have been received by either of the parties from the

other, this convention, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine, as far as regards the states giving and receiving such notice; it being always understood and agreed, that, if one or more of the Hanseatic republics aforesaid shall, at the expiration of 10 years from the date hereof, give or receive notice of the proposed termination of this convention, such convention shall, nevertheless, remain in full force and operation as far as regards the remaining Hanseatic republics or republic which may not have given or received such notice.

10. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratification shall be exchanged at London, within 1 month from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, Sept. 29, 1825.

GEORGE CANNING.
W. HUSKISSON.
JAMES COLQUHOUN.

MEXICO.

Treaty of Amity, Commerce, and Navigation, between Great Britain and Mexico, signed at London, December 26, 1826.

Article 1. There shall be perpetual amity between the dominions and subjects of his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the United States of Mexico, and their citizens.

2. There shall be, between all the territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe and the territories of Mexico, a reciprocal freedom of commerce. The inhabitants of the two countries, respectively, shall have liberty freely and securely to come, with their ships and cargoes, to all places and rivers in the territories aforesaid, saving only such particular ports to which other foreigners shall not be permitted to come, to enter into the same, and to remain and reside in any part of the said territories respectively; also to hire and occupy houses and warehouses for the purposes of their commerce; and, generally, the merchants and traders of each nation, respectively, shall enjoy the most complete protection and security for their commerce.

In like manner, the respective ships of war, and post-office packets of the 2 countries, shall have liberty freely and securely to come to all harbours, rivers, and places, saving only such particular ports (if any) to which other foreign ships of war and packets shall not be permitted to come, to enter into the same, to anchor, and to remain there and refit; subject always to the laws and statutes of the two countries respectively.

By the right of entering the places, ports, and rivers, mentioned in this article, the privilege of carrying on the coasting trade is not understood, in which national vessels only are permitted to engage.

3. His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland engages further, that the inhabitants of Mexico shall have the like liberty of commerce and navigation stipulated for in the preceding article, in all his dominions situated out of Europe, to the full extent in which the same is permitted at present, or shall be permitted hereafter, to any other nation.

4. No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, of any article of the growth, produce, or manufacture of Mexico, and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the territories of Mexico, of any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, than are or shall be payable on the like articles, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country; nor shall any other or higher duties or charges be imposed in the territories or dominions of either of the contracting parties, on the exportation of any articles to the territories of the other, than such as are or may be payable on the exportation of the like articles to any other foreign country; nor shall any prohibition be imposed upon the exportation of any articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, or of the said territories of Mexico, to or from the said dominions of his Britannic Majesty, or to or from the said territories of Mexico, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

5. No higher or other duties or charges on account of tonnage, light or harbour dues, pilotage, salvage in case of damage or shipwreck, or any other local charges, shall be imposed, in any of the ports of Mexico, on British vessels, than those payable in the same ports by Mexican vessels*; nor, in the ports of his Britannic Majesty's territories, on Mexican vessels, than shall be payable, in the same ports, on British vessels.

6. The same duties shall be paid on the importation into the territories of Mexico, of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, whether such importation shall be in Mexican* or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid on the importation into the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of Mexico, whether such importation shall be in British or in Mexican vessels. The same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, on the exportation to Mexico of any articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, whether such exportation shall be in Mexican or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties and drawbacks allowed, on the exportation of any articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of Mexico, to his Britannic Majesty's dominions, whether such exportation shall be in British or in Mexican vessels.

7. In order to avoid any misunderstanding with respect to the regulations which may respectively constitute a British or Mexican * vessel, it is hereby agreed that all vessels built in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, or vessels which shall have been captured from an enemy by his Britannic Majesty's ships of war, or by subjects of his said Majesty furnished with letters of marque by the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, and regularly condemned in one of his said Majesty's prize courts as a lawful prize, or which shall have been condemned in any competent court for the breach of the laws made for the prevention of the slave trade, and owned, navigated, and registered according to the laws of Great Britain, shall be considered as British vessels; and that all vessels built in the territories of Mexico, or captured from the enemy by the ships of Mexico, and condemned under similar circumstances, and which shall be owned by any citizen or citizens thereof, and whereof the master and 3-4ths of the mariners are citizens of Mexico, excepting where the laws provide for any extreme cases, shall be considered as Mexican vessels.

And it is further agreed, that every vessel, qualified to trade as above described, under the provisions of this treaty, shall be furnished with a register, passport, or sea letter, under the signature of the proper person authorised to grant the same, according to the laws of the respective countries (the form of which shall be communicated), certifying the name, occupation, and residence of the owner or owners, in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, or in the territories of Mexico, as the case may be; and that he, or they, is, or are, the sole owner or owners, in the proportion to be specified; together with the name, burden, and description of the vessel as to built and measurement, and the several particulars constituting the national character of the vessel, as the case may be.

8. All merchants, commanders of ships, and others, the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, shall have full liberty, in all the territories of Mexico, to manage their own affairs themselves, or to commit

* See additional articles at the end of this treaty.

them to the management of whomsoever they please, as broker, factor, agent, or interpreter; nor shall they be obliged to employ any other person for those purposes than those employed by Mexicans, nor to pay them any other salary or remuneration than such as is paid, in like cases, by Mexican citizens; and absolute freedom shall be allowed, in all cases, to the buyer and seller, to bargain and fix the price of any goods, imported into or exported from Mexico, as they shall see good, observing the laws and established customs of the country. The same privileges shall be enjoyed in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, by the citizens of Mexico, under the same conditions.

The citizens and subjects of the contracting parties, in the territories of each other, shall receive and enjoy full and perfect protection for their persons and property, and shall have free and open access to the courts of justice in the said countries, respectively, for the prosecution and defence of their just rights; and they shall be at liberty to employ, in all causes, the advocates, attorneys, or agents of whatever description, whom they may think proper; and they shall enjoy, in this respect, the same rights and privileges therein as native citizens.

9. In whatever relates to the succession to personal estates, by will or otherwise, and the disposal of personal property of every sort and denomination, by sale, donation, exchange, or testament, or in any other manner whatsoever, as also the administration of justice, the subjects and citizens of the two contracting parties shall enjoy, in their respective dominions and territories, the same privileges, liberties, and rights, as native subjects; and shall not be charged, in any of these respects, with any higher imposts or duties than those which are paid, or may be paid, by the native subjects or citizens of the power in whose dominions or territories they may be resident.

10. In all that relates to the police of the ports, the lading and unlading of ships, the safety of merchandize, goods, and effects, the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, and the citizens of Mexico, respectively, shall be subject to the local laws and regulations of the dominions and territories in which they may reside. They shall be exempted from all compulsory military service, whether by sea or land. No forced loans shall be levied upon them; nor shall their property be subject to any other charges, requisitions, or taxes, than such as are paid by the native subjects or citizens of the contracting parties in their respective dominions.

11. It shall be free for each of the two contracting parties to appoint consuls for the protection of trade, to reside in the dominions and territories of the other party; but, before any consul shall act as such, he shall, in the usual form, be approved and admitted by the government to which he is sent; but either of the contracting parties may except from the residence of consuls such particular places as either of them may judge fit to be excepted. The Mexican diplomatic agents and consuls shall enjoy, in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, whatever privileges, exceptions, and immunities are or shall be granted to agents of the same rank belonging to the most favoured nation; and, in like manner, the diplomatic agents and consuls of his Britannic Majesty in the Mexican territories shall enjoy, according to the strictest reciprocity, whatever privileges, exceptions, and immunities are or may be granted to the Mexican diplomatic agents and consuls in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty.

12. For the better security of commerce between the subjects of his Britannic Majesty and the citizens of the Mexican States, it is agreed that if, at any time, any interruption of friendly intercourse, or any rupture, should unfortunately take place between the two contracting parties, the merchants residing upon the coast shall be allowed six months, and those of the interior a whole year, to wind up their accounts, and dispose of their property; and a safe-conduct shall be given them to embark at the port which they shall themselves select. All those who are established in the respective dominions and territories of the two contracting parties, in the exercise of any trade or special employment, shall have the privilege of remaining and continuing such trade and employment therein, without any manner of interruption, in full enjoyment of their liberty and property, as long as they behave peaceably, and commit no offence against the laws: and their goods and effects, of whatever description they may be, shall not be liable to seizure or sequestration, or to any other charges or demands than those which may be made upon the like effects or property belonging to the native subjects or citizens of the respective dominions or territories in which such subjects or citizens may reside. In the same case, debts, between individuals, public funds, and the shares of companies, shall never be confiscated, sequestered, or detained.

13. The subjects of his Britannic Majesty, residing in the Mexican territories, shall enjoy, in their houses, persons, and properties, the protection of the government; and, continuing in possession of what they now enjoy, they shall not be disturbed, molested, or annoyed, in any manner, on account of their religion, provided they respect that of the nation in which they reside, as well as the constitution, laws, and customs of the country. They shall continue to enjoy, to the full, the privilege already granted to them of burying, in the places already assigned for that purpose, such subjects of his Britannic Majesty as may die within the Mexican territories; nor shall the funerals and sepulchres of the dead be disturbed in any way or upon any account. The citizens of Mexico shall enjoy, in all the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, the same protection, and shall be allowed the free exercise of their religion, in public or private, either within their own houses, or in the chapels and places of worship set apart for that purpose.

14. The subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall, on no account or pretext whatsoever, be disturbed or molested in the peaceable possession and exercise of whatever rights, privileges, and immunities they have at any time enjoyed within the limits described and laid down in a convention signed between his said Majesty and the King of Spain, on the 14th of July, 1786; whether such rights, privileges, and immunities shall be derived from the stipulations of the said convention, or from any other concession which may, at any time, have been made by the King of Spain, or his predecessors, to British subjects and settlers residing and following their lawful occupations within the limits aforesaid: the two contracting parties reserving, however, for some more fitting opportunity, the further arrangements on this article.

15. The government of Mexico engages to co-operate with his Britannic Majesty for the total abolition of the slave trade, and to prohibit all persons inhabiting within the territories of Mexico, in the most effectual manner, from taking any share in such trade.

16. The two contracting parties reserve to themselves the right of treating and agreeing hereafter, from time to time, upon such other articles as may appear to them to contribute still further to the improvement of their mutual intercourse, and the advancement of the general interests of their respective subjects and citizens; and such articles as may be so agreed upon, shall, when duly ratified, be regarded as forming a part of the present treaty, and shall have the same force as those now contained in it.

17. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within the space of six months, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto their respective seals.

Done at London, the 26th day of December, in the year of our Lord 1826.

WILLIAM HUSKISSON, SEBASTIAN CAMACHO.
JAMES J. MORIER.

Additional Articles.

1. Whereas in the present state of Mexican shipping, it would not be possible for Mexico to receive the full advantage of the reciprocity established by the articles 5, 6, 7, of the treaty signed this day, if that part of the 7th article which stipulates that, in order to be considered as a Mexican ship, a ship shall actually have been *built* in Mexico, should be strictly and literally observed, and immediately brought into operation; it is agreed that, for the space of ten years, to be reckoned from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this treaty, any ships *wheresoever built*, being *bonâ fide* the property of and wholly owned by one or more citizens of Mexico, and whereof the master and 3-4ths of the mariners, at least, are also natural born citizens of Mexico, or persons domiciliated in Mexico, by act of the government, as lawful subjects of Mexico, to be certified according to the laws of that country, shall be considered as Mexican ships; his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland reserving to himself the right, at the end of the said term of ten years, to claim the principle of reciprocal restriction stipulated for in the article 7, above referred to, if the interests of British navigation shall be found to be prejudiced by the present exception to that reciprocity, in favour of Mexican shipping.

2. It is further agreed that, for the like term of ten years, the stipulations contained in articles 5. and 6. of the present treaty shall be suspended; and in lieu thereof, it is hereby agreed that, until the expiration of the said term of ten years, British ships entering into the ports of Mexico, from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or any other of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, and all articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom, or of any of the said dominions, imported in such ships, shall pay no other or higher duties than are or may hereafter be payable, in the said ports, by the ships, and the like goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the most favoured nation; and, reciprocally, it is agreed, that Mexican ships entering into the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or any other of his Britannic Majesty's dominions, from any port of the States of Mexico, and all articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of the said States, imported in such ships, shall pay no other or higher duties than are or may hereafter be payable, in the said ports, by the ships, and the like goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the most favoured nation; and that no higher duties shall be paid, or bounties or drawbacks allowed, on the exportation of any article the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of either country, in the ships of the other, than upon the exportation of the like articles in the ships of any other foreign country

It being understood that, at the end of the said term of ten years, the stipulations of the said 5th and 6th articles shall, from thenceforward, be in full force between the two countries.

The present additional articles shall have the same force and validity as if they were inserted, word for word, in the treaty signed this day. They shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at the same time.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto their respective seals.

Done at London, the 26th day of December, in the year of our Lord 1826.

WILLIAM HUSKISSON. SEBASTIAN CAMACHO.
JAMES J. MORIER.

An order in council, dated September 3, 1827, orders, that vessels of the United States of Mexico, entering the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in ballast, or laden direct from any of the ports of Mexico, or departing from the ports of the said United Kingdom, together with the cargoes on board the same, such cargoes consisting of articles which may be legally imported or exported, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever than are or shall be levied on British vessels entering or departing from such ports, or on similar articles when imported into, or exported from, such ports in British vessels: and also such articles, when exported from the said ports in vessels of the United States of Mexico respectively, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances that are granted on similar articles when exported in British vessels.

N. B.—Treaties similar to the above have been negotiated with Colombia, Buenos Ayres, &c.

NETHERLANDS.

Treaty between His Britannic Majesty and the King of the Netherlands, respecting Territories and Commerce in the East Indies, signed at London, March 17, 1824.

Article 1. The high contracting parties engage to admit the subjects of each other to trade with their respective possessions in the Eastern Archipelago, and on the continent of India, and in Ceylon, upon the footing of the most favoured nation; their respective subjects conforming themselves to the local regulations of each settlement.

2. The subjects and vessels of one nation shall not pay, upon importation or exportation, at the ports of the other in the Eastern seas, any duty at a rate beyond the double of that at which the subjects and vessels of the nation to which the port belongs, are charged.

The duties paid on exports or imports at a British port, on the continent of India, or in Ceylon, on Dutch bottoms, shall be arranged so as, in no case, to be charged at more than double the amount of the duties paid by British subjects, and on British bottoms.

In regard to any article upon which no duty is imposed, when imported or exported by the subjects, or on the vessels, of the nation to which the port belongs, the duty charged upon the subjects or vessels of the other shall, in no case, exceed 6 per cent.

3. The high contracting parties engage, that no treaty hereafter made by either, with any native power in the Eastern seas, shall contain any article tending, either expressly, or by the imposition of unequal duties, to exclude the trade of the other party from the ports of such native power; and that if, in any treaty now existing on either part, any article to that effect has been admitted, such article shall be abrogated upon the conclusion of the present treaty.

It is understood that, before the conclusion of the present treaty, communication has been made by each of the contracting parties to the other, of all treaties or engagements subsisting between each of them, respectively, and any native powers in the Eastern seas; and that the like communication shall be made of all such treaties concluded by them, respectively, hereafter.

4. Their Britannic and Netherland Majesties engage to give strict orders, as well to their civil and military authorities, as to their ships of war, to respect the freedom of trade, established by articles 1, 2, and 3.; and, in no case, to impede a free communication of the natives in the Eastern Archipelago, with the ports of the two governments, respectively, or of the subjects of the two governments with the ports belonging to native powers.

5. Their Britannic and Netherland Majesties, in like manner, engage to concur effectually in repressing piracy in those seas; they will not grant either asylum or protection to vessels engaged in piracy, and they will, in no case, permit the ships or merchandise captured by such vessels, to be introduced, deposited, or sold, in any of their possessions.

4. It is agreed that orders shall be given by the two governments, to their officers and agents in the East, not to form any new settlement on any of the islands in the Eastern seas, without previous authority from their respective governments in Europe.

7. The Molucca Islands, and especially Amboyna, Banda, Ternate, and their immediate dependencies, are excepted from the operation of the 1st, 2d, 3d, and 4th articles, until the Netherland government shall think fit to abandon the monopoly of spices; but if the said government shall, at any time previous to such abandonment of the monopoly, allow the subjects of any power, other than an Asiatic native power, to carry on any commercial intercourse with the said islands, the subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall be admitted to such intercourse, upon a footing precisely similar.

8. His Netherland Majesty cedes to his Britannic Majesty all his establishment on the continent of India; and renounces all privileges and exemptions enjoyed or claimed in virtue of those establishments.

9. The factory of Fort Marlborough, and all the English possessions on the island of Sumatra, are hereby ceded to his Netherland Majesty; and his Britannic Majesty further engages that no British settlement shall be formed on that island, nor any treaty concluded by British authority, with any native prince, chief, or state therein.

10. The town and Fort of Malacca, and its dependencies, are hereby ceded to his Britannic Majesty; and his Netherland Majesty engages, for himself and his subjects, never to form any establishment on any part of the peninsula of Malacca, or to conclude any treaty with any native prince, chief, or state therein.

12. All the colonies, possessions, and establishments which are ceded by the preceding articles, shall be delivered up to the officers of the respective sovereigns on the 1st of March, 1825. The fortifications shall remain in the state in which they shall be at the period of the notification of this treaty in India; but no claim shall be made, on either side, for ordnance, or stores of any description, either left or removed by the ceding power, nor for any arrears of revenue, or any charge of administration whatever.

16. It is agreed that all accounts and reclamations, arising out of the restoration of Java, and other possessions, to the officers of his Netherland Majesty in the East Indies,—as well those which were the subject of a convention made at Java on the 24th of June, 1817, between the commissioners of the two nations, as all others,—shall be finally and completely closed and satisfied, on the payment of the sum of 100,000*l.*, sterling money, to be made in London on the part of the Netherlands, before the expiration of the year 1825.

17. The present treaty shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged at London, within 3 months from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and affixed thereunto the seal of their arms.

Done at London, the 17th day of March, in the year of our Lord 1824.

GEORGE CANNING. CHARLES WATKINS WILLIAMS WYNN. H. FAGEL. A. h FALCK.

PORTUGAL.

Treaty of Commerce between Great Britain and Portugal, signed at Lisbon, December 27, 1703.

Article 1. His Sacred Royal Majesty of Portugal promises, both in his own name and that of his successors, to admit, forever hereafter, into Portugal, the woollen cloths, and the rest of the woollen manufactures of the Britons, as was accustomed till they were prohibited by the laws; nevertheless, upon this condition:

2. That is to say, that her Sacred Royal Majesty of Great Britain shall, in her own name and that of her successors, be obliged forever hereafter to admit the wines of the growth of Portugal into Britain; so that at no time, whether there shall be peace or war between the kingdoms of Britain and France, anything more shall be demanded for these wines, by the name of custom or duty, or by whatsoever other title, directly or indirectly, whether they shall be imported into Great Britain in pipes or hogsheads, or other casks, than what shall be demanded from the like quantity or measure of French wine deducting or abating a third part of the custom or duty: but if at any time this deduction or abatement of custome, which is to be made as aforesaid, shall in any manner be attempted and prejudiced, it shall be just and lawful for his Sacred Royal Majesty of Portugal again to prohibit the woollen cloths, and the rest of the British woollen manufactures.

3. The most excellent lords the Plenipotentiaries promise, and take upon themselves, that their above named masters shall ratify this treaty, and that within the space of two months the ratifications shall be exchanged.

Given at Lisbon, the 27th of December, 1703.

JOHN METHUEN. MARCHIS ALEGRETENSIS.

Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between Great Britain and Portugal, signed at Rio de Janeiro, the 19th of February, 1810.

1. Peace established.

2. There shall be reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation between the respective subjects of the two high contracting parties, in all the territories and dominions of either. They may trade, travel, sojourn, or establish themselves, in all the ports, cities, towns, countries, provinces, or places whatsoever, belonging to each of the two high contracting parties, except in those from which all foreigners whatsoever are generally and positively excluded, the names of which places may be hereafter specified in a separate article of this treaty. Provided, however, that it be thoroughly understood that any place belonging to either of the two high contracting parties, which may hereafter be opened to the commerce of the subjects of any other country, shall thereby be considered as equally opened, and upon correspondent terms, to the subjects of the other high contracting party, in the same manner as if it had been expressly stipulated by the present treaty. And his Britannic Majesty, and his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, do hereby bind themselves not to grant any favour, privilege, or immunity in matters of commerce and navigation, to the subjects of any other state, which shall not be also at the same time respectively extended to the subjects of the high contracting parties, gratuitously, if the concession in favour of that other state should have been gratuitous, and on giving, *quam proximè*, the same compensation or equivalent, in case the concession should have been conditional.

3. The subjects of the two sovereigns respectively shall not pay, in the ports, harbours, roads, cities, towns, or places whatsoever, belonging to either of them, any greater duties, taxes, or impost (under whatsoeve. names they may be designated or included), than those that are paid by the subjects of the most favoured nation; and the subjects of each of the high contracting parties shall enjoy, within the dominions of the other, the same rights, privileges, or exemptions, in matters of commerce and navigation, that are granted, or may hereafter be granted, to the subjects of the most favoured nation.

4. His Britannic Majesty and his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal do agree, that there shall be a perfect reciprocity on the subject of the duties and imposts to be paid by the vessels of the high contracting parties, within the several ports and anchoring places belonging to each of them; to wit, that the vessels or the subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall not pay any higher duties or imposts

(under whatsoever name they be designated or implied,) within the dominions of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, than the vessels belonging to the subjects of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal shall be bound to pay within the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, and *vice versâ*. And this agreement shall particularly extend to the payment of the duties known by the name of *Port Charges, Tonnage*, and *Anchorage Duties*, which shall not, in any case, or under any pretext, be greater for British vessels within the dominions of Portugal, than for Portuguese vessels within the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, and *vice versâ*.

5. The two high contracting parties do also agree, that the same rates of bounties and drawbacks shall be established in their respective ports upon the exportation of goods, whether those goods be exported in British or Portuguese vessels; that is, that British vessels shall enjoy the same favour in this respect, within the dominions of Portugal, that may be shown to Portuguese vessels within the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, and *vice versâ*. The two high contracting parties do also agree, that goods coming respectively from the ports of either of them, shall pay the same duties, whether imported in British or Portuguese vessels; or otherwise, that an increase of duties may be imposed upon goods coming into the ports of the dominions of Portugal from those of his Britannic Majesty in British ships, equivalent, and in exact proportion, to any increase of duties that may hereafter be imposed upon goods coming into the ports of his Britannic Majesty from those of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, imported in Portuguese ships. And in order that this matter may be settled with due exactness, and that nothing may be left undetermined concerning it, it is agreed, that Tables shall be drawn up by each government, respectively, specifying the difference of duties to be paid on goods so imported; and the Tables (which shall be made applicable to all the ports within the respective dominions of each of the contracting parties) shall be adjudged to form part of this present treaty.

In order to avoid any differences or misunderstandings with respect to the regulations which may respectively constitute a British or Portuguese vessel, the high contracting parties agree in declaring, that all vessels built in the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, and owned, navigated, and registered according to the laws of Great Britain, shall be considered as British vessels; and that all vessels built in the countries belonging to Portugal, or ships taken by any of the vessels of war belonging to the Portuguese government, or any of the inhabitants of the dominions of Portugal, having commissions or letters of marque and reprisal from the government of Portugal, and condemned as lawful prize in any court of admiralty of the Portuguese government, and owned by the subjects of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, and whereof the master and 3-4ths of the mariners, at least, are subjects of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, shall be considered as Portuguese vessels.

6. The mutual commerce and navigation of the subjects of Great Britain and Portugal, respectively, in the ports and seas of Asia, are expressly permitted, to the same degree as they have heretofore been allowed by the two Crowns: and the commerce and navigation thus permitted, shall be placed on the footing of the commerce and navigation of the most favoured nation trading in the ports and seas of Asia; that is, that neither of the high contracting parties shall grant any favour or privilege in matters of commerce and navigation to the subjects of any other state trading within the ports and seas of Asia, which shall not be also granted, *quam proximè*, on the same terms, to the subjects of the other contracting party. His Britannic Majesty engages not to make any regulation which may be prejudicial or inconvenient to the commerce and navigation of the subjects of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal within the ports and seas of Asia, to the extent which is or may hereafter be permitted to the most favoured nation. And his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal does also engage not to make any regulations which may be prejudicial or inconvenient to the commerce and navigation of the subjects of his Britannic Majesty within the ports, seas, and dominions opened to them by virtue of the present treaty.

13. Packets shall be established for the purpose of furthering the public service of the two courts, and facilitating the commercial intercourse of their respective subjects. A convention shall be concluded forthwith on the basis of that which was signed at Rio de Janeiro, on the 14th day of September, 1808, in order to settle the terms upon which the Packets are to be established, which convention shall be ratified at the same time with the present treaty.

15. All goods and articles whatsoever of the produce, manufacture, industry, or invention of the dominions and subjects of his Britannic Majesty, shall be admitted into all the ports and dominions of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, as well in Europe as in America, Africa, and Asia, whether consigned to British or Portuguese subjects, on paying, generally and solely, duties to the amount of 15 per cent. according to the value which shall be set upon them by a tariff or table of valuations, called in the Portuguese language *pauta*, the principal basis of which shall be the sworn invoice cost of the aforesaid goods, merchandises, and articles, taking also into consideration (as far as may be just or practicable) the current prices thereof in the country into which they are imported. This tariff or valuation shall be determined and settled by an equal number of British and Portuguese merchants of known integrity and honour, with the assistance, on the part of the British merchants, of his Britannic Majesty's consul general, or consul; and on the part of the Portuguese merchants, with the assistance of the superintendant, or administrator general of the customs, or of their respective deputies. And the aforesaid tariff shall be made and promulgated in each of the ports belonging to his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, in which there are or may be custom-houses. And it shall be revised and altered if necessary, from time to time, either in the whole, or in part, whenever the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, resident within the dominions of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, shall make a requisition to that effect through the medium of his Britannic Majesty's consul general, or consul, or whenever the trading and commercial subjects of Portugal shall make the same requisition on their own part.

If any British goods should hereafter arrive in the ports of the Portuguese dominions, without having been specifically valued and rated in the new tariff or *pauta*, they shall be admitted on paying the same duties of 15 per cent. *ad valorem*, according to the invoices of the goods, which shall be duly presented and sworn to by the parties importing the same. And in case that any suspicion of fraud, or unfair practices, should arise, the invoices shall be examined, and the real value of the goods ascertained by a reference to an equal number of British and Portuguese merchants of known integrity and honour; and in case of a difference of opinion amongst them, followed by an equality of votes upon the subject, they shall then nominate another merchant, likewise of known integrity and honour, to whom the matter shall be ultimately referred, and whose decision thereon shall be final and without appeal. And in case the invoice should appear to have been fair and correct, the goods specified in it shall be admitted, on paying the duties above mentioned of 15 per cent.; and the expenses, if any, of the examination of the invoice, shall be defrayed by the party who called its fairness and correctness into question. But if the invoice should be found to be fraudulent and unfair, then the goods and merchandises shall be bought up by the officers of the customs on the account of the Portuguese government, according to the value specified in the invoice, with an addition of 10 per cent. to the sum so paid for them by the officers of the customs, the Portuguese government engaging for the payment of the goods so valued and purchased by the officers of the customs within the space of 15 days; and the expenses, if any, of the examination of the fraudulent invoice shall be paid by the party who presented it as just and fair.

17. Articles of military and naval stores brought into the ports of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, which the Portuguese government may be desirous of taking for its own use, shall be paid for without delay at the prices appointed by the proprietors, who shall not be compelled to sell such articles on any other terms.

If the Portuguese government shall take into its own care and custody any cargo, or part of a cargo, with a view to purchase, or otherwise, the Portuguese government shall be responsible for any damage or injury that the same may receive while in the care and custody of the officers of the Portuguese government.

18. His Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal is pleased to grant to the subjects of Great Britain the privilege of being *assignatos* for the duties to be paid in the Custom-houses of his Royal Highness's dominions, on the same terms, and on giving the same security, as are required from the subjects of Portugal.

On the other hand, the subjects of the Crown of Portugal shall receive, as far as it may be just or legal, the same favour in the custom-houses of Great Britain as is shown to the natural subjects of his Britannic Majesty.

19. His Britannic Majesty does promise and engage, that all goods and articles whatsoever, of the produce, manufacture, industry, or invention of the dominions or subjects of the Prince Regent of Portugal, shall be admitted into the ports and dominions of his Britannic Majesty, on paying generally and only the same duties that are paid upon similar articles by the subjects of the most favoured nation.

If any reduction of duties should take place exclusively in favour of British goods imported into the dominions of Portugal, an equivalent reduction shall take place on Portuguese goods and merchandises imported into his Britannic Majesty's dominions, and *vice versâ*; the articles upon which such equivalent reduction is to take place being settled by previous concert and agreement between the 2 high contracting parties.

It is understood, that any such reduction so granted by either party to the other, shall not be granted afterwards (except upon the same terms and for the same compensation) in favour of any other state or nation whatsoever. And this declaration is to be considered as reciprocal on the part of the 2 high contracting parties.

20. But as there are some articles of the growth and production of Brazil, which are excluded from the markets and home consumption of the British dominions, such as sugar, coffee, and other articles similar to the produce of the British colonies; his Britannic Majesty, willing to favour and protect (as much as possible) the commerce of the subjects of his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal, consents and permits that the said articles, as well as all others the growth and produce of Brazil, and all other parts of the Portuguese dominions, may be received and warehoused in all the ports of his dominions, which shall be by law appointed to be warehousing ports for those articles, for the purpose of re-exportation, under due regulation, exempted from the greater duties with which they would be charged were they destined for consumption within the British dominions, and liable only to the reduced duties and expenses on warehousing and re-exportation.

21. In like manner, notwithstanding the general privilege of admission thus granted in the 15th article of the present treaty by the Prince Regent of Portugal, in favour of all goods the produce and manufacture of the British dominions, his Royal Highness reserves to himself the right of imposing heavy, and even prohibitory duties on all articles known by the name of *British East Indian Goods* and *West Indian Produce*, such as sugar and coffee, which cannot be admitted for consumption in the Portuguese dominions, by reason of the same principle of colonial policy which prevents the free admission into the British dominions of corresponding articles of Brazilian produce.

But his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal consents that all the ports of his dominions, where there are or may be Custom-houses, shall be free ports for the reception and admission of all articles whatsoever, the produce and manufacture of the British dominions, not destined for the consumption of the place at which they may be received or admitted, but for re-exportation, either for other ports of the dominions of Portugal, or for those of other states. And the articles thus received and admitted (subject to due regulations) shall be exempted from the duties with which they would be charged, if destined for the consumption of the place at which they may be landed or warehoused, and liable only to the same expenses that may be paid by articles of Brazilian produce received and warehoused for re-exportation in the ports of his Britannic Majesty's dominions.

22. His Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal is pleased to declare the port of St. Catherine to be a *Free Port*, according to the terms mentioned in the preceding article of the present treaty.

23. His Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal is pleased to render Goa a *Free Port*, and to permit the free toleration of all religious sects whatever in that city and its dependencies.

24. All trade with the Portuguese possessions situated upon the eastern coast of the continent of Africa (in articles not included in the exclusive contracts possessed by the Crown of Portugal) which may have been formerly allowed to the subjects of Great Britain, is confirmed and secured to them now, and for ever, in the same manner as the trade which has hitherto been permitted to Portuguese subjects in the ports and seas of Asia is confirmed and secured to them by virtue of the 6th article of the present treaty.

25. His Britannic Majesty consents to waive the right of creating factories or incorporated bodies of British merchants, within the dominions of Portugal: provided, however, that this shall not deprive the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, residing within the dominions of Portugal, of the full enjoyment, as individuals engaged in commerce, of any of those rights and privileges which they did or might possess as members of incorporated commercial bodies; and also that the commerce and trade carried on by British subjects shall not be restricted, or otherwise affected, by any commercial company whatever, possessing exclusive privileges and favours within the dominions of Portugal. And his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal does also engage, that he will not permit that any other nation or state shall possess factories or incorporated bodies of merchants within his dominions, so long as British factories shall not be established therein.

26. The two high contracting parties agree, that they will forthwith proceed to the revision of all other former treaties subsisting between the 2 Crowns, for the purpose of ascertaining what stipulations contained in them are, in the present state of affairs, proper to be continued or renewed.

It is agreed that the stipulations contained in former treaties concerning the admission of the wines of Portugal on the one hand, and the woollen cloths of Great Britain on the other, shall at present remain unaltered. In the same manner it is agreed, that the privileges and immunities granted by either contracting party to the subjects of the other, whether by treaty, decree, or *alvara*, shall remain unaltered, except the power granted by former treaties, of carrying in the ships of either country goods of any description whatever, the property of the enemies of the other country, which power is now mutually and publicly renounced and abrogated.

27. The reciprocal liberty of commerce and navigation, declared by the present treaty, shall be considered to extend to all goods whatsoever, except those articles the property of the enemies of either power, or contraband of war.

28. Under the name of contraband or prohibited articles shall be comprehended not only arms, cannon, arquebusses, mortars, petards, bombs, grenades, saucisses, carcasses, carriages for cannon

musket-rests, bandoliers, gunpowder, match, saltpetre, ball, pikes, swords, head-pieces, helmets, cuirasses, halberts, javelins, holsters, belts, horses, and their harness, but generally all other articles that may have been specified as contraband in any former treaties concluded by Great Britain or by Portugal with other powers. But goods which have not been brought into the form of warlike instruments, or which cannot become such, shall not be reputed contraband, much less such as have been already wrought and made up for other purposes, all which shall be deemed not contraband, and may be freely carried by the subjects of both sovereigns, even to places belonging to an enemy, excepting only such places as are besieged, blockaded, or invested by sea or land.

29. In case any vessels of war, or merchantmen, should be wrecked on the coasts of either of the high contracting parties, all such parts of the vessels, or of the furniture or appurtenances thereof, as also of goods as shall be saved, or the produce thereof, shall be faithfully restored upon the same being claimed by the proprietors or their factors duly authorised, paying only the expenses incurred in the preservation thereof, according to the rate of salvage settled on both sides (saving at the same time the rights and customs of each nation, the abolition or modification of which shall, however, be treated upon in the cases where they shall be contrary to the stipulations of the present article); and the high contracting parties will mutually interpose their authority, that such of their subjects as shall take advantage of any such misfortune may be severely punished.

30. It is further agreed, that both his Britannic Majesty and his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal shall not only refuse to receive any pirates or sea-rovers whatsoever into any of their havens, ports, cities, or towns, or permit any of their subjects, citizens, or inhabitants, on either part, to receive or protect them in their ports, to harbour them in their houses, or to assist them in any manner whatsoever; but further, that they shall cause all such pirates and sea-rovers, and all persons who shall receive, conceal, or assist them, to be brought to condign punishment for a terror and example to others. And all their ships, with the goods or merchandises taken by them, and brought into the ports belonging to either of the high contracting parties, shall be seized, as far as they can be discovered, and shall be restored to the owners, or the factors duly authorised or deputed by them in writing, proper evidence being first given to prove the property, even in case such effects should have passed into other hands by sale, if it be ascertained that the buyers knew or might have known that they had been piratically taken.

31. If at any time there should arise any disagreement, breach of friendship, or rupture between the Crowns of the high contracting parties, which God forbid (which rupture shall not be deemed to exist until the recalling or sending home of their respective ambassadors and ministers), the subjects of each of the 2 parties residing in the dominions of the other, shall have the privilege of remaining and continuing their trade therein, without any manner of interruption, so long as they behave peaceably, and commit no offence against the laws and ordinances; and in case their conduct should render them suspected, and the respective governments should be obliged to order them to remove, the term of 12 months shall be allowed them for that purpose, in order that they might retire with their effects and property, whether intrusted to individuals or to the state.

At the same time it is to be understood that this favour is not to be extended to those who shall act in any manner contrary to the established laws.

32. The present treaty shall be unlimited in point of duration, that the obligations and conditions expressed or implied in it shall be perpetual and immutable; and they shall not be changed or affected in any manner in case his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of Portugal should again establish the seat of the Portuguese monarchy within the European dominions of that Crown.

33. But the 2 high contracting parties do reserve to themselves the right of jointly examining and revising the several articles of this treaty at the end of 15 years, counted in the first instance from the date of the exchange of the ratifications thereof*, and of then proposing, discussing, and making such amendments or additions, as the real interest of their respective subjects may seem to require. It being understood that any stipulation which at the period of revision of the treaty shall be objected to by either of the high contracting parties, shall be considered as suspended in its operation until the discussion concerning that stipulation shall be terminated, due notice being previously given to the other contracting party of the intended suspension of such stipulation, for the purpose of avoiding mutual inconvenience.

34. The several stipulations and conditions of the present treaty shall begin to have effect from the date of his Britannic Majesty's ratification thereof; and the mutual exchange of ratifications shall take place in the city of London, within the space of 4 months, or sooner if possible, to be computed from the day of the signature of the present treaty.

Done in the city of Rio de Janeiro, on the 19th day of February, in the year of our Lord 1810.

STRANGFORD. CONDE DE LINHARES.

Agreement between the British and Portuguese Commissioners, on Four Points connected with the Execution of the Treaty of 1810. *Signed at London,* 18*th of December,* 1812.

1. The official certificate of registry, signed by the proper officer of the British customs, shall be deemed sufficient to identify a British built ship; and on the production of such certificate she shall be admitted as such in any of the ports within the dominions of Portugal.

2. Upon the importation of any goods from the United Kingdom, into any of the ports in the dominions of Portugal, all such goods shall be accompanied by the original cockets, signed and sealed by the proper officers of the British customs at the port of shipping, and the cockets belonging to each ship shall be numbered progressively, the total number stated on the first and last cocket, by the proper officers of customs, at the final clearance of each vessel at the British port: and it is further agreed, that prior to the final clearance by the searchers at the shipping port, the cockets for each ship must be collected and fastened together, to which shall be annexed a paper, with the number of the cockets, sealed with the official seal, and signed by the searchers; the cockets, so collected, shall be produced, together with the manifest sworn to by the captain, to the Portuguese consul, who shall certify the same on the manifest; the cockets, thus secured together, and the manifest, so authenticated, to be returned to the searcher, in order to the final clearance of the ship.

3. It is agreed to place the Portuguese merchant on the same footing with the British, both with regard to the duties of scavage and package payable to the corporation of London, and the duties payable on shipping to the corporation of the Trinity House in London. To effect this, and at the same time to preserve the chartered rights of the corporation of London, and of the Trinity House, it will be necessary that those duties should, in the first instance, be paid as at present; and in all cases where it shall appear that the Portuguese merchants shall have paid more than the British, the difference to be returned without expense, in such manner as the British government shall direct.

4. The importer shall, on making the entry at the Portuguese Custom-house, sign a declaration of the value of his goods, to such amount as he shall deem proper; and in case the Portuguese examining officers should be of opinion that such valuation is insufficient, they shall be at liberty to take

* These ratifications were exchanged in London, on the 19th of June, 1810.

the goods, on paying the importer the amount, according to his declaration, with the addition of 10 per cent., and also returning the duty paid.

The amount to be paid on the goods being delivered to the Portuguese officer, which must be within 15 days from the first detention of the goods.

London, 18th of December, 1813.

R. Frewin. A. T. Sm. Payo.
Wm. Burn. A. I. Da Costa.

Prussia.

Convention of Commerce between His Britannic Majesty and the King of Prussia, signed at London, April 2, 1824.

Article 1. From and after the 1st day of May next, Prussian vessels entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and British vessels entering or departing from the ports of his Prussian Majesty's dominions, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever, than are or shall be levied on national vessels entering or departing from such ports respectively.

2. All articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of the dominions of either of the high contracting parties, which are or shall be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of the United Kingdom and of Prussia, respectively, in vessels of the one country, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be imported into and exported from those ports in vessels of the other.

3. All articles not of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Britannic Majesty, which can legally be imported from the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, into the ports of Prussia, in British ships, shall be subject only to the same duties as are payable upon the like articles if imported in Prussian ships; and the same reciprocity shall be observed in the ports of the United Kingdom, in respect to all articles not the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Prussian Majesty, which can legally be imported into the ports of the United Kingdom in Prussian ships.

4. All goods, which can legally be imported into the ports of either country, shall be admitted at the same rate of duty, whether imported in vessels of the other country, or in national vessels; and all goods which can be legally exported from the ports of either country, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, whether exported in vessels of the other country, or in national vessels.

5. No priority or preference shall be given, directly or indirectly, by the government of either country, or by any company, corporation, or agent, acting on its behalf, or under its authority, in the purchase of any article, the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country, imported into the other, on account of, or in reference to, the character of the vessel in which such article was imported; it being the true intent and meaning of the high contracting parties, that no distinction or difference whatever shall be made in this respect.

6. The present convention shall be in force for the term of 10 years from the date hereof; and further, until the end of 12 months after either of the high contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of its intention to terminate the same; each of the high contracting parties reserving to itself the right of giving such notice to the other, at the end of the said term of 10 years; and it is hereby agreed between them, that, at the expiration of 12 months after such notice shall have been received by either party from the other, this convention, and all the provisions thereof, shall altogether cease and determine.

7. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within 1 month from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at London, the second day of April, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and twenty-four. George Canning. W. Huskisson. Werther.

An order in council, dated May 25, 1824, directs that from May 1, 1824, Prussian vessels entering or departing from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, shall not be subject to any other or higher duties or charges whatever than are or shall be levied on British vessels entering or departing from such ports; that all articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any of the dominions of his Prussian Majesty, which are or shall be permitted to be imported into or exported from the ports of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in British vessels, shall, in like manner, be permitted to be imported into and exported from the said ports in Prussian vessels; that all articles not of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the dominions of his Prussian Majesty, which can legally be imported from Prussia into the ports of the United Kingdom in Prussian vessels, shall be subject only to the same duties as are payable upon the like articles if imported in British ships; that all goods which can legally be imported into the ports of the United Kingdom, shall be admitted at the same rate of duty, when imported in Prussian vessels, that is charged on similar articles imported in British vessels; and that all goods which can be legally exported from the ports of the United Kingdom, shall be entitled to the same bounties, drawbacks, and allowances, when exported in Prussian vessels, that are granted, paid, or allowed on similar articles when exported in British vessels.

A Treasury letter, dated October 13, 1824, directs, that with respect to pilotage and all other duties charged on vessels belonging to Prussia, Sweden, and Norway, Denmark, Hanover, and Hamburgh, which have entered, or which may enter, the ports of the United Kingdom, either from stress of weather or from any other causes, it was the intention of the Lords of the Committee of Privy Council for Trade, that such dues should not be higher than are charged upon British vessels, and that it is only in the case of goods imported into this kingdom, and not brought direct from the country to which the vessel belongs, that the equality of duty does not apply.

An order in council, dated May 3, 1823, states, that his Majesty is pleased to declare, that the ships of and belonging to the dominions of his Majesty the King of Prussia are entitled to the privileges granted by the law of navigation, and may import from the dominions of his Majesty the King of Prussia, into any of the British possessions abroad, goods the produce of such dominions, and may export goods from such British possessions abroad, to be carried to any foreign country whatever.

Russia.

Convention between His Britannic Majesty and the Emperor of Russia, signed at Petersburg, in February, 1825.

Article 1. It is agreed that the respective subjects of the high contracting parties shall not be troubled or molested, in any part of the ocean commonly called the Pacific Ocean, either in navigating the same, in fishing therein, or in landing at such parts of the coasts as shall not have been already occupied, in order to trade with the natives, under the restrictions and conditions specified in the following articles.

2. In order to prevent the right of navigating and fishing, exercised upon the ocean by the subjects of the high contracting parties, from becoming the pretext for an illicit commerce, it is agreed that the

subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall not land at any place where there may be a Russian establishment, without the permission of the governor or commandant; and, on the other hand, that Russian subjects shall not land, without permission, at any British establishment on the north-west coast.

3. The line of demarcation between the possessions of the high contracting parties, upon the coast of the continent, and the islands of America to the north-west, shall be drawn in the manner following:—

Commencing from the southernmost point of the island called Prince of Wales Island, which point lies in the parallel of 54 degrees 40 minutes north latitude, and between the 131st and 133d degree of west longitude (meridian of Greenwich) the said line shall ascend to the north along the channel, as far as the point of the continent where it strikes the 56th degree of north latitude; from this last mentioned point, the line of demarcation shall follow the summit of the mountains situated parallel to the coast, as far as the point of intersection of the 141st degree of west longitude (of the same meridian); and, finally, from the said point of intersection, the said meridian line of the 141st degree, in its prolongation as far as the Frozen Ocean, shall form the limit between the Russian and British possessions on the continent of America to the north-west.

4. With reference to the line of demarcation laid down in the preceding article, it is understood;

1st. That the island called Prince of Wales Island shall belong wholly to Russia.

2d. That wherever the summit of the mountains which extend in a direction parallel to the coast, from the 56th degree of north latitude to the point of intersection of the 141st degree of west longitude, shall prove to be at the distance of more than 10 marine leagues from the ocean, the limit between the British possessions and the line of coast which is to belong to Russia, as above mentioned, shall be formed by a line parallel to the windings of the coast, and which shall never exceed the distance of 10 marine leagues therefrom.

5. It is moreover agreed, that no establishment shall be formed by either of the 2 parties, within the limits assigned by the preceding 2 articles to the possessions of the other: consequently, British subjects shall not form any establishment either upon the coast, or upon the border of the continent comprised within the limits of the Russian possessions, as designated in the two preceding articles; and, in like manner, no establishment shall be formed by Russian subjects beyond the said limits.

6. It is understood, that the subjects of his Britannic Majesty, from whatever quarter they may arrive, whether from the ocean, or from the interior of the continent, shall for ever enjoy the right of navigating freely, and without any hindrance whatever, all the rivers and streams which, in their course towards the Pacific Ocean, may cross the line of demarcation upon the line of coast described in article 3, of the present convention.

7. It is also understood that, for the space of 10 years from the signature of the present convention, the vessels of the 2 powers, or those belonging to their respective subjects, shall mutually be at liberty to frequent, without any hindrance whatever, all the inland seas, the gulfs, havens, and creeks, on the coast mentioned in article 3, for the purposes of fishing and trading with the natives.

8. The port of Sitka, or Novo Archangelsk, shall be open to the commerce and vessels of British subjects for the space of 10 years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present convention. In the event of an extension of this term of 10 years being granted to any other power, the like extension shall be granted also to Great Britain.

9. The above-mentioned liberty of commerce shall not apply to the trade in spirituous liquors, in fire-arms or other arms, gunpowder, or other warlike stores; the high contracting parties reciprocally engaging not to permit the above-mentioned articles to be sold or delivered, in any manner whatever, to the natives of the country.

10. Every British or Russian vessel navigating the Pacific Ocean, which may be compelled, by storms or by accident, to take shelter in the ports of the parties, shall be at liberty to refit therein, to provide itself with all necessary stores, and to put to sea again, without paying any other than port and light-house dues, which shall be the same as those paid by national vessels. In case, however, the master of such vessel should be under the necessity of disposing of a part of his merchandise in order to defray his expenses, he shall conform himself to the regulations and tariffs of the place where he may have landed.

11. In case of complaint of an infraction of the articles of the present convention, the civil and military authorities of the high contracting parties, without previously acting or taking any forcible measure, shall make an exact and circumstantial report of the matter to their respective courts, who engage to settle the same, in a friendly manner, and according to the principles of justice.

12. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at London, within the space of 6 weeks, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed thereto the seals of their arms.

Done at St. Petersburgh, the 28th [16th] of February, 1825.

STRATFORD CANNING.
THE COUNT DE NESSELRODE.
PIERRE DE POLETICA.

THE TWO SICILIES.

Treaty of Commerce and Navigation between His Britannic Majesty and the King of the Two Sicilies, signed at London, September 26, 1816.

Article 1. His Britannic Majesty consents, that all the privileges and exemptions which his subjects, their commerce and shipping, have enjoyed, and do enjoy, in the dominions, ports, and domains of his Sicilian Majesty, in virtue of the treaty of peace and commerce concluded at Madrid on the 10th of May, (23d of May), 1667, between Great Britain and Spain; of the treaties of commerce between the same powers, signed at Utrecht, the 9th of December, 1713, and at Madrid, the 13th of December, 1715; and of the convention concluded at Utrecht, the 8th of March, 1712-1713, between Great Britain and the kingdom of Sicily, shall be *abolished*; and it is agreed upon in consequence, between their said Britannic and Sicilian Majesties, their heirs and successors, that the said privileges and exemptions, whether of persons, or of flags and shipping, are and shall continue for ever abolished.

2. His Sicilian Majesty engages not to continue, nor hereafter to grant, to the subjects of any other power whatever, the privileges and exemptions abolished by the present convention.

3. His Sicilian Majesty promises that the subjects of his Britannic Majesty shall not be subjected, within his dominions, to a more rigorous system of examination and search by the officers of customs, than that to which the subjects of his said Sicilian Majesty are liable.

4. His Majesty the King of the Two Sicilies promises that British commerce in general, and the British subjects who carry it on, shall be treated throughout his dominions upon the same footing as the most favoured nations, not only with respect to the persons and property of the said British subjects, but also with regard to every species of article in which they may traffic, and the taxes or other charges payable on the said articles, or on the shipping in which the importation shall be made.

5. With respect to the personal privileges to be enjoyed by the subjects of his Britannic Majesty in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, his Sicilian Majesty promises that they shall have a free and

unlimited right to travel, and to reside in the territories and dominions of his said Majesty, subject to the same precautions of police which are practised towards the most favoured nations. They shall be entitled to occupy dwellings and warehouses, and to dispose of their personal property of every kind and description, by sale, gift, exchange, or will, and in any other way whatever, without the smallest loss or hindrance being given them on that head. They shall not be obliged to pay, under any pretence whatever, other taxes or rates than those which are paid, or that hereafter may be paid, by the most favoured nations in the dominions of his said Sicilian Majesty. They shall be exempt from all military service, whether by land or sea; their dwellings, warehouses, and every thing belonging or appertaining thereto for objects of commerce or residence, shall be respected. They shall not be subjected to any vexatious search or visits. No arbitrary examination or inspection of their books, papers, or accounts, shall be made under the pretence of the supreme authority of the state, but these shall alone be executed by the legal sentence of the competent tribunals. His Sicilian Majesty engages in all these occasions to guarantee to the subjects of his Britannic Majesty who shall reside in his states and dominions, the preservation of their property and personal security, in the same manner as those are guaranteed to his subjects, and to all foreigners belonging to the most favoured and most highly privileged nations.

4. According to the tenor of the articles 1. and 2. of this treaty, his Sicilian Majesty engages not to declare null and void the privileges and exemptions which actually exist in favour of British commerce within his dominions, till the same day, and except by the same act, by which the privileges and exemptions, whatsoever they are, of all other nations, shall be declared null and void within the same.

7. His Sicilian Majesty promises, from the date when the general abolition of the privileges according to the articles 1, 2. and 6. shall take place, to make a reduction of 10 per cent. upon the amount of the duties payable according to the tariff in force the 1st of January, 1816, upon the total of the merchandise or production of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, her colonies, possessions, and dependencies, imported into the states of his said Sicilian Majesty, according to the tenor of article 4, of the present convention; it being understood that nothing in this article shall be construed to prevent the King of the Two Sicilies from granting, if he shall think proper, the same reduction of duty to other foreign nations.

8. The subjects of the Ionian Islands shall, in consequence of their being actually under the immediate protection of his Britannic Majesty, enjoy all the advantages which are granted to the commerce and to the subjects of Great Britain by the present treaty; it being well understood that, to prevent all abuses, and to prove its identity, every Ionian vessel shall be furnished with a patent, signed by the Lord High Commissioner or his representative.

9. The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications thereof exchanged in London, within the space of 6 months, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed it, and have thereunto affixed the seal of their arms.

Done at London, the 26th of September, 1816.

CASTLEREAGH. CASTELCICALA.

Separate and Additional Article.

In order to avoid all doubt respecting the reduction upon the duties in favour of British commerce, which his Sicilian Majesty has promised in the 7th article of the convention signed this day between his Britannic Majesty and his Sicilian Majesty, it is declared, by this present separate and additional article, that by the concession of 10 per cent. of diminution, it is understood that in case the amount of the duty should be 20 per cent. upon the value of the merchandise, the effect of the reduction of 10 per cent. is to reduce the duty from 20 to 18; and so for other cases in proportion. And that for the articles which are not taxed *ad valorem* in the tariff, the reduction of the duty shall be proportionate; that is to say, a deduction of a tenth part upon the amount of the sum payable shall be granted.

The present separate and additional article shall have the same force and validity as if it had been inserted word for word in the convention of this day—it shall be ratified, and the ratification thereof shall be exchanged at the same time.

In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed it, and have thereunto affixed the seal of their arms.

Done at London, the 26th of September, 1816.

CASTLEREAGH. CASTELCICALA.

TURKEY.

Capitulations and Articles of Peace between Great Britain and the Ottoman Empire, as agreed upon, augmented, and altered, at different Periods, and, finally, confirmed by the Treaty of Peace concluded at the Dardanelles, in 1809.

SULTAN MEHEMED,

MAY HE LIVE FOR EVER.

"Let every thing be observed in conformity to these capitulations, and contrary thereto let nothing be done."

1. The English nation and merchants, and all other merchants sailing under the English flag, with their vessels and merchandise of all descriptions, may pass safely by sea, and go and come into our dominions, without any the least prejudice or molestation being given to their persons, property, or effects, by any person whatsoever, but they shall be left in the undisturbed enjoyment of their privileges, and be at liberty to attend to their affairs.

2. If any of the English coming into our dominions by land be molested or detained, such persons shall be instantly released, without any further obstruction being given to them.

3. English vessels entering the ports and harbours of our dominions shall and may at all times safely and securely abide and remain therein, and at their free will and pleasure depart therefrom, without any opposition or hindrance from any one.

4. If it shall happen that any of their ships suffer by stress of weather, and not be provided with necessary stores and requisites, they shall be assisted by all who happen to be present, whether the crews of our Imperial ships, or others, both by sea and land.

5. Being come into the ports and harbours of our dominions, they shall and may be at liberty to purchase at their pleasure, with their own money, provisions and all other necessary articles, and to provide themselves with water, without interruption or hindrance from any one.

6. If any of their ships be wrecked upon any of the coasts of our dominions, all beys, cadis, governors, commandants, and others our servants, who may be near or present, shall give them all help, protection, and assistance, and restore to them whatsoever goods and effects may be driven ashore; and in the event of any plunder being committed, they shall make diligent search and inquiry to find out the property, which, when recovered, shall be wholly restored to them.

7. The merchants, interpreters, bankers, and others, of the said nation, shall and may, both by sea and land, come into our dominions, and there trade with the most perfect security; and in coming and going, neither they nor their attendants shall receive any the least obstruction, molestation, or injury, either in their persons or property, from the beys, cadis, sea captains, soldiers, and others our slaves.

17. Our ships and galleys, and all other vessels, which may fall in with any English ships in the seas of our dominions, shall not give them any molestation, nor detain them by demanding any thing, but shall show good and mutual friendship the one to the other, without occasioning them any prejudice.

19. If the corsairs or galliots of the Levant be found to have taken any English vessels, or robbed or plundered them of their goods and effects, also if any one shall have forcibly taken any thing from the English, all possible diligence and exertion shall be used and employed for the discovery of the property, and inflicting condign punishment on those who may have committed such depredations; and their ships, goods, and effects, shall be restored to them without delay or intrigue.

21. Duties shall not be demanded or taken of the English, or the merchants sailing under the flag of that nation, on any plastres and sequins they may import into our sacred dominions, or on those they may transport to any other place.

36. English merchants, and all others sailing under their flag, may, freely and unrestrictedly, trade and purchase all sorts of merchandise (prohibited commodities alone excepted), and convey them, either by land or sea, or by way of the river Tanais, to the countries of Muscovy or Russia, and bring back thence other merchandise into our sacred dominions, for the purposes of traffic, and also transport others to Persia and other conquered countries.

38. Should the ships bound for Constantinople be forced by contrary winds to put into Caffa, or any other place of those parts, and not be disposed to buy or sell any thing, no one shall presume forcibly to take out or seize any part of their merchandise, or give to the ships or crews any molestation, or obstruct the vessels that are bound to those ports.

40. On their ships arriving at any port, and landing their goods, they may, after having paid their duties, safely and securely depart, without experiencing any molestation.

41. English ships bound to Constantinople, Alexandria, Tripoli of Syria, Scanderoon, or other ports of our sacred dominions, shall in future be bound to pay duties, according to custom, on such goods only as they shall, of their own free will, land with a view to sale; and for such merchandise as they shall not discharge, no duty shall be demanded, neither shall the least molestation or hindrance be given to them.

44. English and other merchants navigating under their flag, who trade to Aleppo, shall pay such duties on the silks, brought and laden by them on board their ships, as are paid by the French and Venetians, and not one asper more.

55. The Imperial fleet, galleys, and other vessels, departing from our sacred dominions, and falling in with English ships at sea, shall in no wise molest or detain them, nor take from them any thing whatsoever. English ships shall no longer be liable to any further search, or exaction at sea under colour of search or examination.

70. English ships coming to the ports of Constantinople, Alexandria, Smyrna, Cyprus, and other ports of our sacred dominions, shall pay 300 aspers for anchorage duty, without an asper more being demanded of them.

72. No molestation shall be given to any of the aforesaid nation buying camlets, mohairs, or grogram yarn, at Angora, and Beghbazar, and desirous of exporting the same from thence, after having paid the duty of 3 per cent., by any demand of customs for the exportation thereof, neither shall one asper more be demanded of them.

75. That it being represented to us that English merchants have been accustomed hitherto to pay no custom or scale duty, either on the silks bought by them at Brussa and Constantinople, or on those which come from Persia and Georgia, and are purchased by them at Smyrna from the Armenians; if such custom or usage really exists, and the same be not prejudicial to the empire, such duty shall not be paid in future.

(*N. B.*—These capitulations may be found entire in *Hertslet's Treaties*; and in *Chitty's Commercial Law*, vol. ii. pp. 290—311. Appen.)

***Treaty between Great Britain and the Sublime Porte, concluded at the Dardanelles, the 5th of January*, 1809.**

1. From the moment of signing the present treaty, every act of hostility between England and Turkey shall *cease*.

5. In return for the indulgence and good treatment afforded by the Sublime Porte to English merchants, with respect to their goods and property, as well as in all matters tending to facilitate their commerce, England shall reciprocally extend every indulgence and friendly treatment to the flags, subjects, and merchants of the Sublime Porte, which may hereafter frequent the dominions of his Britannic Majesty for the purposes of commerce.

6. The last Custom-house tariff established at Constantinople, at the ancient rate of 3 per cent., and particularly the article relating to the interior commerce, shall continue to be observed, as they are at present regulated, and to which England promises to conform.

10. English patents of protection shall not be granted to dependants, or merchants who are subjects of the Sublime Porte, nor shall any passport be delivered to such persons, on the part of ambassadors or consuls, without permission previously obtained from the Sublime Porte.

Done near the Castles of the Dardanelles, the 5th of January, 1809, which corresponds with the year of the Hegira 1223, the 19th day of the Moon Zilkaade.

SEYD MEHEMMED EMIN VAHID EFFENDI.
ROBERT ADAIR.

UNITED STATES.

***Convention of Commerce between Great Britain and the United States of America, signed at London, the 3d of July*, 1815.**

Article 1. There shall be between all the territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe, and the territories of the United States, a reciprocal liberty of commerce. The inhabitants of the 2 countries respectively, shall have liberty freely and securely to come with their ships and cargoes to all such places, ports, and rivers in the territories aforesaid, to which other foreigners are permitted to come, to enter into the same, and to remain and reside in any part of the said territories respectively; and also to hire and occupy houses and warehouses for the purpose of their commerce; and generally the merchants and traders of each nation respectively shall enjoy the most complete protection and security for their commerce; but subject always to the laws and statutes of the 2 countries respectively.

2. No higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe, of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, and no higher or other duties shall be imposed on the importation into the United States, of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe, than are or shall be

payable on the like articles, being the growth, produce, or manufacture of any other foreign country; nor shall any higher or other duties or charges be imposed in either of the two countries on the exportation of any articles to his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe, or to the United States, respectively, than such as are payable on the exportation of the like articles to any other foreign country; nor shall any prohibition be imposed upon the exportation or importation of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, or of his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe, to or from the said territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe, or to or from the said United States, which shall not equally extend to all other nations.

No higher or other duties or charges shall be imposed in any of the ports of the United States on British vessels, than those payable in the same ports by vessels of the United States; nor in the ports of any of his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe on the vessels of the United States, than shall be payable in the same ports on British vessels.

The same duties shall be paid on the importation into the United States of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe, whether such importation shall be in the vessels of the United States, or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid on the importation into the ports of any of his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe, of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, whether such importation shall be in British vessels, or in vessels of the United States.

The same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties allowed, on the exportation of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe, to the United States, whether such exportation shall be in vessels of the United States, or in British vessels; and the same duties shall be paid, and the same bounties allowed, on the exportation of any articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, to his Britannic Majesty's territories in Europe, whether such exportation shall be in British vessels, or in vessels of the United States.

It is further agreed, that in all cases where drawbacks are or may be allowed upon the re-exportation of any goods, the growth, produce, or manufacture of either country respectively, the amount of the said drawbacks shall be the same, whether the said goods shall have been originally imported in a British or American vessel; but when such re-exportation shall take place from the United States in a British vessel, or from the territories of his Britannic Majesty in Europe in an American vessel, to any other foreign nation, the 2 contracting parties reserve to themselves, respectively, the right of regulating or diminishing, in such case, the amount of the said drawback.

The intercourse between the United States and his Britannic Majesty's possessions in the West Indies, and on the continent of North America, shall not be affected by any of the provisions of this article, but each party shall remain in the complete possession of its rights, with respect to such an intercourse.

2. His Britannic Majesty agrees that the vessels of the United States of America shall be admitted and hospitably received at the principal settlements of the British dominions in the East Indies, viz. *Calcutta*, *Madras*, *Bombay*, and *Prince of Wales' Island*, and that the citizens of the said United States may freely carry on trade between the said principal settlements and the said United States, in all articles of which the importation and exportation respectively, to and from the said territories, shall not be entirely prohibited; provided only, that it shall not be lawful for them, in any time of war between the British government and any state or power whatever, to export from the said territories, without the special permission of the British government, any military stores, or naval stores, or rice. The citizens of the United States shall pay for their vessels, when admitted, no higher or other duty or charge than shall be payable on the vessels of the most favoured European nations, and they shall pay no higher or other duties or charges on the importation or exportation of the cargoes of the said vessels, than shall be payable on the same articles when imported or exported in the vessels of the most favoured European nations.

But it is expressly agreed, that the vessels of the United States shall not carry any articles from the said principal settlements to any port or place, except to some port or place in the United States of America, where the same shall be unladen.

It is also understood, that the permission granted by this article is not to extend to allow the vessels of the United States to carry on any part of the coasting trade of the said British territories; but the vessels of the United States having, in the first instance, proceeded to one of the said principal settlements of the British dominions in the East Indies, and then going with their original cargoes, or any part thereof, from one of the said principal settlements to another, shall not be considered as carrying on the coasting trade. The vessels of the United States may also touch for refreshments, but not for commerce, in the course of their voyage to or from the British territories in India, or to or from the dominions of the Emperor of China, at the Cape of Good Hope, the island of St. Helena, or such other places as may be in the possession of Great Britain, in the African or Indian seas; it being well understood, that, in all that regards this article, the citizens of the United States shall be subject in all respects to the laws and regulations of the British government from time to time established.

4. It shall be free for each of the 2 contracting parties respectively to appoint consuls, for the protection of trade, to reside in the dominions and territories of the other party; but before any consul shall act as such, he shall in the usual form be approved and admitted by the government to which he is sent; and it is hereby declared, that in case of illegal and improper conduct towards the laws or government of the country to which he is sent, such consul may either be punished according to law, if the laws will reach the case, or be sent back, the offended government assigning to the other the reasons for the same.

It is hereby declared, that either of the contracting parties may except from the residence of consuls such particular places as such party shall judge fit to be so excepted.

5. This convention, when the same shall have been duly ratified by his Britannic Majesty and by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of their Senate, and the respective ratifications mutually exchanged, shall be binding and obligatory on his Majesty and on the said United States for 4 years from the date of its signature; and the ratifications shall be exchanged in 6 months from this time, or sooner if possible.

Done at London, the 3d of July, 1815.

FRED. J. ROBINSON. JOHN Q. ADAMS.
HENRY GOULBURN. H. CLAY.
WILLIAM ADAMS. ALBERT GALLATIN

This convention was subsequently prolonged by conventions for that purpose in 1818 and 1827.

(We have great pleasure in laying the following treaty before our readers It is founded, as all such treaties should be, on the fairest principles of reciprocity, and will, no doubt, be productive of much advantage to both parties. It evinces, taken in connection with the reduction of the duties in the tariff (see *post*), the growing influence of enlightened views as to the sound principles of commercial policy in the Austrian cabinet; an influence that

must necessarily, in the end, be productive of measures that will do more than any thing else to develop the hitherto almost latent, but vast resources of the Austrian empire. The clause as to the navigation of the Danube may have important political consequences, should Russia attempt to throw any obstacles in its way; though we are not certainly of the number of those who think that this is a matter of sufficient importance to British interests for us to involve ourselves in any very serious responsibilities with respect to it. Subjoined is a copy of the treaty.

"In the name of &c His Majesty the Emperor of Austria, King of Hungary and Bohemia, and Her Majesty the Queen of the U. K. of Great Britain and Ireland, animated with a desire to develop, extend, and strengthen the commercial relations between their dominions and possessions, and thereby to afford to their subjects who take a part in those commercial relations every facility and encouragement possible; and convinced that nothing could more conduce to the accomplishment of this desire than to continue the suppression of all inequalities in the tariff of duties which, previous to the conclusion of the convention signed in London on the 21st of December, 1829, were levied in the harbours of one state on the vessels of the other, have appointed plenipotentiaries to conclude a treaty to that effect—namely: &c.—

"Who, after the exchange of their full powers, agreed to, and signed, the following articles:—

"Art. 1. From the date of the ratification of the present treaty, the vessels of the two Powers, on entering and quitting the respective harbours of the two contracting Powers, shall pay no other duties than those to which are subjected or may hereafter be subjected the national vessels of each of the two Powers.

"2. All the productions of the dominions of His Majesty the Emperor of Austria, including those exported to the north by the river Elbe, and to the east by the Danube, and which may be imported into the harbours of Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom, as also all the productions of the soil and manufactures of the kingdom of Great Britain, which may be imported into the harbours of His Majesty the Emperor of Austria, shall enjoy the same privileges and immunities, and *vice versâ*.

"3. All the articles which are not the produce of the soil and manufactures of the dominions of the two contracting Powers, but shall be imported in a regular manner from the harbours of Austria into those of the United Kingdom of Great Britain, Ireland, Malta, Gibraltar, and other possessions of Her Britannic Majesty, shall be held to pay no other duties than those they would have to discharge if they were imported in English vessels. Her Britannic Majesty grants by the present treaty to the trade and navigation of Austria the advantages secured by the two acts of Parliament of the 28th of August, 1833, to the vessels and productions of the United Kingdom and of its possessions, and those enjoyed by the most favoured nations.

"4. All Austrian vessels proceeding from the harbours of the Danube, as far as Galacz, inclusive, as well as their cargoes, may sail direct for the ports of Great Britain, and of all other the possessions of Her Britannic Majesty, as if they came direct from the harbours of Austria; and, reciprocally, all English vessels, as well as their cargoes, shall be admitted into the Austrian harbours, and depart therefrom, with the same immunities as Austrian vessels.

"5. Whereas English vessels coming direct from other countries may enter Austrian harbours, agreeably to the tenour of the present treaty, without paying any other duties than those to which Austrian vessels are liable, the productions of the soil and industry of those parts of Asia and Africa which are within the Straits of Gibraltar, and which, after being carried in a right line into the ports of Austria, are thence sent in Austrian vessels to the ports of Great Britain, shall enjoy the same advantages as if they had been imported by English vessels into Austrian ports.

"6. All articles of commerce imported or exported into or from the ports of the contracting countries, under the flags of either, whether in British or Austrian bottoms, are to be subjected to the same duties and premiums.

"7. All goods in bond from either country are to be subjected to the same duties on re-exportation.

"8. The Governments of the two states undertake not to inquire into the origin of the products introduced into the ports of either.

"9. With regard to trade with the East Indies in Austrian bottoms, the same privileges are granted by England to Austria as to the most favoured nations, but under the same conditions and legal prescriptions.

"10. The treaty does not apply to coasting navigation and trade between the ports of the same state in vessels belonging to the other of the two contracting states, as far as regards the transport of passengers and goods, because this navigation and trade are reserved to natives of each country respectively.

"11. The vessels and subjects of the contracting Powers, in their trade and navigation, are to enjoy reciprocally all the rights and privileges of the most favoured nations in the ports of either—that is to say, Austria is to have in the United Kingdom and all British possessions the full advantage of the Navigation Act passed 28th of April, 1833, and of another act of the same date for regulating the trade of the foreign possessions of England, or of any future acts or Orders in Council to the same effect; and England is to have in Austrian ports all advantages insured by treaties to other Powers. The two Powers also bind themselves not to grant any favours and privileges of trade and navigation to the subjects of other Powers which shall not be at the same time granted to Austrian and British subjects reciprocally, either gratuitously or upon equivalent compensation, according to the nature of the privileges so granted to other Powers.

"12. The stipulations contained in the 7th article of the treaty concluded at Paris on the 5th of November, 1815, between the Courts of Austria, Great Britain, Prussia, and Russia, for the trade between the Austrian states and the Ionian Islands, continue in force.

"13. The present treaty, which replaces that of the 21st of December, 1829, between the Austrian and British Governments, is to remain in force until the 31st of December, 1848, and after that time for twelve months from the date when one of the contracting Powers shall signify to the other its intention of limiting the duration of the treaty. At the expiration of such twelve months after the reception of such notice, the treaty is to cease to be of effect.

"14. Done at Vienna, July 3, 1838.

"METTERNICH.
"FREDERICK JAMES LAMB."

We have great pleasure in directing the attention of our readers to the following treaty. They are aware, as we have elsewhere shown (art. CONSTANTINOPLE), that nothing can be more liberal than the policy of the Turkish government, as to importation. But the freedom of exportation is quite as necessary to the successful prosecution of commerce as that of importation. A country prohibited from selling, that is, from exporting, cannot, how much soever it may be disposed, import, or buy; and hitherto this has been in a great degree

the case with Turkey. The government has been in the habit of monopolising the trade in silk and opium; and the exportation of a great many important articles, as corn, copper, hemp, and flax, &c., has either been wholly prohibited, or sold or jobbed, by the divan or the pacha of the province to the highest bidder, or some favoured minion. The subjoined treaty expressly stipulates for the suppression of this wretched system. "The Sublime Porte" formally engaging "to abolish all monopolies of agricultural produce, or of any other articles whatsoever, as well as all permits from the local governors, either for the purchase of any article or for its removal from one place to another when purchased;" and all viziers, or other officers, who may act contrary to such stipulations are to be punished. If this condition be *bonâ fide* enforced, it will effect one of the most salutary reforms that it was possible to introduce. We confess, indeed, that we have little, or rather no hope, in the regeneration or real improvement of Turkey, and should be glad to see her territories occupied by any European power. But still the liberty freely to export will do something for the inhabitants; and, by opening new markets for their products, will in so far stimulate their industry, and promote civilisation. The benefits that may grow out of this treaty to Great Britain and other commercial nations are but trifling compared to those that will probably result from it to Turkey herself: and it is on this account, indeed, that it is especially deserving of eulogy. The treaty takes effect from the 1st of March, 1839.

Convention of Commerce and Navigation between Her Majesty and the Sultan of the Ottoman Empire, with two additional articles thereunto annexed.

Art. 1.—All rights, privileges, and immunities which have been conferred on the subjects or ships of Great Britain by the existing capitulations and treaties are confirmed now and for ever, except in as far as they may be specifically altered by the present convention: and it is, moreover, expressly stipulated that all rights, privileges, or immunities which the Sublime Porte now grants, or may hereafter grant, to the ships and subjects of any other foreign power, or which it may suffer the ships and subjects of any other foreign power to enjoy, shall be equally granted to, and exercised and enjoyed by, the subjects and ships of Great Britain.

Art. 2.—The subjects of her Britannic Majesty, or their agents, shall be permitted to purchase at all places in the Ottoman dominions (whether for the purposes of internal trade or exportation) all articles, without any exception whatsoever, the produce, growth, or manufacture of the said dominions; and the Sublime Porte formally engages to abolish all monopolies of agricultural produce, or of any other articles whatsoever, as well as all permits from the local governors, either for the purchase of any article or for its removal from one place to another when purchased; and any attempt to compel the subjects of Her Britannic Majesty to receive such permits from the local governors shall be considered as an infraction of treaties, and the Sublime Porte shall immediately punish with severity any viziers and other officers who shall have been guilty of such misconduct, and render full justice to British subjects for all injuries or losses which they may duly prove themselves to have suffered.

Art. 3.—If any article of Turkish produce, growth, or manufacture be purchased by the British merchant or his agent, for the purpose of selling the same for internal consumption in Turkey, the British merchant or his agent shall pay, at the purchase and sale of such articles, and in any manner of trade therein, the same duties that are paid, in similar circumstances, by the most favoured class of Turkish subjects engaged in the internal trade of Turkey, whether Mussulmans or Rayahs.

Art. 4.—If any article of Turkish produce, growth, or manufacture be purchased for exportation, the same shall be conveyed by the British merchant or his agent, free of any kind of charge or duty whatsoever, to a convenient place of shipment, on its entry into which it shall be liable to one fixed duty of 3 per cent. *ad valorem*, in lieu of all other interior duties.

Subsequently, on exportation, the duty of 3 per cent., as established and existing at present, shall be paid. But all articles bought in the shipping ports for exportation, and which have already paid the interior duty at entering into the same, will only pay the 3 per cent. export duty.

Art. 5.—The regulations under which firmans are issued to British merchant vessels for passing the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, shall be so framed as to occasion to such vessels the least possible delay.

Art. 6.—It is agreed by the Turkish government that the regulations established in the present convention shall be general throughout the Turkish empire, whether in Turkey in Europe, in Turkey in Asia, in Egypt, or other African possessions belonging to the Sublime Porte, and shall be applicable to all the subjects, whatever their description, of the Ottoman dominions; and the Turkish government also agrees not to object to other foreign powers settling their trade upon the basis of this present convention.

Art. 7.—It having been the custom of Great Britain and the Sublime Porte, with a view to prevent all difficulties and delay in estimating the value of articles imported into the Turkish dominions, or exported therefrom, by British subjects, to appoint, at intervals of fourteen years, a commission of men well acquainted with the traffic of both countries, who have fixed by a tariff the sum of money in the coin of the Grand Signior which should be paid as duty on each article; and the term of fourteen years, during which the last adjustment of the said tariff was to remain in force, having expired, the high contracting parties have agreed to name conjointly fresh commissioners to fix and determine the amount in money which is to be paid by British subjects, as the duty of 3 per cent. upon the value of all commodities imported and exported by them; and the said commissioners shall establish an equitable arrangement for estimating the interior duties which, by the present treaty, are established on Turkish goods to be exported, and shall also determine on the places of shipment where it may be most convenient that such duties should be levied.

The new tariff thus established to be in force for seven years after it has been fixed, at the end of which time it shall be in the power of either of the parties to demand a revision of that tariff; but if no such demand be made on either side within the six months after the end of the first seven years, then the tariff shall remain in force for seven years more, reckoned from the end of the preceding seven years; and so it shall be at the end of each successive period of seven years.

Art. 8.—The present convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Constantinople within the space of four months.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same, and have affixed their seals thereunto.

Done at Balta-Liman, near Constantinople, the 16th day of August, 1838.

PONSONBY.

(Signed in the Turkish Original)

MUSTAPHA REICHID, &c.

ADDITIONAL ARTICLES.

Certain difficulties having arisen between the ambassador of Her Britannic Majesty and the plenipotentiaries of the Sublime Porte, in fixing the new conditions which should regulate the commerce in British goods imported into the Turkish dominions, or passing through the same in transit, it is agreed between his Excellency the British ambassador and the plenipotentiaries of the Sublime Porte, that the present convention should receive their signatures, without the articles which have reference to the above-mentioned subjects forming part of the body of the said convention.

But at the same time it is also agreed—the following articles having been consented to by the Turkish government—that they shall be submitted to the approbation of Her Majesty's government, and, should they be approved and accepted by Her Majesty's government, they shall then form an integral part of the treaty now concluded.

The articles in question are the following:—

Art. 1.—All articles being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and its dependencies, and all merchandise, of whatsoever description, embarked in British vessels, and being the property of British subjects, or being brought overland, or by sea, from other countries by the same, shall be admitted, as heretofore, into all ports of the Ottoman dominions, without exception, on the payment of 3 per cent. duty, calculated upon the value of such articles.

And in lieu of all other and interior duties, whether levied on the purchaser or seller, to which these articles are at present subject, it is agreed that the importer, after receiving his goods, shall pay, if he sells them at the place of reception, or if he send them thence to be sold elsewhere in the interior of the Turkish empire, one fixed duty of 2 per cent.; after which such goods may be sold and resold in the interior, or exported without any further duty whatsoever being levied or demanded on them.

But all goods that have paid the 3 per cent. import duty at one port shall be sent to another free of any further duty, and it is only when sold there, or transmitted thence into the interior, that the second duty shall be paid.

It is always understood that Her Majesty's government do not pretend, either by this article or any other in the present treaty, to stipulate for more than the plain and fair construction of the terms employed; nor to preclude in any manner the Ottoman government from the exercise of its rights of internal administration, where the exercise of those rights does not evidently infringe upon the privileges accorded by ancient treaties, or the present treaty, to British merchandise or British subjects.

Art. 2.—All foreign goods brought into Turkey from other countries shall be freely purchased and traded in, in any manner, by the subjects of Her Britannic Majesty, or the agents of the same, at any place in the Ottoman dominions; and if such foreign goods have paid no other duty than the duty paid on importation, then the British subject or his agent shall be able to purchase such foreign goods on paying the extra duty of 2 per cent., which he will have to pay on the sale of his own imported goods, or on their transmission for sale into the interior; and after that such foreign goods shall be resold in the interior, or exported, without further duty; or, should such foreign goods have already paid the amount of the two duties (*i. e.* the import duty and the one fixed interior duty), then they shall be purchased by the British subject or his agent, and afterwards resold or exported, without being ever submitted to any further duty.

Art. 3.—No charge whatsoever shall be made upon British goods (such being the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United Kingdom or its dependencies, or the growth, produce, or manufacture of any foreign country, and charged in British vessels, and belonging to British subjects) passing through the straits of the Dardanelles, of the Bosphorus, and of the Black Sea, whether such goods shall pass through those straits in the ships that brought them, or are transshipped in those straits, or, destined to be sold elsewhere, are landed with a view to their being transferred to other vessels (and thus to proceed on their voyage) within a reasonable time.

All merchandise imported into Turkey for the purpose of being transmitted to other countries, or which, remaining in the hands of the importer, shall be transmitted by him for sale to other countries, shall only pay the duty of 3 per cent. paid on importation, and no other duty whatsoever.

Done at Balta-Liman, near Constantinople, the 16th day of August, 1838.

PONSONBY.

(Signed in the Turkish original)

MUSTAPHA REschid, &c.

Official Note delivered to Lord Ponsonby by his Excellency Nouree Effendi, on the 27th of August, 1838, relative to the 2d Article of the preceding Convention.

(*Translation.*)

It is stipulated by the 2d article of the Treaty of Commerce concluded between the Sublime Porte and the British government on the 25th Djémaziulevel, 1254 (August 16, 1838), that English merchants are at liberty to purchase all kinds of merchandise in the Ottoman empire.

But in order that the right of English merchants to sell within the Ottoman empire, or to export, the merchandise which they may purchase, may not be liable to misconception, the embassy of Her Britannic Majesty has desired that an explanation should be given on this point, either in the treaty itself, or in a special note.

The meaning of the passage of which an elucidation is requested is clear, from the relation which the subsequent points in the 2d article bear to each other. But we nevertheless repeat, that English merchants may, in virtue of the treaty, purchase within the Ottoman empire all kinds of merchandise; may, if they think proper, send the same abroad after having paid the duty thereon stipulated by the treaty, or may, if they think fit, resell the same within the Ottoman empire on conforming to the arrangements established by the said treaty with reference to internal commerce.

Such are the arrangements of the treaty; and we give this explanation to the ambassador, renewing to his Excellency the assurances of our sincere and perfect friendship.

The 7th Djémaziul-akir, 1254 (August 27, 1838).

[For the commercial treaties between the United States and other nations, the reader is referred to *Gordon's Digest of the Laws of the United States.* In all these treaties the government of the Union has acted on the most liberal principles. It has aimed to place its commerce with other countries, on the basis of an entire reciprocity, asking from others such privileges only as it was willing in its turn to grant to them; and it has uniformly endeavoured to observe as strict an impartiality, in reference to them, as was consistent with a proper regard for its own dignity.—*Am. Ed.*]

TREBISOND, anciently Trapezus, from its resemblance to a trapezium, a town of Asia Minor, on the south-east coast of the Black Sea, lat. 40° 1′ N., lon. 39° 44′ 52″ E. Population variously estimated at from 15,000 to 30,000. The town is built on the declivity of a hill rising gently from the sea. It is a place of great antiquity; and, from the you

1203 to the final subversion of the Eastern empire by Mohammed II., in the 15th century, was the seat of a dukedom, or, as it was sometimes called, an empire, comprising the country between the Phasis and the Halys. Its fortifications are still of considerable strength, at least for a Turkish city. The space included within the walls is of great extent; but it is principally filled with gardens and groves. The houses are mean in their outward appearance, and comfortless within.—(*Tournefort, Voyage du Levant*, tome ii. pp. 231—239.; *Leuir's Journey through Asia Minor*, &c. p. 338.)

Harbour.—Trebisond has two ports, one on the W. and one on the E. side of a small peninsula, or point of land, projecting a short way into the sea. That on the east is the best sheltered, and is the place of anchorage for the largest ships. It is, however, exposed to all but the southerly gales; but it does not appear, that, with ordinary precaution, any danger need be apprehended. The ground, from 1½ to ¾ of a mile E. from the point, is clean, and holds extremely well. Ships moor with open hawse to the N., and a good hawser and stream anchor on shore, as a stern-fast. At night, the wind always comes off the land. Captain Middleton says that the only bad weather is from the N. W.; but that, though the swell be considerable, it does not cause any heavy strain upon the cables.—(*Nautical Magazine*, vol. ii. p. 181.)—At Platana, near Trebisond, and quite as exposed, Turkish vessels have from time immemorial rode in safety the whole winter; a satisfactory proof that the dangers supposed to be incident to the roads along the coast are wholly visionary.—(*Ibid.* p. 244.)

Navigation of the Black Sea.—We are happy to have this opportunity to state that Captain Middleton, who has been repeatedly in the Black Sea, agrees entirely with Tournefort—(see *antè*, p. 251.)—as to the groundlessness of the notions that have got abroad of its navigation being peculiarly dangerous. He shows that the "thick weather," supposed to prevail in this sea, is "quite imaginary."—"There are fogs in it occasionally, but these *never last long*: and, like fogs every where else, are unaccompanied by much wind. Gales sometimes occur, but they rarely amount to storms, and their duration is short. Except on its northern coast, it has deep water all over. It may, in fact, be considered a sea almost without a hidden danger." The only difficulty attaching to its navigation consists, as formerly observed (*antè*, p. 251.), in making the Bosphorus. But this, also, has been much exaggerated; and any one able to keep out to sea, and properly navigated, quit it without encountering any considerable risk.—(For further particulars as to this interesting subject, the reader is referred to Captain Middleton's paper in the 2d volume of the *Nautical Magazine*,—a useful and excellent publication, well entitled to the public patronage.)

Trade.—In antiquity, and in more modern times, previously to the conquest of Constantinople by the Turks, and the exclusion of all foreign vessels from the Black Sea, Trebisond was the seat of an extensive trade. Any one, indeed, who casts his eye over the map of Asia, must be satisfied that this city is the natural emporium of all the countries to the S. E. of the Black Sea, from Kars on the east, round by Diarbeker to Amasia, on the west. Erzeroum, the principal city of Armenia, is only about 130 miles S. E. from Trebisond. Its merchants are distinguished by their superior attainments, and by their enterprise and activity. For a lengthened period, they have derived most part of their supplies of European commodities by way of Smyrna or Constantinople; nothing, however, but the impossibility of obtaining them at so convenient a port as Trebisond, could have made them resort to such distant markets as those now mentioned; and it may well excite surprise, considering the period during which the Black Sea has been open, that efforts were not sooner made to establish an intercourse with Armenia, Georgia, and the north-western parts of Persia, through this channel. We are glad, however, to have to state, that within these few years this has been done; and notwithstanding the difficulties that necessarily attach to every attempt to open new channels of commerce with semi-civilized nations, the experiment has proved more than ordinarily successful.

The policy of Russia has recently, also, given to Trebisond an importance it did not formerly possess. Previously to 1831, foreign commodities were admitted at the low duty of 5 per cent. into the Russian port of Redoutkalé, and others on the coast of Mingrelia, whence they were distributed over Georgia, and as far as Persia. But a ukase, issued at the epoch referred to, put an end to all the immunities with respect to duties enjoyed by the Russian provinces to the south of Mount Caucasus, and extended to them the same customs' regulations that obtain in the other parts of the empire. Considerable deductions are, it is true, made from the duties charged on certain articles imported into these provinces, provided they be carried in the first instance to Odessa, and there reshipped for Mingrelia; but those that go direct to the latter are subject to the same duties and conditions as if they went to Petersburg or Riga. Printed cottons, and some other important articles, are in all cases prohibited.

The opening of a port on the S. E. extremity of the Black Sea, to which goods might be sent direct from Europe, and be thence conveyed to Armenia, Persia, &c., has, under these circumstances, become an object of a good deal of interest to the commercial world. There can be no doubt, indeed, did any thing like order or regular government prevail in the Turkish provinces of Asia Minor, Armenia, &c., that Trebisond would speedily become a considerable emporium. At present, however, and for a long time back, these beautiful provinces, in common with most other parts of the Turkish empire, have been in a state of extreme disorder; and, owing to the imbecility and ignorance of the government, there seems but little prospect of improvement so long as it is suffered to exist.

The principal articles of import are manufactured cottons, mostly from Great Britain, sugar, coffee, iron, salt, tin, wine, &c. Cottons are sold at long credits; sugar, coffee, &c. are sold at shorter credits, and are more regularly paid. The exports consist of silk, sheep's wool, tobacco, shawls, and carpets, galls, and drugs of various sorts, box wood, nuts, &c. There are very rich copper mines in the mountains to the south of Trebisond; but they are but little wrought; and the Turks are so blind to their own interests, as to prohibit the exportation of copper, as well as of corn, and wax. It is difficult, therefore, to obtain return cargoes. More than half the articles imported, are destined for Persia. In 1828, no fewer than 9,189 packages passed through Trebisond for Tabreez; and it is believed, that of these, fully 8,000 consisted of British manufactures.

Money, Weights, and Measures, same as at Constantinople; which see.

Arrivals.—In 1832, there arrived at Trebisond, 6 ships under the British flag, of the burden of 718 tons.—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 756. Sess. 1833.)—During the same year, there arrived 19 foreign vessels, of the burden of 4,438 tons; of these, 10 were Austrian; 5 Sardinian; and 4 Russian. The total imports may, perhaps, be valued at about 300,000*l.* The exports are comparatively trifling.

(*Transit Trade with Persia.*—We noticed, under the article TREBISOND, in the *Dictionary*, the importance that the trade with this place was likely to attain from its becoming a channel through which to carry on trade with Persia. Previously to the 1st of January, 1832, the trade between Europe and Persia, by way of the Black Sea, principally centered in the Russian port of Redout Kalé, at the mouth of the Phasis. This was a consequence of the exemption granted in 1822 to the Russian provinces to the south of the Caucasus from the duties charged in the other parts of the empire. But the exemption having ceased

at the period referred to, and the Trans-Caucasian provinces having been subjected to the same duties as the other provinces, the transit trade to Persia by way of Redout Kalé, Teflis, and the Caspian Sea, has almost entirely ceased, and it is now carried on through Trebisond, Erzeroum, and Tabreez. In consequence, the increase of trade at Trebisond has been very remarkable. In 1830, about 5,000 packages, valued at 250,000*l.*, were imported and forwarded for Persia; in 1834 about 12,000 packages, valued at 600,000*l.*, were so received and forwarded; and in 1835 the number of packages had increased to 19,327, valued at 966,350*l.*! We subjoin a

Statement of the Number and Tonnage of Vessels, with the Value of their Cargoes, and distinguishing the Countries to which the same belonged, which entered and cleared at the Port of Trebisond in the Year 1835.)—(*Consular Return.*)

Countries.	Entered.			Cleared.		
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value of Cargoes.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value of Cargoes.
			L.			*L.*
British	15	1,919	185,260	17	1,851	30,197
Turkish	115	15,944	618,296	122	16,212	602,154
Russian	18	2,631	157,482	14	2,276	34,084
Austrian	11	1,799	94,618	11	1,329	2,315
Greek	6	913	3,141	6	913	1,723
Sardinian	3	381	4,164	3	381	19,777
Samian	1	113	16,560	1	112	
Total	179	23,444	1,080,522	148	24,073	690,250

Most of the vessels from Constantinople had on board British produce; and it is believed that from 7-10ths to 9-10ths of the goods imported to be forwarded to Persia are of British origin, consisting principally of cotton goods, woollen, hardware, tin, sugar, &c. Previously to 1831 no British iron had ever been seen at Trebisond; but it was then introduced, and is now imported, to the exclusion of all other sorts. M. de Hagemeister admits that it has entirely superseded the iron of Russia in this and other markets on the southern side of the Black Sea.—(*Report on the Commerce of the Black Sea*, p. 207.)*

In Persia, as in almost all Eastern countries, foreign products are admitted, on paying a low duty. Latterly, however, the schah has evinced a disposition to restrict the importation of English goods, or to load them with heavier duties. This conduct, so unusual in an Eastern prince, may, it is probable, have been suggested by the foreign agents at his court.

Direct Trade with Trebisond.—The transit trade of Trebisond is by far the most important; but, as the goods destined for Persia by this channel are cleared out for Turkey, they appear in the list of exports to it, and, consequently, make our trade with Turkey appear much greater than it really amounts to.

The trade with Trebisond itself is, however, far from inconsiderable, and might be indefinitely extended. The iron of Great Britain is now, as stated above, imported to the exclusion of that of Russia, which was formerly the only sort made use of. Considerable quantities of cotton yarn are also supplied through Trebisond to the looms in the eastern part of Asia Minor that used to be wholly supplied with native yarn, and a taste for British cottons is beginning to spread among the population.

We carry away from Trebisond Persian silk, wool, tobacco, wax, opium, boxwood, nuts, &c. But, owing to the restrictions on exportation, the trade has hitherto laboured under many difficulties; and numbers of ships have sailed in ballast for Odessa, Galacz, and other ports where they load.

A Statement of the Number and Tonnage of British Vessels, with the Nature and Value of their Cargoes, which entered and cleared at the Port of Trebisond, distinguishing the Ports to and from which they came sailed in the Year 1835.

Ports.	Entered.					Cleared.				
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Val. of Cargoes. For Entry at Trebisond.	Val. of Cargoes. In Transit to Persia.	Nature of Cargoes. For Entry at Trebisond.	Nature of Cargoes. In Transit to Persia.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Val. of Cargoes. In direct Trade.	Val. of Cargoes. In Transit to England.	Nature of Cargoes. In direct Trade.	Nature of Cargoes. In Transit to England.
			L.	*L.*					*L.*	*L.*		
London	3	430	6,238	26,260	Colonial prod., iron, cottons, woollens.	Cottons and Woollens.						
Constantinople.	12*	1,173	15,325	67,991	Iron, sugar, hemp, beer, colonial prod., British manufactures.	British do.	12*	1,173	26,197	• •	Boxwood, nuts, linseed, galls, tobacco, wax, silk, copper, beans, wool, &c. 1 in ballast.	
London and Constantinople.	1	113	7,363	3,187	Colonial prod., British manufactures.	Do.	1	113	1,823	2,478	Galls, yellow berries, silk, carpets.	Boxwood, nuts, wax, safflower, silk, galls.
Liverpool & Constantinople.	1	169	3,186	15,600	Iron, sugar, spirits, British manufactures.	Do.						
Batoum	1	169	200	• •	Boxwood	• •	1	169	• •	• •	In ballast.	
Surmena	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	1	164	• •	• •	Ditto.	
Tagaurog	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	• •	2	312	300	• •	1 in ballast, part of imported cargo, salt, and oil.	
Totals	18	1,915	32,332	123,038			17	1,851	27,320	2,478		

* *Note.*—In these numbers are included 3 entries and 7 clearances of one vessel of 64 tons burden.

* We have elsewhere referred (art. Odessa) to this valuable publication. Though in the service of Russia, the author has not scrupled to point out errors in her policy: and has justly censured the extension of the tariff to the Trans-Caucasian provinces in 1833.—*Sup.*)

TRIESTE, a large city and sea-port of the Austrian dominions, the capital of a district of Illyria, situated near the N. E. extremity of the Gulf of Venice, lat. 45° 38′ 37″ N., lon. 13° 46′ 27″ E. Population 48,000. It is divided into the old and new towns. The former is built upon elevated ground; the latter, which is lower down, is laid out with greater regularity, and is partly intersected by a canal, into which vessels not drawing more than 9 or 10 feet water enter to load and unload.

Harbour.—The harbour of Trieste, though rather limited in size, is easy of access and convenient. It is protected from southerly gales by the *Molo Teresiano*, so called from the Empress Maria Theresa, at the extremity of which the new light-house, mentioned below, has been constructed. The port, with the mole, forms a crescent 1¼ mile in length, being a continued quay, faced with hewn stones, with stairs and jetties for the convenience of embarkation. On the north side of the port is a dock or harbour, appropriated exclusively for vessels performing quarantine. It is walled round; and is furnished with docks, warehouses, and every sort of accommodation required for the use of passengers and goods. Ships under 300 tons burden lie close to the quays; those of greater size mooring a little further out. The principal defects of the port are, its limited size, and its being exposed to the N. W. winds, which sometimes blow with much violence, and throw in a heavy sea. The gales, however, are seldom of long continuance; and the holding ground being good, when the anchors are backed and proper precautions taken, no accidents occur. The tide at Trieste is scarcely perceptible; but the depth of water is influenced by the wind, being increased by a long continued sirocco or S. E. wind, and diminished by the prevalence of the E. N. E. wind, known by the name of *Bora*. The access to the port is not obstructed by any bar or shallow; and there is good anchorage in the roads, in from 6 to 8 and 10 fathoms water. A good sailing vessel may beat in by night or by day, except it blow hard from the N. E. or E. N. E., when she had better anchor in the Bay of Roses, or Pirano, where she will ride in perfect safety.

Pilots.—Ships bound for Trieste are under no obligation to take pilots; but those entering the port for the first time would do well to take one on making the coast of Istria. Boats are always hovering off Rovigno; they are not manned by regular pilots, but by fishermen, who, though unfit to be trusted with the management of the ship, know the bearings of the places and the depth of water. The fee usually paid them for pilotage is 20 dollars; in addition to which, they are supported at the ship's expense during the performance of quarantine.

Light-houses.—The light-house at the extremity of the Theresian mole is 106 feet (Eng.) high. The light is intermittent; and may be seen, supposing the eye of the observer to be elevated 12 feet above the level of the sea, about 12 nautical miles, or from Pirano on the side of Istria, and the shoals of Grado on the Italian coast. A light-house has also been erected on the point of Salvore, bearing from Trieste W. by S., distant about 18 miles. The lantern is elevated about 103 feet above the level of the sea. From this point Pirano Bay opens, where vessels may anchor in safety in all sorts of weather.

Trade.—Trieste has no command of internal navigation; but being the most convenient, or rather the only sea-port, not merely of the Illyrian provinces, but of the duchy of Austria, and the greater part of Hungary, she possesses an extensive commerce. This has been increased by the facilities afforded to all sorts of mercantile transactions by the privilege of *porto franco* conferred on the town, and a considerable extent of contiguous country. Under this franchise, all goods, with but very few exceptions, may be imported into and exported from the city free of all duties whatever. Foreign products, when taken for consumption into the interior, are subject to the duties mentioned under the head *Tariff*, in a subsequent part of this article.

Exports.—These are very various, consisting partly of the raw, and partly of the manufactured products of Austria Proper, Illyria, Dalmatia, Hungary, and Italy; with foreign articles imported and warehoused. Among the principal articles of raw produce may be specified, corn, chiefly wheat and maize, with rice, wine, oil, shumac, tobacco, wax, &c.; silk, silk rags and waste, hemp, wool, flax, linen rags, hides, furs, skins, &c.; the produce of the mines makes an important item, consisting of quicksilver, cinnabar, iron, lead, copper, brass, litharge, alum, vitriol, &c.; the forests of Carniola furnish timber, for ship building and other purposes, of excellent quality and in great abundance, with staves, cork wood, box, hoops, &c.; marble also ranks under this head. Of manufactured articles, the most important are, thrown silk, silk stuffs, printed cottons from Austria and Switzerland, coarse and fine linens, and all sorts of leather; under this head are also ranked soap, Venetian treacle, liqueurs, &c., with jewellery, tools and utensils of all sorts, glass ware and mirrors, Venetian beads, refined sugar, and a host of other articles. Of foreign articles imported and reshipped, the most important are sugar, coffee, and dye stuffs. Trieste is also a considerable *depôt* for all sorts of produce from the Black Sea, Turkey, and Egypt.

It is not possible to obtain any accurate account of the quantity and value of the exports; but Mr. Money, the British consul, who has carefully inquired into the subject, supposes that they may amount in all, exclusive of those shipped for Venice, Fiume, and other Austrian ports, to about 1,800,000*l.* a year, which he divides as follows:—

Raw Produce, viz.—Grain, rice, oil, honey, wax, shumac, tobacco, &c.	350,000
Silk, hemp, wool, rags, hides and skins	380,500
Metals, mineral and other products; as, quicksilver, iron, lead, copper, brass, zinc, litharge, argol, antimony, arsenic, alum, vitriol, potash, turpentine, marbles, &c.	230,000
Timber, plank, boards, &c.	180,000
Manufactures of silk, cotton, wool, linen, leather, &c.	235,000
Soap, candles, Venetian treacle, and medicines	80,000
Tools, machinery, arms, &c.	25,000
Household furniture, musical instruments, glass and glass wares, porcelain, &c.	20,000
Foreign Articles reshipped for exportation, exclusive of those for Lombardy and the Papal States	300,000
Total	£1,800,000

Mr. Money further supposes that these articles are distributed amongst the countries trading with Trieste, as follows:—

	£
To Turkey and the Levant	380,000
Egypt	300,000
Greece, the Ionian Islands, and Malta	130,000
the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies	350,000
Ports in France, Sardinia, and Tuscany	100,000
Spain, Portugal, and Barbary	120,000
Great Britain	220,000
Ports in the North of Germany	150,000
the United States of America	30,000
South America and the West Indies	20,000
Total exports	£1,800,000

Perhaps these estimates are a little below the mark. We have been assured by high mercantile authority, that the entire value of the exports from Trieste to foreign countries is not under 2,000,000*l.* a year.

Imports.—There is a great difference between the imports into and the exports from Trieste; the value of the former being certainly not less than 4,000,000*l.* sterling. The excess of imports is explained partly by the fact that large quantities of foreign goods imported into Trieste are subsequently transhipped by coasting vessels to Venice, Fiume, and other ports, partly by the residence of English and other foreigners at Vienna, and partly by there being an excess of exports as compared with imports from other parts of the empire. The great articles of import are sugar, cotton goods and raw cotton, oil, coffee, wheat, silks, indigo and other dye stuffs, valonia, &c. The following Table contains all the information that can be desired as to the import trade of Trieste in 1829, 1830, and 1831:—

Statement of the Quantity and Value, in British Money, Weights, and Measures, of the principal Articles imported into Trieste during each of the Three Years ending with 1831, specifying the Quantity and Value of those furnished by each Country.

Countries from which imported.	Articles.	1829.			1830.			1831.		
		English Weight or Measure.	Quantity.	Value Sterling.	English Weight or Measure.	Quantity.	Value Sterling.	English Weight or Measure.	Quantity.	Value Sterling.
Great Britain	Coffee	cwt.	20,980	£ 86,920	cwt.	26,280	£ 91,448	cwt.	12,280	£ 53,470
	Sugar	—	72,788	108,982	—	92,9 2	129,640	—	76,504	96,878
	Rum	gallons	28,800	4,320	gallons	31,266	3,390	gallons	41,200	5,100
	Spices	—	—	16,800	—	—	17,450	—	—	9,300
	Indigo	lbs.	65,000	24,170	lbs.	70,000	25,900	lbs.	52,300	13,500
	Drugs	—	—	16,125	—	—	18,451	—	—	17,916
	Iron	cwt.	12,000	6,000	cwt.	25,000	12,000	cwt.	12,000	9,500
	Tin	—	4,000	23,277	—	7,500	35,000	—	3,400	15,700
	Cotton goods	—	—	345,000	—	—	421,000	—	—	$10,000
	Woollen goods	—	—	8,100	—	—	13,500	—	—	11,540
	Hard wares	packages	120	6,000	packages	150	7,750	packages	110	5,500
	Earthenware	—	300	3,000	—	350	3,500	—	190	2,150
America, U. S.	Coffee	cwt.	26,721	72,000	cwt.	51,567	92,985	cwt.	25,080	59,950
	Sugar	—	148,576	219,988	—	126,364	259,220	—	153,008	198,748
	Cotton	—	26,000	80,500	—	32,750	90,900	—	29,460	100,100
	Rum	gallons	40,000	4,400	gallons	46,280	5,090	gallons	42,180	5,520
	Tea	lbs.	11,200	1,400	lbs.	700	88	lbs.	3,000	360
Brazil	Sugar	cwt.	143,520	225,412	cwt.	188,200	261,250	cwt.	161,220	220,120
	Coffee	—	44,280	80,510	—	78,280	143,142	—	36,280	92,400
	Hides	—	—	78,100	—	—	98,120	—	—	75,110
	Dyeing woods	cwt.	32,272	32,900	cwt.	24,084	14,770	cwt.	45,542	28,700
	Drugs	—	—	46,000	—	—	61,000	—	—	51,000
West Indies	Sugar	cwt.	71,123	126,000	cwt.	81,500	125,5 9	cwt.	66,204	90,500
	Coffee	—	18,200	28,400	—	21,300	44,280	—	10,000	24,390
	Pimento	—	1,762	5,770	cwt.	1,578	4,110	—	1,850	3,800
	Rum	gallons	3,950	350	gallons	4,000	700	gallons	6,100	1,100
Levant	Cotton	cwt.	28,700	93,227	cwt.	28,280	106,200	cwt.	54,310	150,3 0
	Currants	—	35,600	61,340	—	161,500	125,400	—	90,800	68,200
	Gums	—	7,484	23,720	—	6,918	29,012	—	6,448	28,420
	Furs	skins	80,000	9,000	skins	76,000	7,000	skins	108,000	10,500
	Galls	cwt.	5,400	14,000	cwt.	7,712	20,630	cwt.	7,538	18,230
	Valonia	—	90,000	40,000	—	300,000	44,000	—	120,000	60,000
	Wax	—	5,000	25,000	—	6,000	38,000	—	5,500	34,000
Black Sea	Wheat	quarters	54,015	94,514	quarters	108,178	167,190	quarters	113,100	198,900
Egypt	Cotton	cwt.	16,385	44,250	cwt.	17,910	53,400	cwt.	28,250	69,125
	Grain	quarters	50,000	70,412	quarters	65,000	72,000	quarters	49,000	64,000
	Pulse	—	70,000	80,000	—	48,000	60,000	—	30,000	36,000
	Seed	—	60,000	85,000	—	16,000	23,000	—	12,000	21,000
	Madder	cwt.	1,158	1,794	cwt.	6,088	12,110	cwt.	3,800	5,400
Sicily	Fruits	—	—	10,000	—	—	12,000	—	—	9,000
Naples	Oil	tuns	4,700	367,380	tuns	3,800	308,000	tuns	4,700	254,000
Malta	Cotton	cwt.	800	2,800	cwt.	950	2,850	cwt.	800	1,900
	Fruits	—	—	1,000	—	—	1,500	—	—	2,400
Italy	Hemp	cwt.	30,000	36,000	cwt.	34,000	42,000	cwt.	30,000	35,000
	Rice	—	46,000	36,800	—	51,000	41,000	—	54,000	42,000
	Silk, raw	—	4,000	18,000	—	5,000	35,000	—	2,000	40,000
Sweden	Codfish	—	47,000	24,000	—	60,000	40,000	—	20,000	12,000
France	Wines	—	uncertain	2,000	—	—	3,000	—	—	2,000
	Silks	—	—	100,000	—	—	120,000	—	—	100,000
Spain	Lead	cwt.	18,000	10,000	cwt.	14,000	8,200	cwt.	7,000	4,100
	Fruits	—	—	5,000	—	—	6,000	—	—	4,000
Portugal	Sugar	cwt.	25,000	37,000	cwt.	75,000	110,000	cwt.	60,000	9 ,000
	Coffee	—	15,000	29,000	—	18,000	35,000	—	12,000	25,400
	Cocoa	—	2,500	2,180	—	5,200	4,500	—	6,000	5,500
Sumatra	Pepper	—	6,000	9,500	—	—	—	—	10,800	16,000
Greece	Oil	tuns	1,600	60,800	tuns	2,500	76,000	tuns	1,100	35,000
	Wax	cwt.	2,500	17,500	cwt.	3,000	18,000	cwt.	2,500	16,0 0
	Figs	—	—	2,000	—	—	3,500	—	—	3 0 0
	Currants	cwt.	42,200	29,110	cwt.	18,500	12,000	cwt.	37,000	24,000

Money.—Mercantile accounts are usually kept at Trieste in what is commonly called *convention* money, from an agreement entered into with respect to it by some of the German princes, in 1763. The current coins that are legal tender are dollars, ½ dollars or florins, and zwanzigers, or pieces of 20 kreutzers. Ten dollars are coined out of the Cologne mare (3,606 gr. Eng.) of pure silver, so that the value of the dollar is 4*s.* 3*d.* sterling.

The florin, or ½ dollar = 2*s.* 1½*d.* sterling; zwanzigers, or pieces of 20 kreutzers (60 to the marc), = 8½*d.* sterling. Hence it follows that 1*s.* sterling = 28½ kreutzers (60 to a florin); and the pound sterling = 9 fl. 24½ kr., or, as it is commonly taken, 9 fl. 25 kr. All contracts are either expressly declared, or are understood, to be in silver money; gold coins, not being legal tender, pass only as merchandise.

Weights and Measures.—Those chiefly in use at Trieste are those of Vienna and Venice. The commercial pound contains 4 quarters, 16 ounces, or 32 loths: it is = 8,639 English grains. Thus, 100 lbs. at Trieste = 123·6 lbs. avoirdupois; or 90½ lbs. of Trieste = 112 lbs. avoirdupois.

The principal dry measure is the stajo or staro = 2·34 Winch. bushels. The Vienna metzen, which is sometimes used, = 1·723 Winch. bushel. The polonick = 0.661 Winch. bushel.

The principal liquid measure is the orna or eimer = 40 boccali = 15 wine or 12½ Imperial gallons very nearly. The barile = 173½ English wine gallons.

The orna of oil contains 5½ cassi, and weighs about 107 commercial pounds. It is = 17 wine or 14·16 Imperial gallons.

The oil woollen measure = 26·6 English inches. The ell for silk = 25·2 English inches.

Tarif.—Trieste being a free port, goods destined for its consumption, and that of the adjoining territory, pay no duties whatever, and are exported and imported without notice by the customs. Goods brought from the interior for export at Trieste, are charged an export duty on passing the Custom-house line. Goods imported at Trieste, to be conveyed through the Austrian dominions to those of any other power, are charged a small transit duty. The principal foreign goods taken for consumption in the interior of the empire, pay the duties specified in the subjoined Table.

Statement of the Customs' Duties on the principal Articles imported from Trieste into the Interior of the Austrian Empire.

Articles.	Duty in Currency.	Amount in Sterling.	Articles.	Duty in Currency.	Amount in Sterling.
	Fl. kr.	*L. s. d.*		*Fl. kr.*	*L. s. d.*
Almonds, for every 100 lbs. weight of Vienna (equal to 123 1-2 lbs. avoir. dupois)	6 0	0 12 0	Oats, for every 160 lbs. wt. of Vienna	0 11	0 0 4·4
Anise, do.	1 15	0 3 6	Oil, olive, do.	4 0	0 8 0
Argol, do.	0 15	0 0 6	Pepper and pimento, do.	20 0	2 0 0
Barley, do.	0 15 1-2	0 0 5·4	Raisins and currants, do.	4 0	0 8 0
Bean, French, do.			Rice, do.	0 54	0 1 9·6
Bismut, for every lb. weight of Vienna	10 0	1 0 0	Rum, do.	13 21	1 6 9·4
Cassia, do.	0 12	0 0 5·2	Rye, do.	0 16	0 0 6·4
Cinnamon, do.	1 30	0 2 0	Sinumac, do.	0 9	0 0 3·6
Cocoa, do.	1 3	0 2 1·2	Soda, do.	0 11	0 0 4 1·2
Cod and herrings, for every 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	3 0	0 4 0	Spirits, do.	2 0	0 10 0
Corn, do.	21 0	2 2 0	Sugar, refined, crushed, and raw, for every 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	21 0	2 2 0
Coffee, do.	21 0	2 2 0	Sugar, raw, white, for the use of the refiners in the interior, do.	14 0	1 8 0
Cotton wool, do.	2 30	0 5 0	Sugar, other qualities for same use, do.	7 0	0 14 0
Figs, do.	1 12	0 3 4·8	Sulphur, do.	2 24	0 4 9·6
Frankincense, do.	7 30	0 15 0	Tea, do.	0 54	0 1 9·6
Galls, do.	0 45	0 1 6	Tin, do.	4 30	0 9 0
Gums, medicinal, do.	6 30	0 13 0	Twist, mule, to No. 30. inclusive, do.	31 0	3 2 0
others, do.	0 45	0 1 7·2	water, to No. 12. do.	60 0	6 0 0
Hare skins, do.	1 17	0 3 9·6	mule and water, above Gam numbers respectively, do.	20 0	2 0 0
Hemp, do.	0 18	0 0 4·8	Valonia, for every load of 110 lbs.		
Hides, for every hide	0 5 1-2	0 0 1·2	weight of Vienna	0 31-2	0 0 1·4
Indigo, for every 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	7 30	0 15 0	Wax, yellow, for every 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	5 0	0 10 0
Linseed, do.	0 18	0 0 7·2	Wax, white, do.	12 0	1 4 0
Liquorice, do.	4 0	0 8 0	Wheat, do.	0 22 1 2	0 0 9
Madder root, do.	0 90	0 0 9	Woods, dyeing, do.	0 12	0 0 4·8
Mace, do.	0 17	0 0 6·8	Wool, do.	0 30	0 1 0
Nahair, do.	1 12	0 3 4·8			
Nankeens, do.	0 40	0 1 4			

N. B.—It is observable, that in Austria almost all articles (except such as are rated *ad valorem*) are charged by weight, including even grain, and liquids, wine, oil, spirits, &c.

Tariff of the Customs Duties on the principal Articles brought from the Interior of the Austrian Empire to Trieste for Shipment.

Articles.	Duty in Currency.	Amount in Sterling.	Articles.	Duty in Currency.	Amount in Sterling.
	Fl. kr.	*L. s. d.*		*Fl. kr.*	*L. s. d.*
Alum, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	0 4 1·2	0 0 1·8	Musical instruments, for every florin value	0 0 1·4	0 0 0·1
Antimony, do.	0 2 1·2	0 0 1	Oats, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	0 0 1·2	0 0 0·2
Argol, do.	0 52 1 2	0 0 9	Oil, olive, do.	0 10	0 0 4
Arms of all sorts, for every florin value	0 0 1·4	0 0 0·1	Pitch and tar, do.	0 0 1·2	0 0 1·8
Arsnic, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	0 6 1·4	0 0 2·3	Potash, do.	0 18	0 0 7·2
Barley, do.	0 0 1·2	0 0 0·2	Quicksilver, do.	0 37 1·2	0 1 3
Bean, do.	0 19	0 0 7·6	Rags, linen, do.	1 0	0 3 0
Cinnabar, do.	0 43 3·4	0 1 5 1·2	Rice, do.	0 2 1·4	0 0 0·9
Clocks, watches, &c. for every florin value	0 0 1·4	0 0 0·1	Rye, do.	0 0 3·4	0 0 0·3
Copper, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	0 30	0 1 0	Sinumac, do.	0 1 1·2	0 0 0·6
Corkwood, do.	0 4 1·4	0 0 1·7	Silk, raw, do.	45 0	4 10 0
Cotton manufactures, for every lb. weight of Vienna	0 0 1·4	0 0 0·1	thrown, do.	22 30	2 5 0
Cutlery, for every florin value	0 0 1·4	0 0 0·1	stuffs, &c., for every lb. weight of Vienna	6 1 1·2	0 0 0·3·6
Flax, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	0 6	0 0 2·4	Skins, lamb and kid, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	3 37 1·2	0 7 3
Fruits, dried, do.	0 1 1·2	0 0 0·6	Staves, pipe, &c., for every florin value	0 0 1·4	0 0 0·1
Glass wares, do.	0 4	0 0 1·6	Sugar, refined, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	0 18 3·4	0 0 7 1·2
Do. crystal and mirrors, for every florin value	0 0 1·4	0 0 0·1	Timber, ship, for every florin value	0 2	0 0 1·2
Hemp, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	0 5	0 0 2	other sorts	0 0 1·4	0 0 0·2
Iron, unwrought, do.	0 1 3·4	0 0 0·7	Vitriol, for every 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	0 7	0 0 2·8
tools, &c., do.	0 5	0 0 2	Wax, do.	0 30	0 1 0
Lead, do.	0 2 3·4	0 0 1·1	Wheat, do.	0 1	0 0 0·4
Linen manufactures, table linen, &c., for every lb. Vienna	0 0 1·4	0 0 0·05	Wine, common, do.	0 2	0 0 0·8
Litharge, for 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	0 6 1·3	0 0 2·6	Woods, rose, olive, do.	0 6 1·4	0 0 2 1·2
Locks, do.	0 25	0 0 10	box, do.	0 33·4	0 0 1 1·3
Mace, do.	0 0 2·4	0 0 0·3	Wool, do.	1 0	0 3 0
Marble, do.	0 0 1·4	0 0 0·1			

N. B.—Trieste being without the line of customs, these duties on exportation are payable on goods entering the territory or liberties of the port, whether for consumption or for exportation by sea. The duties on raw and thrown silk are tantamount to a prohibition.

Gunpowder, salt, and tobacco, being articles monopolised by government, are not allowed to be imported into Trieste except for sale to the government or its contractors. Vessels arriving with gunpowder on board, deliver it at the arsenal, and on their clearing out it is returned to them free of expense. The utmost vigilance is exerted to prevent the introduction of tobacco; but with very little effect. The only articles, the exportation of which from the Austrian dominions is at present prohibited, are gold and silver in bars, and silk cocoons.

Smuggling.—In consequence of the prohibition of tobacco, and of the high duties imposed on refined sugar, coffee, &c., these articles are very extensively smuggled into the Austrian dominions. Most part, too, of the cotton goods sent from this country to Trieste and Venice, are sold to smugglers, by whom they are introduced into the interior with very little difficulty. It would be absurd, indeed, to suppose, seeing the extent to which smuggling is practised in England and France—(see *ante*, p. 516.), —that it should not be in a flourishing condition in Austria, whose frontier is so much more difficult to guard. It is, in fact, carried on to a very great extent; prohibited and overtaxed goods being introduced with the greatest regularity, either by defeating the vigilance of the officers, or, which is said to be the more common case, by making them parties to, and gainers by, the fraud. The transit o.

foreign goods through the Austrian states gives considerable facilities to the smuggler. But, independently of this, their introduction is so very easy, that nothing but the repeal of the existing prohibitions, and the effectual reduction of the duties, can give any considerable check to smuggling.

We would fain hope that the Austrian government is becoming sensible of this truth. Its commercial policy is, in many respects, far from illiberal; and the alterations recently made in the tariff have contributed to facilitate importation. The slightest reflection must, indeed, satisfy every one, that in such a country, restrictions on importation can be of no real advantage to the home producers; and that their only effect is to divert trade into illegitimate channels, to deprive the public treasury of the revenue it might derive from moderate duties, and to enrich those who despise and trample on the law at the expense of the sober and industrious citizen.

Considering the vast variety of valuable and desirable products furnished by Lombardy, Hungary, Austria proper, and the other Austrian States, it is not easy to estimate the extent to which their commerce might be carried, under a free system that should develope all the resources of the country. At present, however, there is, in Austria and most other parts of the Continent, a strong disposition to believe that our recommendations of a freer system of commercial policy are dictated solely by selfish, interested motives. They naturally attach greater weight to our practice than to our professions. So long, indeed, as our present corn laws and timber duties are suffered to pollute our statute book, so long shall we make but few practical converts to our doctrines. Such a modification of the former as would render our ports always open to the importation of corn under reasonable duties, combined with the equalization of the timber duties, and the reduction of the exorbitant duties on olive oil and cheese, would show that we are disposed to practise those liberal doctrines we so freely recommend to others: and would do more to extend our trade with Italy and Austria than any measure it is in our power to adopt.

Shipping.—Since the loss of Flanders, the mercantile navy of Austria has been confined wholly to the ports on the Adriatic. But it is, notwithstanding, very considerable; and engrosses at this moment a very large share of the trade of the Mediterranean and Black Sea. The oak timber of Carniola and the Dalmatian coast is reckoned about the very best in the world; so that the Austrian ships, being built of it, are very strong, at the same time that they are particularly handsome. They are also well manned and provided. The seamen are expert, temperate, and orderly; and Mr. Money says, that the laws for the regulation of the merchant service are excellent

By far the greater number of vessels of large burden belong to Trieste. The rest belong to Venice, Fiume, Ragusa, and the Bocche di Cattaro. On the other hand, the smaller vessels employed in the coasting trade, which is very considerable, are more equally divided; Venice having, probably, as many as Trieste, while a good number belong to the ports of Istria, Hungary, and Dalmatia.

The foreign trade of this port comprises all voyages beyond the limits of the Adriatic; and may be divided as follows:—

1. The Levant trade, including the Ionian Islands, Greece, Constantinople, Smyrna, Odessa, &c., the ports in Syria, Cyprus, Candia, and Egypt, more especially Alexandria.

2. The *ponente* or Mediterranean trade, in the west, comprising the coast of Barbary, Spain, France, and Italy; being principally carried on with Marseilles, Genoa, and Leghorn.

3. The commerce on the ocean, which the Austrian merchants have attempted with considerable success. Several ships sail for Brazil, the United States, England, Hamburgh, &c.

The number of Austrian vessels at present employed in foreign trade is believed to be about 780, of the burden of about 153,000 tons, manned by about 15,000 men and boys. In the coasting trade about 200 vessels are employed, averaging 40 tons each. The fishing trade is inconsiderable.

There has been no sensible increase or diminution in the tonnage for the last five years; but there is every probability of a gradual increase in future, proportioned to the anticipated improvement of trade in the Mediterranean, which has of late years been interrupted and depressed by political events.

The following Table shows the number of ships, and their tonnage, arriving at, and sailing from Trieste during each of the three years ending with 1831, specifying the number and tonnage of those under each flag.

Movement of Shipping at Trieste, during each of the Three Years ending with 1831.

Flags.	1829.				1830.				1831.			
	Arrived.		Sailed.		Arrived.		Sailed.		Arrived.		Sailed.	
	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships.	Tonnage.
American	46	16,673	46	16,123	47	11,623	48	12,100	38	9,567	37	9,275
Austrian	543	97,464	573	74,166	564	74,764	541	80,380	436	88,787	449	90,310
Bremen	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	160	-	-
British	129	32,776	128	32,715	120	32,743	120	28,743	129	33,337	129	32,337
Danish	14	3,105	14	2,300	18	3,974	14	2,443	13	2,160	10	2,073
Dutch	2	481	2	481	7	1,123	3	613	6	1,098	10	2,223
French	8	1,393	8	1,393	11	1,482	7	923	7	941	6	840
Greek	43	5,466	41	5,193	51	5,766	49	5,376	63	7,076	67	6,991
Hanoverian	3	1,570	5	920	4	974	4	820	4	470	5	770
Ionian	28	3,254	25	2,782	16	1,728	16	1,980	22	2,045	23	1,983
Portuguese	-	-	-	-	2	415	2	415	2	141	2	141
Roman	13	775	6	376	21	1,803	16	976	20	2,227	11	1,159
Ragusan	10	1,371	10	1,206	14	2,032	11	1,543	14	2,075	16	2,316
Sardinian	26	4,014	24	3,656	32	5,760	31	4,418	25	4,154	19	2,945
Sicilian	67	11,985	71	13,015	108	17,019	108	17,585	70	10,492	69	10,147
Spanish	6	411	7	540	11	982	10	813	12	996	12	996
Swedish	28	4,833	28	4,656	28	5,048	24	4,248	11	1,886	20	3,540
Turkish	1	60	1	60	4	88	3	64	2	66	3	66
Tuscan	3	617	3	425	6	615	5	767	6	648	6	669
Total	709	143,018	826	168,440	980	167,595	949	169,487	801	166,148	993	168,139

Customs' Regulations.—The custom-house at Trieste has nothing whatever to do with the entry, reporting, &c. of vessels. When a ship arrives, she is reported to the Health Office; which publishes a list of arrivals and departures, with a statement of their cargoes, as they appear in the manifests. Ships are cleared by the same office; the masters being assisted by the consuls of the country to which they belong. As soon as a vessel has performed quarantine, she loads or unloads without any interference or inspection by the customs' officers, or by any one else. Goods unsusceptible of contagion may be landed during quarantine.

Being a free port, the bonding and warehousing system is, of course, unknown at Trieste.

Port Charges.—These are paid at the office of the harbour master on clearing out. They are the same, whatever may be the ship's stay; and are, perhaps, the most moderate of any in Europe.

Port Charges paid by Austrian and Foreign Ships.

Austrian, and foreign privileged ships	Fl. kr.	*Foreign ships not privileged.*	Fl. kr.
Anchorage, per ton admeasurement	0 4	Anchorage, light-house, and cargo as above, per ton admeasurement, and per ton weight of goods	0 10
Light-house	0 3	New bassage duty, per ton admeasurement	0 16
Cargo duty per ton weight of goods	0 3	Abboraggio, payable by ships departing in ballast, or with less than half a cargo	0

N. B.—If grain, per 20 sacks.

Comparative Statement of the Port Charges paid at Trieste, respectively, by a Native and privileged Foreign Ship, and a Foreign Ship not privileged, each of 300 Tons Burden, with mixed Cargoes.

Native and privileged:	*Fl. kr.*
Anchorage and light, as above, 300 tons, at 7 kreutzers per ton admeasurement	35 0
Cargo duty, 300 tons, at 5 kreutzers	15 0
Total	50 0

or about 4l. 10s. sterling.

Foreign, not privileged:	*Fl. kr.*
Anchorage, light and cargo duty, as above	50 0
Tonnage duty, 300 tons, at 10 kreutzers	30 0
Total	180 0

or about 16l. 10s. sterling.

If the ship depart in ballast or with less than 1-3 a cargo, there is a further charge of 9 kreutzers per ton, or 45 florins; making in all, 178 florins.

Importations and Arrivals of 1833.—The following statement is interesting, as it exhibits the principal articles imported into Trieste from America, the West Indies, and Western Europe, in 1833, specifying the quantities furnished by each country, and the ships by which the same was imported. It shows that Austrian ships are pretty extensively employed in the Transatlantic trade.

Principal Importations and Arrivals during 1833.

Great Britain.—In 43 British, 1 Sardinian, and 1 Austrian vessel: sugar, 3 tons Jamaica, 164 tons Havannah, 12 tons St. Jago, 188 tons Rio, 7 tons Surinam, 5 tons Mocha, 7 tons Cheribon, and 11 tons Penang; sugar, 146 casks refined, 2,456 casks crushed, 400 tons white Havannah, 185 cases Bahia, 249 cases Pernambuco, 110 tons white, and 45 cases muscovado Brazil; cocoa, 15 tons; cassia lignea, 155 tons; cinnamon, 5 tons; pepper, 230 tons; pimento, 5 tons; ginger, 50 tons; cochineal, 4 serons; rum, 624 puncheons; indigo, 294 chests and 8 serons; logwood, 20 tons; Nicaragua wood, 31 tons; tin, 9,769 ingots, 433 barrels bars, 1,544 boxes plates; iron, 277 tons; lead, 151 ingots; cotton, 710 bales American; sundries, 21,600 pieces; manufactures, 5,842 packages; hemp, 1,629 barrels; pitchards, 1,000 barrels; hides, 41,781.

United States.—In 21 American and 6 Austrian vessels: coffee, 300 tons Havannah, 111 tons St. Jago, 360 tons Rio, 11 tons Berbice, 79 tons Mocha, 167 tons Porto Rico, 905 tons St. Domingo, and 101 tons Trieste; sugar, 47 casks crushed, 200 boxes yellow Havannah, and 67 bags Manilla; cocoa, 2 tons; pepper, 260 tons; pimento, 10 tons; cassia lignea, 27 tons; indigo, 154 chests; rum, 361 puncheons; logwood, 95 tons; Nicaragua wood, 147 tons; fustic, 90 tons; sundries, 4,500 pieces; cotton, 2,911 bales; hides, 20,656.

Spain.—In 62 British, 4 American, 1 Hamburgh, 3 Danish, 1 French, 1 Neapolitan, 5 Sardinian, 3 Spanish, 1 Swedish, and 11 Austrian vessels—(24 vessels from Rio, 39 Bahia, 10 Pernambuco, 1 Para, and 3 from Santos): coffee, 3,704 tons Rio, 124 tons Bahia; sugar, 23 casks, 227 barrels, 1,511 bags white, and 602 cwt. muscovado Rio; 7,101 cases, 145 barrels white, and 2,707 cases muscovado Bahia; 2,340 cases, 1,806 barrels, 54 bags white, and 127 cases muscovado Pernambuco; and 9,061 bags Santos; cocoa, 116 tons Para; rum, 138 puncheons; cotton, 362 tons Bahia, 50 tons Para; hides, 45 tons; hides, 58,483.

Sicily.—In 2 British, 6 American, 1 Belgian, and 2 Spanish vessels—(4 vessels from St. Jago, and 2 from Matanzas): coffee, 1,194 tons St. Jago, 231 tons Matanzas; sugar, 172 boxes white, 1,621 boxes yellow Matanzas, 168 boxes white, 618 boxes yellow St. Jago; logwood, 15 tons; fustic, 117 tons.

St. Domingo.—In 1 British vessel: coffee, 150 tons; cotton, 41 bales; logwood, 3 tons.

Sumatra.—In 2 American vessels: pepper, 550 tons.

Marseilles.—In 1 French, 22 Austrian, 4 Neapolitan, 7 Roman, and 4 Sardinian vessels: coffee, 91 tons St. Jago, 648 tons Rio, 4 tons Jamaica, 61 tons Porto Rico, 96 tons St. Domingo, and 5 tons Trinago; sugar, 2,218 casks refined, 100 cases white Bahia; cocoa, 3 tons; pepper, 65 tons; pimento, 34 tons; cloves, 393 packages; cinnamon, 1 ton; cassia lignea, 1 ton; cochineal, 21 serons; cotton, 270 bales; logwood, 716 tons; Nicaragua wood, 65 tons; rum, 66 puncheons; sundries, 4,000 pieces; lead, 9,106 ingots; hides, 2,107.

Bordeaux.—In 4 French and 1 Swedish vessel: coffee, 21 tons Havannah; 216 tons St. Jago; sugar, 80 boxes white Havannah; pepper, 8 tons.

Gibraltar and Malta.—In 6 British, 9 Austrian, and 1 Roman vessel: coffee, 4 tons Havannah, 3 tons Porto Rico; sugar, 20 cases white Bahia, 16 cases muscovado Brazil; cocoa, 81 tons; pepper, 28 tons; pimento, 6 tons; rum, 4 puncheons; logwood, 41 tons; cotton, 195 bales; hides, 1,858.

Spain.—In 3 Spanish, 1 Austrian, and 1 Russian vessel: coffee, 18 tons Porto Rico; lead, 9,761 ingots; hides, 800.

Portugal.—In 8 British, 7 Austrian, 1 Danish, and 2 Sardinian vessels: coffee, 91 tons Rio; sugar, 127 cases Bahia, 168 cases Pernambuco, 121 cases Rio, and 301 barrels white, 180 cases muscovado Brazil; cocoa, 660 tons; cotton, 5,303 bales; cassia lignea, 1 ton; hides, 13,297.

Hamburgh.—In 3 Austrian, and 3 Bremen vessels: sugar, 12 casks refined; fish oil, 1,744 barrels; calf skins, 231 bales; aloe, 14,492 tons; herrings, 51 barrels.

Holland.—In 2 Austrian, and 1 Danish vessel: sugar, 113 casks refined, 172 casks crushed; tobacco, 154 bales; cheese, 117 packages; sandal wood, 5,127 pieces; tin, 50 ingots.

Norway.—In 1 British, 4 Hanoverian, 1 Danish, and 1 Dutch vessel: stockfish, 1,205 tons.

Sweden.—In 2 Swedish vessels: tar, 2,914 barrels.

Statement of *Lang, Freland & Co.*

Quarantine is strictly enforced at Trieste, and the establishments for facilitating its performance are complete and efficient. The Board of Health at this port is the central or principal one for the Austrian States; and maintains an active correspondence with all the principal ports, both in the Mediterranean and elsewhere. There are 2 lazarettos,—that called St. Teresa, or Lazaretto *Nuovo*, is appropriated to vessels from the Levant and Egypt, which are, for the most part, subjected to the long or full quarantine of 40 days. It is spacious, and properly guarded; having a sufficient number of military and medical officers and assistants; with extensive quays and magazines for housing and airing goods, dwelling houses and apartments for resident officers and passengers, &c. It is, in fact, one of the most perfect establishments of the kind in existence. The other, or old (*Vecchio*) lazaretto, contiguous to the great mole, is appropriated to ships and passengers performing a quarantine of not more than 28 days; and, though inferior to the former, is sufficiently capacious and convenient. The sanitary offices, including that of harbour master, are near the centre of the port; where also are moored vessels under observation for a term not exceeding 8 days. Here also are facilities for communicating *viva voce* with persons under quarantine; and spacious warehouses, with adequate guards and other officers. But, notwithstanding these conveniences, if a vessel arrive having an infectious malady on board, she is not allowed to enter either lazaretto at Trieste, but is sent to an island near Venice, fitted out for the purpose, where assistance may be afforded with less risk of propagating infection.

The ordinary Board of Health consists of a president; two assistants, one of whom is a doctor of medicine; and three provisors, two of whom are merchants.

Quarantine Charges payable at the Port of Trieste, by all Ships.

Arrival.	Currency. *Fl. kr.*	Sterling. *s. d.*
In pratique:		
Entry with or without cargo, ships 100 tons and upwards	1 80	3 0
50 to 99	1 0	2 0
15 — 49	0 17	0 6-8
In quarantine:		
For the intermediary of master	1 80	3 0
For do. of guardian on admission to pratique	0 54	1 1-8

Departure.	Currency. *Fl. kr.*	Sterling. *s. d.*
In pratique:		
Bill of health, ships 100 tons and upwards	0 45	1 6
50 to 99	0 30	1 0
15 — 49	0 9	0 3-6
Certificate of goods shipped in pratique	0 17	0 6-8
In quarantine:		
Patent	1 8	2 3-2
Pay of the guardian on board during the performance of quarantine, per diem	1 8	2 3-2
His provisions do.	0 20	0 8

Quarantine Dues payable on Goods.—Non-susceptible goods pay *ad valorem* at the rate of 6 kreutzers per 100 florins or 1 mille. Susceptible goods pay an extra charge, according to tariff, or to circumstances. Besides the above *ad valorem* duty, goods not susceptible pay 4 kreutzers (1½d.) per every 1,000 lbs. weight of Vienna. Grain is subject to an extra charge of about ½ per cent.

Brokers, Commission Merchants, Brokerage, &c.—There are a few exceptions to the freedom generally enjoyed of settling and exercising any trade at Trieste. Brokers, for example, are limited in number, and appointed by the Chamber of Commerce. They are obliged to give security, are under various regulations, and may not themselves trade as principals. They are of 3 classes: 1st, brokers for the sale and purchase of merchandise, who are again subdivided into particular classes, according to the articles they are conversant with, as grain, oil, cotton, drugs, hides and leather, colonial pro-

duce, manufactures, &c.; 2d, bill brokers, or exchange agents; and, 3d, ship and insurance brokers. Such authorised brokers are alone allowed to extend contracts, certificates, surveys, or other documents; and they are considered as public functionaries, whose depositions are received as legal evidence.

Any one may be a commission merchant or factor, but he may not issue printed circulars or lists of prices; nor will his books, however regularly kept, be considered as evidence in a court of justice, unless he is *matriculated*, for which the possession of a certain amount of capital is required. This, however, is little more than mere form, and a great deal of business is done by persons acting both as merchants and brokers, without being duly authorised.

The usual rate of a merchant's or factor's commission on the purchase of goods is 2 per cent. On sales, ½ per cent.; *del credere* is sometimes added.

A merchant's commission for collecting freights, and doing other shipping business, is 2 per cent. on the inward cargo; and by custom of the place, the house to which a ship is consigned or recommended by the charterers, is entitled to a commission of 2 per cent. on the outward cargo, whether it has or has not been instrumental in procuring the goods that are laden outwards.

A broker's commission for freighting a ship, or procuring a charter, is 2 per cent. This does not include the charge for writing charter, or for any other services performed in the clearance. In case of general cargoes, when the broker has to collect goods from different merchants, he charges 3 per cent. commission. A bill broker's commission (courtage) is sometimes 1 per mille, more commonly ½ per mille. Brokerage for the sale or purchase of merchandise varies from ¼ per cent. to 1 per cent., according to circumstances, and the nature of the article.

Insurance.—The insurance of ships is carried on to a considerable extent at Trieste. The security is unexceptionable, the terms more moderate than in England, and losses are said to be adjusted promptly and liberally. The oppressive duties on policies of insurance in England have been the cause that most insurances on ships for the Adriatic, that were formerly effected in London, Liverpool, &c., are now effected at Trieste. The insurance of houses is universal; and that of lives is also, of late years, practised to a considerable extent. House insurance is carried on by joint stock companies, of limited responsibility.

Bankruptcy is not of very frequent occurrence at Trieste. The laws with respect to it do not differ much from those in force in most other countries. Frauds are punishable by imprisonment; but here, as elsewhere, they are very difficult to detect. Honest bankrupts are discharged, on making a complete disclosure of their affairs, and a surrender of their assets. Property settled on a wife is not affected by the debts of the husband; a regulation which, it is evident, must lead to fraud.

Communications by Land.—The intercourse between Trieste and Austria, Hungary, &c. is necessarily all carried on by land. The roads leading to Vienna, and to the Hungarian towns, particularly the first, are kept in good repair, and the tolls are moderate; but owing to the rugged nature of the country, the ascent is in some places very considerable. The diligence from Trieste to Vienna, 340 English miles, performs the journey in 73 hours. The draught horses employed on the roads are excellent; but, in some of the mountainous districts, bullocks are used.

Repeated surveys have been made of the country between Vienna and Trieste, in the view of forming a canal. But the difficulties in the way of such a project seem to be all but insuperable. The ground is not only rugged, but the subsoil of the country stretching northwards to a considerable distance from Trieste is so very porous, that, unless precautions were taken to obviate it, the water in the canal would speedily escape. A rail-road has been proposed, and it might, no doubt be accomplished. But the expense would be so very great, that it is extremely problematical whether it would ever yield any thing like a return. We subjoin a statement of the

Rates of Land Carriage from Trieste to various Places.

From Trieste to	Currency Florins.	Amount in Sterling.	From Trieste to	Currency Florins.	Amount in Sterling.
	Fl. kr.	*L. s. d.*		*Fl. kr.*	*L. s. d.*
Lubian, per 100 lbs. weight Vienna (= 1·35 lb. avoird.)	0 48	0 1 6	Augsburg, per 100 lbs. weight Vienna (= 123 1·2 lbs. averd.)	4 30	0 9 0
Gratz, do.	1 48	0 3 6	Nuremberg, do.	5 30	0 11 0
Vienna, do.	2 48	0 5 6	Munich, do.	4 30	0 9 0
Prague, do.	4 0	0 8 0	Innspruck, do.	3 0	0 6 0
Leipsic, do.	4 45	0 10 6	Lindau, do.	4 45	0 9 6
Dresden, do.	5 15	0 12 6	Zurich, do.	5 0	0 10 0
Berlin, do.	5 15	0 12 6	Milan, per 100 kilogs. francs	10½ 0	0 6 5
Breslaw, do.	5 45	0 11 6			

Careening, Stores, &c.—Timber at Trieste is excellent, workmen good, and their wages moderate; so that it is a very favourable place for careening and repairing. Water is very good, but rather scarce; so that, if a large supply be required, due notice must be given. Ships are served in regular rotation. Beef is very good, but rather high priced. Butter and cheese are dear; and fuel is excessively so. On the whole, therefore, Trieste cannot be considered as a favourable place for the provisioning of a ship. Subjoined is an account of the

Average Prices of the principal Articles of Provisions at Trieste in 1831.

Articles.	Prices in Currency.	Prices in Sterling.	Articles.	Prices in Currency.	Prices in Sterling.
Beef, fresh, per lb. weight of Vienna (= 1·235 lb. avoirdupois)	*Fl. kr.* 0 5½	*L. s. d.* 0 0 5·4	Coffee, per 100 lbs. weight Vienna (= 123 1·2 lbs. avoirdupois)	*Fl. kr.* 33 0	*L. s. d.* 3 6 0
Do. salted, per barrel, of about 300 lbs. avoirdupois	80 0	8 0 0	Flour, wheat, do.	7 0	0 14 0
Pork, salted, do.	85 0	8 10 0	Do. maize, do.	4 0	0 8 0
Biscuit, per 100 livres Venetian weight (= 104 1·2 lbs. avoirdupois)	8 0	0 10 0	Oil, per orna, equal to 14·16 gls. Im.	21 0	2 2 0
Bread, per lb. weight of Vienna	0 3½	0 0 1·4	Rice, per 100 lbs. weight of Vienna	11 30	1 3 0
Butter, do.	0 17	0 0 6·8	Potatoes, do.	1 30	0 3 0
Cheese, do.	0 25	0 0 10	Vegetables (assorted), do.	5 0	0 10 0
			Sugar, refined, do.	23 0	2 6 0
			Tea, per lb. weight of Vienna	3 0	0 6 0

Average Prices of Wheat, and other sorts of Grain, at Trieste, during each of the Ten Years ending with 1831, per Imperial Quarter, and in Sterling Money.

Grain.	1822.	1823.	1824.	1825.	1826.	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.
	s. d.	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*
Wheat	31 6	27 10	23 8	21 8	26 6	31 7	36 9	34 4	33 0	34 0
Maize	19 4	19 6	17 2	15 6	16 0	19 9	22 5	22 5	26 0	24 5
Rye	22 4	20 11	16 11	16 1	16 7	21 11	23 8	23 1	24 2	23 8
Barley	18 3	17 5	11 6	10 2	14 1	14 11	20 1	21 1	18 3	17 2
Oats	17 5	16 10	9 10	9 7	10 0	13 2	16 2	15 5	15 2	16 1

Banking.—There are no public banks at Trieste. The Bank of Vienna has an office here, but it is merely for the exchange of its notes for cash, or, more frequently, of large notes for small ones. These notes, being guaranteed by government, are legal tender, and in general circulation, but no other company is allowed to issue notes to be used as a circulating medium. There is not, however, any deficiency of currency. Banking business is transacted by private companies, or by individuals, who are subject to certain regulations, and are obliged to lay before competent authority an attested statement of the capital embarked in their concerns. Their business principally consists in procuring bills of exchange from other places for the use of the merchants of Trieste, or in discounting, (in which latter operation they have many private competitors), at the rate of from 4 to 6 per cent. per annum, according to the nature of the paper offered, and in proportion to the scarcity or abundance of cash.

The principal bankers of Trieste are of undoubted solidity, and do not indulge in dangerous speculations; and notwithstanding the apparent want of great banking establishments, the business of buying and selling, and of making payments and remittances, whether in bills or specie, is transacted at this port with great facility; and there seldom arises any distress, pressure, or stagnation, from want of money or credit.

It is not usual for respectable bankers to give interest on deposits. The partners in joint stock companies, banks, &c. are, in general, responsible only to the extent of their declared capital; and the individuals composing them are only liable each to the extent of their share. The same individual is frequently a general merchant, a partner in a banking house, and a member of an insurance company. All these businesses may at present be said to be prosperous.

Credit.—Goods imported into Trieste are sometimes sold for ready money, a discount being usually understood, and allowed in such case, of 2 or 2½ per cent. But they are commonly sold at 3 months, credit, that is, by bills of that date; occasionally, but rarely, they are sold at 6 months.

Bills thus obtained, though offering no other guarantee than the signature of the drawer or acceptor, may be discounted or insured at a moderate rate by companies who dedicate themselves to this branch of business, and who, from their extensive dealings, are good judges of the risk. This practice has become almost universal; and it not only facilitates sales, but has a tendency to prevent bankruptcies, as it is difficult for a house long to conceal its insolvency; and its credit is, by this mode of trial, soon ascertained.

Tares.—Real tare is allowed on most articles of export; and on all articles of import, except cotton and sugar. The tare on Brazil sugar in chests depends on their length and size, but in general it amounts to from 15 to 18 per cent.; on Brazil sugar in bags the tare is 3 per cent.; on Havannah sugar a tare is allowed of 62 lbs. English per box, being from 13 to 14 per cent.; on Jamaica sugar the tare is 14 per cent. Tare on American cotton, 4 per cent.

The answers to the *Circular Queries* by Mr. Taylor Money, consul general at Milan, are amongst the most valuable that have been received, and reflect the greatest credit on his industry and talent for observation. We have been largely indebted to them.

TRINITY HOUSE. This society was incorporated by Henry VIII., in 1515, for the promotion of commerce and navigation, by licensing and regulating pilots, and ordering and erecting beacons, light-houses, buoys, &c. A similar society, for the like purposes, was afterwards established at Hull; and also another at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, in 1537; which three establishments, says Hakluyt, were in imitation of that founded by the Emperor Charles V. at Seville in Spain; who, observing the numerous shipwrecks in the voyages to and from the West Indies, occasioned by the ignorance of seamen, established, at the *Casa de Contratacion*, lectures on navigation, and a pilot-major for the examination of other pilots and mariners; having also directed books to be published on that subject for the use of navigators.

Henry VIII., by his charter, confirmed to the Deptford Trinity House Society all the ancient rights, privileges, &c. of the shipmen and mariners of England, and their several possessions at Deptford, from which it is plain that the society had existed long previously. The corporation was confirmed, in 1685, in the enjoyment of its privileges and possessions, by letters patent of the 1st of James II. by the name of the Master, Wardens, and Assistants of the Guild or Fraternity of the most glorious and undivided Trinity, and of St. Clement's, in the Parish of Deptford Strond, in the county of Kent. At first, the corporation appears to have consisted of seamen only; but many gentlemen, and some noblemen, are now amongst its members, or elder brethren. It is governed by a master, 4 wardens, 8 assistants, and 31 elder brothers: but the inferior members of the fraternity, named younger brethren, are of an unlimited number; for every master or mate, expert in navigation, may be admitted as such. Besides the power of erecting light-houses, and other sea-marks, on the several coasts of the kingdom, for the security of navigation—(see LIGHT-HOUSES),—the master, wardens, assistants, and elder brethren are invested by charter with the following powers; viz. the examination of the mathematical scholars of Christ's Hospital, and of the masters of his Majesty's ships; the appointment of pilots to conduct ships into and out of the Thames; the amercement of such unlicensed persons as presume to act as masters of ships of war, or pilots, in a pecuniary fine; settling the several rates of pilotage; granting licenses to poor seamen, not free of the city, or past going to sea, to row on the river Thames for their support; preventing aliens from serving on board English ships without licence; hearing and determining the complaints of officers and seamen of British ships, subject to an appeal to the Lords of the Admiralty, &c. To this company belongs the Ballast Office, for clearing and deepening the Thames, by taking up a sufficient quantity of ballast for the supply of all ships that sail out of the river, for which they pay certain rates.—(See BALLAST.) The corporation is authorised to receive voluntary subscriptions, benefactions, &c.; and to purchase, in mortmain, lands, tenements, &c. to the amount of 500*l.* per annum. The ancient Hall of the Trinity House at Deptford, where the meetings of the brethren were formerly held, was pulled down in 1787, and an elegant building erected for the purpose in London, near the Tower.

Trinity House Revenues, &c.—The gross revenue under the management of the Trinity House amounts to about 135,000*l.* a year; but the nett revenue is rather under ½ that sum. It arises from the dues payable to the corporation on account of light-houses, buoyage and beaconage, and ballastage; and from the interest of money in the funds, and the rent of freehold property. In 1831, the receipts were as under:—

	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Light-houses—Total sums received on account of light-houses		75,349 11 11 1-4	
Deduct commission on collection	5,174 6 9 1-4		
Charges on account of maintenance, &c.*	41,148 19 7 1-2	47,323 6 4 3-4	
Nett light house revenue			28,026 5 6 1-4
Buoyage and Beaconage—gross amount of		12,084 16 11 1-2	
Deduct commission on collection	795 6 0 1-2		
Charges	7,496 18 10 1-2	8,283 4 11	
Nett buoyage, beaconage, and revenue			3,801 12 0 1-2
Ballastage—gross amount of	30,239 17 9		
Deduct charges	23,741 15 11		
Nett ballastage revenue			6,498 1 10
Rent of Land and houses, dividends on account of funded property, &c., all charges deducted			10,003 2 5
Total nett revenue			58,329 1 7 3-4†

By far the greater portion of this large sum is laid out on pensions to poor disabled seamen, and on the maintenance of their widows, orphans, &c. We have seen the number of persons so relieved stated at 3,000; and we believe that the fund is both judiciously and economically administered. Still, however, as we have remarked in another article—(vol. i., p. 141.)—it does appear to us, considering the vast importance to a maritime nation like this of keeping the charges on shipping as low as possible, that it would be good policy to provide otherwise for the poor persons now dependent on the Trinity House, and to reduce the charges on account of lights, &c. to the lowest sum that would suffice to maintain the establishment in a proper state of efficiency. No one, certainly, would wish to see the poor seamen deprived of any part of the pittance they now receive; but a larger amount might be given them from other sources, and be, at the same time, less felt by the public. Every one knows that nothing contributes so much to facilitate a commercial intercourse by land as good roads and low tolls; and good lights, buoys, beacons, &c., and light charges, have precisely the same influence at sea.

TRIPANG, OR SEA SLUG (*Biche de Mer*), a species of fish of the genus *Holuthuria*, found chiefly on coral reefs in the Eastern seas, and highly esteemed in China, into which it is imported in large quantities. It is an unseemly looking substance, of a dirty brown colour, hard, rigid, scarcely possessing any power of locomotion, or appearance of animation. Sometimes the slug is as much as 2 feet in length, and from 7 to 8 inches in circumference. A span in length, and 2 or 3 inches in girth, is, however, the ordinary size. The quality and value of the fish, however, do not by any means depend upon its size, but upon properties in it neither obvious to, nor discernible by, those who have not been long and extensively engaged in the trade. In shallow water the animal is taken out by the hand, but in deeper water it is sometimes speared. When taken it is gutted, dried in the sun, and smoked over a wood fire; this being the only preparation it receives. The fishery is carried on from the western shores of New Guinea, and the southern shores of Australia, to Ceylon inclusive. Indeed, within the last few years it has been successfully prosecuted on the shores of the Mauritius. The whole produce goes to China. In the market of Macassar, the great staple of this fishery, not less than *thirty* varieties are distinguished, varying in price from 5 Spanish dollars a *picul* (133⅓ lbs.) to 14 times that price, each variety being distinguished by well known names! The quantity of tripang sent annually to China from Macassar is about 7,000 piculs, or 8,333 cwt.; the price usually varying from 8 dollars to a picul to 110 and 115, according to quality.—(*Crawfurd's Indian Archipelago*, vol. iii. p. 441.) There is also a considerable export of tripang from Manilla to Canton.

Besides tripang, *fish-maws* and *sharks' fins* are exported to China from every maritime country of India.

TROY WEIGHT, one of the most ancient of the different kinds used in Britain. The pound English Troy contains 12 ounces, or 5,760 grains. It is used in the weighing of gold, silver, and jewels; the compounding of medicines; in experiments in natural philosophy; in comparing different weights with each other; and is now (by 5 Geo. 4. c. 74.) made the standard of weight.

TROY WEIGHT, *Scotch*, was established by James VI. in the year 1618, who enacted that only one weight should be used in Scotland, viz. the French Troy stone of 16 pounds, and 16 ounces to the pound. The pound contains 7,609 grains, and is equal to 17 oz. 6 dr. avoirdupois. The cwt., or 112 lbs. avoirdupois, contains only 103 lbs. 2½ oz. of this weight, though generally reckoned equal to 104 lbs. This weight is very nearly identical with that formerly used at Paris and Amsterdam; and is generally known by the name of Dutch weight. Though prohibited by the articles of Union, it has been used in most parts of Scotland in weighing iron, hemp, flax, and other Dutch and Baltic goods, meal, butcher's meat, lead, &c.—(See WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.)

TRUCK SYSTEM, a name given to a practice that has prevailed, particularly in the mining and manufacturing districts, of paying the wages of workmen in goods instead of money. The plan has been, for the masters to establish warehouses or shops; and the workmen in their employment have either got their wages accounted for to them by supplies of goods from such *depôts*, without receiving any money; or they have got the money, with a tacit or express understanding that they were to resort to the warehouses or shops of their masters for such articles as they were furnished with.

* This includes a sum of 10,174*l.* laid out on *new* light-houses, and 1,015*l.* of incidental charges.

† See *Parl. Paper*, No. 88. Sess. 1833. For an account of the light-house revenue, see this work, vol. i., p. 141., for buoyage and beaconage, see vol. i. p. 950.; and for ballastage, see vol. i. p. 65.

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Truck System.—A great deal of contradictory evidence has been given, and very opposite opinions have been held, as to the practical operation and real effect of this system on the workmen. Nor is this to be wondered at, seeing that every thing depends on the mode in which it is administered, and that it may be either highly advantageous or highly injurious to the labourer. If a manufacturer of character establish a shop supplied with the principal articles required for the use of the workmen in his employment, and give them free liberty to resort to it or not as they please, it can, at all events, do them no harm, and will, most likely, render them material service. The manufacturer, having the command of capital, may, in general, lay in his goods to greater advantage than they can be laid in by the greater number of retail tradesmen in moderate-sized towns; and not being dependent on the profits of his shop for support, he is, even though he had no advantage in their purchase, able to sell his goods at a cheaper rate than they can be afforded by the majority of shopkeepers. Sometimes, also, a factory is established in a district where shops either do not exist at all, or are very deficient; and in such cases the master consults the interest and convenience of those dependent on him when he provides a supply of the principal articles required for their subsistence. It is easy, therefore, to see, that the keeping of shops by masters for the use of their workmen may be very beneficial to the latter. But to insure its being so, it is indispensable that the masters should be above taking an advantage when it is within their reach, and that their conduct towards the workmen should not be in any degree influenced by the circumstance of the latter dealing or not dealing with their shops.

Such disinterestedness is, however, a great deal more than could be rationally expected from the generality of men; and hence, though many instances may be specified in which the truck system was advantageous to the workmen, those of a contrary description were, unfortunately, far more numerous. It is obvious, indeed, that a practice of this sort affords very great facilities for fraudulent dealings. Under the old law, a manufacturer who had a shop, had means, supposing he were inclined to use them, not possessed by any ordinary shopkeeper as respects his customers, for forcing upon his workmen inferior goods at an exorbitant price. They are at first supplied on liberal terms, and are readily accommodated with goods in anticipation of wages, till they get considerably into debt. The pernicious influence of this deceitful system then begins fully to disclose itself. The workmen cease to be free agents; they are compelled to take such goods and at such prices as the master pleases; for, were they to attempt to emancipate themselves from this state of thraldom by leaving their employment, they would be exposed to the risk of prosecution and imprisonment for the debts they had incurred. It is not easy to imagine the extent to which these facilities for defrauding the labouring class were taken advantage of in various districts of the country. In many instances, indeed, the profits made by the shops exceeded those made by the business to which they were contingent; and thousands of workmen, whose wages were nominally 30*s.* a week, did not really receive, owing to the bad quality and high price of the goods supplied to them, more than 20*s.*, and often not so much.

Abolition of the Truck System.—A system of dealing with the labouring classes, so very susceptible of abuse, and which, in point of fact, was very extensively abused, was loudly and justly complained of. A bill was in consequence introduced for its suppression by Mr. Littleton, which, after a great deal of opposition and discussion, was passed into a law—1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 32.—(*See abstract subjoined.*)

Those who opposed this act did so on two grounds;—1st, that it was improper to interfere at all in a matter of this sort; and, 2d, that the interference would not be effective. The first of these objections does not appear entitled to any weight. In suppressing the truck system, the legislature did nothing that could in anywise regulate or fetter the fair employment of capital: it interfered merely to put down abuse; to carry, in fact, the contract of wages into full effect, by preventing the workman from being defrauded of a portion of the wages he had stipulated for. The presumption no doubt is, in questions between workmen and their employers, that government had better abstain from all interference, and leave it to the parties to adjust their disputes on the principle of mutual interest and compromised advantage. Still, however, this is merely a presumption; and must not be viewed as an absolute rule. Instances have repeatedly occurred, where the interference of the legislature, to prevent or suppress abuse, on occasions of the sort now alluded to, has been imperiously required, and been highly advantageous. Those who claim its interposition are, indeed, bound to show clearly that it is called for to obviate some gross abuse, or that it will materially redound to the public advantage; and this, we think, was done in the completest manner, by the opponents of the truck system. Regard for the interests of the more respectable part of the masters, as well as for those of the workmen, required its abolition; for, while it continued, those who despised taking an advantage of their dependents were less favourably situated than those who did. It is ludicrous, therefore, in a case of this sort, to set up a cuckoo cry about the "freedom of industry." The good incident to the truck system was in practice found to be vastly overbalanced by the abuses that grew out of it; and as these

could not, under the existing law of debtor and creditor, be separately destroyed, the legislature did right in attempting to suppress it altogether.

It was said, indeed, that this would be found to be impracticable; that the manufacturers would enter underhand into partnerships with the keepers of shops, and that the system would really be continued, in another and, perhaps, more objectionable form. This anticipation has, we believe, been in some degree realised; but the system has notwithstanding been in many places abandoned, and is nowhere practised to any thing like the extent to which it was carried previously to the passing of Mr. Littleton's act. It will not, however, be completely rooted out, till all small debts, however they originate, be put beyond the pale of the law. We have already vindicated the expediency of this measure on other grounds—(see CREDIT); and the influence it would have in effectually destroying whatever is most pernicious in the truck system, is a weighty additional recommendation in its favour. Were all right of action upon debts for less than 50*l.* or 100*l.* taken away, no master would think of acquiring a control over the free agency of his workmen, by getting them in debt to him; and no workman would, under such circumstances, submit to be directed in his choice of shops or goods. The case of the Scotch colliers affords a curious illustration of what is now stated. Down to 1775, these persons were really *adscripti glebæ*, or predial slaves; that is, they and their descendants were bound to perpetual service at the works to which they belonged,—a right to their labour being acquired by any new proprietor to whom the works were sold! The 15 Geo. 3. c. 28. was passed for the emancipation of the colliers from this state of bondage. It, however, failed of practically accomplishing its object; for the masters speedily contrived, by making them advances in anticipation of their wages, to retain them as completely as ever under their control! To obviate this abuse, the 39 Geo. 3. c. 56. was passed; which most properly took from the masters all title to pursue the colliers for loans, unless advanced for the support of the collier and his family during sickness. This act had the desired effect; and the colliers have since been as free as any other class of labourers.—(See my edition of the *Wealth of Nations*, vol. ii. p. 186.) In fact, were small debts put beyond the pale of the law, it would not be necessary to interfere directly with the truck system; for it would not then be possible to pervert it to any very injurious purpose.

The following are the principal clauses in the act 1 & 2 Will. 4. c. 37., entitled, "An Act to prohibit the Payment, in certain Trades, of Wages in Goods, or otherwise than in the Current coin of the Realm:"—

1. In all contracts hereafter to be made for the hiring of any artificer in any of the trades herein-after enumerated, or for the performance by any artificer of any labour in any of the said trades, the wages of such artificer shall be made payable only in the current coin of this realm, and not otherwise; any contract to the contrary being illegal, null, and void.

2. If such contract contain any stipulations as to the manner in which the wages shall be expended, it is void.

3. Wages must be paid to the workman in coin only. Payment in goods illegal and void.

4. Artificers may recover wages, if not paid in the current coin.

5. In no action brought for wages, no set-off shall be allowed for goods supplied by the employer, or by any shop in which he is interested.

6. No employer shall have any action or suit in equity against his artificer, for goods supplied to him on account of wages, or supplied by any shop in which he has an interest.

7. If the artificer, or his wife or children become chargeable to the parish, the overseers may recover any wages earned within the 3 preceding months, and not paid in cash.

8. Nothing in this act is to invalidate the payment of wages in bank notes or drafts on any bankers within 15 miles, if artificer consents.

9. Any employer of any artificer in any of the trades herein-after enumerated, who shall, by himself, or by the agency of any other person, directly or indirectly enter into any contract, or make any payment hereby declared illegal, shall for the first offence forfeit a sum not exceeding 10*l.* nor less than 5*l.*, and for the second offence any sum not exceeding 20*l.*, nor less than 10*l.*, and for a third offence he shall be guilty of a misdemeanour, and be punished by fine only at the discretion of the court, so that the fine shall not in any case exceed 100*l.*

10. Offences shall be inquired of and fines recovered before 2 justices, and the amount of the fines shall be in the discretion of such justices, or in cases of misdemeanour, of the court before which the offence may be tried; and in case of a second offence, it shall be sufficient evidence of the previous conviction, if a certificate, signed by the officer having the custody of the record, be produced, stating in a compendious form the general nature of the offence. But a second or third offence shall only be punished as a first or second offence, if committed within 10 days after the prior conviction; and a fourth or any subsequent offence shall be punished as a third offence. But no second or third offence shall be prosecuted after more than 3 years from the commission of the next preceding offence.

11. Justices may compel the attendance of witnesses, on the request of the parties. Penalty for non-attendance without excuse, and after proof of due service of summons at the usual place of abode for such persons, 24 hours at the least before the time appointed for appearance, a commitment to some prison within the jurisdiction of the justices, without bail or mainprise, for not exceeding 14 days, or until such person shall submit to be examined.

Sections from 12. to 18. inclusive, regulate proceedings.

19. Act only to apply to the following trades:—Making, casting, converting, or manufacturing of iron or steel, or any parts, branches, or processes thereof; working any mines of coal, ironstone, limestone, salt rock; or working or getting stone, slate, or clay; or making or preparing salt, bricks, tiles, or quarries; or making or manufacturing any kinds of nails, chains, rivets, anvils, &c., keys, &c., or any other articles or hardwares made of iron or steel, or of iron and steel combined, or of any plated articles of cutlery, or of any goods or wares made of brass, tin, lead, pewter, or other metal, or of any japanned goods or wares whatsoever; or making, spinning, throwing, doubling, winding, weaving, combing, knitting, bleaching, dyeing, printing, or otherwise preparing any kinds of woolen, worsted, yarn, stuff, kersey, linen, fustian, cloth, serge, cotton, leather, fur, hemp, flax, mohair, or silk manufactures whatsoever, or any manufactures whatsoever made of the said last mentioned materials, whether the same be or be not mixed one with another; or making or otherwise preparing, ornamenting, or finishing, any glass, porcelain, china, or earthenware whatsoever, or any parts, branches, or processes thereof, or any materials used in any of such last mentioned trades; or making or preparing of bone, thread, silk or cotton lace, or of lace made of any mixed materials.

20. Not to extend to any domestic servant, or servant in husbandry.

21. No one engaged in any of the trades or occupations enumerated, or his father, son, or brother, shall act as a justice.

22. County magistrates to act in cases where those of towns are disqualified as above.

23. Not to prevent any employer from supplying or contracting to supply to any artificer any medicine or medical attendance, or any fuel, or any materials, tools, or implements to be by such artificer employed in his trade or occupation, if such artificers be employed in mining, or any hay, corn, or other provender to be consumed by any horse or other beast of burden employed by any such artificer in his trade and occupation; nor from demising to any artificer employed in any of the trades or occupations enumerated the whole or any part of any tenement at any rent; nor from supplying or contracting to supply to any such artificer any victuals dressed or prepared under the roof of any such employer, and there consumed by such artificer; nor from making or contracting to make any deduction from the wages of any artificer for any such rent, or medicine, or medical assistance, or fuel, materials, tools, implements, hay, corn or provender, or such victuals, or for any money advanced to such artificer for any such purpose; but such deduction shall not exceed the true value of such fuel, materials, tools, implements, hay, corn, and provender, and shall not be in any case made from the wages of such artificer unless the agreement for such deduction shall be in writing and signed by such artificer.

24. Not to prevent any such employer from advancing to any such artificer any money to be by him contributed to any friendly society or bank for savings, or for his relief in sickness, or for the education of any child of such artificer, nor from deducting or contracting to deduct any money from the wages of such artificers, for the education of any such child, provided the agreement for such deduction shall be in writing and signed by such artificer.

25. Workmen, labourers, and other persons in any manner engaged in any employment or operation in or about the several trades and occupations aforesaid, shall be deemed "artificers," and all masters, bailiffs, foremen, managers, clerks, and other persons engaged in the hiring, employment, or superintendence of the labour of any such artificers shall be deemed to be "employers;" and any money or other thing had or contracted to be paid, or given as a remuneration for any labour done or to be done, whether within a certain time or to a certain amount, or for a time or an amount uncertain, shall be deemed to be the "wages" of such labour; and any agreement, understanding, device, contrivance, collusion, or arrangement whatsoever on the subject of wages, whether written or oral, whether direct or indirect, to which the employer and artificer are parties, or are assenting, or by which they are mutually bound to each other, or whereby either of them shall have endeavoured to impose an obligation on the other of them, shall be deemed a "contract."

TRUFFLES, a sort of vegetable production, like a mushroom, formed under ground. A few have been found in Northamptonshire; they are pretty abundant in Italy, the south of France, and several other countries. They are reckoned a great delicacy. The *pâtés au truffe d'Angoulême* are highly esteemed, and are sent as presents to very distant places.—(*Rees's Cyclopædia.*)

TUNIS, the capital of the regency of the same name, on the northern coast of Africa, the Goletta fort being in lat. 36° 48′ 30″ N., lon. 10° 25′ 45″ E. The bay of Tunis is somewhat in the form of a horseshoe. Its western extremity, Cape Carthage, is situated about 4 miles N.E. from the Goletta; and its eastern extremity, Cape Zafran, bears from Cape Carthage E. by S., distant about 13 miles. The bay is about 16 miles deep, and has good anchorage all over, in from 10 to 4 fathoms water. It is exposed to the N. and N.E. gales; but they seldom occasion any damage. Tunis lies on the west side of the bay, being separated from it by a large lagoon, having, where deepest, about 7 feet water. The port is at the Goletta, or channel, passing through the narrow belt of land separating the lagoon from the sea; the entrance to it is by a canal, in which there is at all times 15 feet water; and ships may use it on paying a fee of 3 dollars a day. It is not, however, much resorted to; all vessels of considerable burden loading and unloading from their moorings in the bay, by means of lighters. The population of Tunis has been variously estimated; and may probably amount to 100,000, being the most populous of any African city after Cairo. The streets are narrow, unpaved, and filthy. The buildings, though of stone, are mean and poor; and the inhabitants present the picture of poverty and oppression. There is a fort at the Goletta, of considerable strength.

Trade.—Notwithstanding the various drawbacks arising out of the nature of the government, and the ignorance and prejudices of the people, commerce and industry are in a more advanced state in Tunis, than in any other part of Northern Africa, Egypt excepted. Though subject to droughts, the climate is, on the whole, excellent. The soil still preserves that exuberant fertility for which it was famous in antiquity.

> Non quicquid Libycis terit
> Fervens area messibus.—(*Senec. in Thyest.*)

It seldom receives any other manure than that of sometimes burning the weeds and stubble; and yet, in despite of its slovenly culture, the crops are luxuriant; and there is generally a considerable excess of wheat and barley for exportation. Corn is principally shipped at Biserta, about 50 miles W. of Tunis. Olive oil is one of the principal articles of export. It is of various qualities; some good, and some very indifferent. Susa is said to be the best place for its shipment. Soap of an excellent quality is largely manufactured in the regency. It may be had either soft or in wedges. The soft is made of barilla and pure oil, and is much esteemed. The hard soap is made from the lees of oil, and is reckoned very strong. The principal soap-works are at Susa. Little, however, is prepared on a speculative anticipation of a demand for exportation; but any quantity may be had by contracting for a few months before the period when it is wanted. A sort of woollen scull-caps are largely exported. They are in extensive demand all over the Levant, and are nowhere made in such perfection as here. Ivory and gold dust, hides, wax, morocco leather, sponge, barilla, coral, dates, ostrich feathers, &c. are among the articles of export.

The imports from Europe consist of woollens, coarse German and Irish linens, cotton stuffs, hardware, sugar, coffee, spices, tin plates, lead, alum, dye stuffs, wine, silk, Spanish wool, &c. There is very little direct trade between Tunis and England; but a good deal is indirectly carried on, through the intervention of Malta and Gibraltar. Marseilles has probably the largest share of the trade with the regency. In 1830, there entered the different ports of Tunis 194 ships, of the burden of 20,747 tons, exclusive of those engaged in the trade with the other African states and Turkey.

Exclusive of the trade by sea, a considerable trade is carried on between Tunis and the interior of Africa, by means of caravans. These import slaves, gold dust, ivory, feathers, drugs, &c. They carry back cotton stuffs, linens, hardware, spices, cochineal, &c.

Naval and military stores imported into Tunis pay no duty. Other articles pay a duty of 3 per cent. *ad valorem* on a rated tariff. Obstructions arising out of monopolies, &c. are occasionally thrown in the way of exportation; and in general it is necessary, before proceeding to ship, to obtain a *tiskery*, or licence to that effect from the bey. That, however, may be, for the most part, procured without such difficulty.

Money.—Accounts are kept in piastres of 16 carobas or 32 aspers. The piastre is worth about 1*s.* 1*d.* sterling. The asper is an imaginary money. The value of foreign coins depends on the state of the exchange.

Weights.—Gold, silver, and pearls are weighed by the ounce of 8 uckes; 16 of these ounces make the Tunis pound = 7,773·5 Eng. *ct.* The principal commercial weight is the cantaro, containing 88 lbs., or rotoli, being equivalent to 111·08 lbs. avoird., or 50·36 kilog.

Measures.—The principal corn measure is the *caf*, divided into 8 whiba; and the whiba into 12 sahas. One *caffa* = 14 1-2 Imperial bushels.

The wine measure is the millerolle of Marseilles = 14 1 Imp. gallons, or 64·33 litres. It is divided into 6 1-2 mitres. The principal oil measure is the metal or mettar = 0·125 wine gallons, or 19·39 litres; but it is of different dimensions in different parts of the country; and is larger at Susa, whence most of the oil is exported, than at Tunis.

The pic, or principal long measure, is of 3 sorts; viz. the pic woollen measure = 26·5 Eng. inches: the pic silk measure = 24·6 do.: and the pic linen measure = 16·6 do.

For further particulars, see that chapter of *Shaw's Travels in Barbary, &c.* (one of the most learned and excellent works of the kind in the English language), that treats of the kingdom of *Tunis*; *Macgill's Account of Tunis*, passim; *Jackson's Commerce of the Mediterranean*, pp. 85—96.; *Kelly's Cambist, &c.*

Ruins of Carthage.—The famous city of Carthage, one of the greatest emporiums of the ancient world, long the mistress of the sea, and the most formidable enemy of Rome, was situated near the cape which still bears her name, about 10 miles N.E. from Tunis. Such, however, have been the alterations on the coast, that the port of the city, within whose ample expanse whole navies used to ride, is now wholly filled up; antiquaries differ as to its situation; and the sea has in some places receded from 2 to 3 miles from the ruins of the buildings by which it was formerly skirted. The common sewers are still in a very perfect state, as are several cisterns, public reservoirs, and other remains of that sort, with the fragment of a noble aqueduct that supplied the city with water. But besides these, and a very few Punic inscriptions that have been dug up, there is nothing left to attest the ancient grandeur

and magnificence of the city, or to identify it with the illustrious people by whom it was founded and occupied till its destruction by Scipio Nasica. There are no temples, no triumphal arches, no granite columns or obelisks covered with Phœnician characters, and no ancient entablatures. These have all fallen a sacrifice to hostile attacks, or to the destroying hand of time.

Nunc passim, vix reliquias, vix nomina servans,
Obruitur, propriis non agnoscenda ruinis.

Such mutilated fragments of buildings as still remain, are evidently the work of a later age; of those who occupied the city between the period when a colony was sent to it by Augustus, and its final subversion by the Saracens in the 7th century.

TURBITH, OR TURPETH, the cortical part of the root of a species of *Convolvulus*, brought from different parts of the East Indies. It is a longish root, about the thickness of the finger, resinous, heavy, of a brownish hue without and whitish within. It is imported cloven in the middle, lengthwise, and the heart or woody matter taken out. The best is ponderous, not wrinkled, easy to break, and discovers to the eye a large quantity of resinous matter. At first it makes an impression of sweetness on the taste; but, when chewed for some time, betrays a nauseous acrimony. It is used in medicine, but only to a small extent.—(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*)

TURBITH (MINERAL), the name given by chemists to the subsulphate of mercury.

TURBOT (*Pleuronectes maximus*), a well known and highly esteemed species of fish. Very considerable quantities of turbot are now taken on various parts of our coasts, from the Orkneys to the Land's End, yet a preference is given in the London markets to those caught by the Dutch. The latter are said to have sometimes drawn as much as 80,000*l.* in a single year, for turbots sold in London.

Fresh turbots, however taken, or in whatever ship imported, may be imported free of duty.—(See FISH.)

TURMERIC, the root of the *Curcuma longa*. It is externally greyish, and internally of a deep lively yellow or saffron colour; very hard; and not unlike, either in figure or size, to ginger. That should be preferred, which is large, new, resinous, difficult to break, and heavy. It is imported from Bengal, Java, China, &c.; but some of a superior quality is said to have been brought from Tobago. Small quantities of it have also been grown in England. It has a somewhat aromatic, and not very agreeable smell; and a bitterish, slightly acrid, and rather warm taste. It used to be in considerable estimation as a medicine; but in Europe it is now used only as a dye. It yields a beautiful bright yellow colour; which, however, is extremely fugitive, and no means have hitherto been discovered of fixing it. It is sometimes employed to heighten the yellows made with weld, and to give an orange tint to scarlet; but the shade imparted by the turmeric soon disappears. The Indians use it to colour and season their food.—(*Lewis's Mat. Med.*; *Bancroft on Colours*, vol. i. p. 276.)

The imports of turmeric from all places eastward of the Cape of Good Hope were, in 1830, 1,867,764 lbs.; in 1831, 1,292,028 lbs.; and in 1832, 1,004,045 lbs.

Its price in bond in the London market, in March, 1834, was—Bengal, per cwt., 15*s.* to 16*s.*; Java, 24*s.* to 25*s.*; China, 25*s.* to 26*s.*

The duty on turmeric is 2*s.* 4*d.* per cwt. on that brought from a British possession, and 10*s.* per cwt. on that from a foreign country. The only effect of this injurious distinction is to force the use of an inferior article.

TURPENTINE (Ger. *Turpentin*; Fr. *Térébenthine*; It. *Trementina*; Rus. *Skipidar*; Pol. *Terpentyna*). There are several species of turpentine, but all of them possess the same general and chemical properties.

1. *Common Turpentine*, is a resinous juice which exudes from the Scotch fir or wild pine (*Pinus sylvestris*). The trees which are most exposed to the sun, and have the thickest barks, yield it in the greatest abundance. They begin to produce it when about 40 years old. The bark of the tree is wounded, and the turpentine flows out in drops, which fall into a hole, or sort of cup, previously dug at the foot of the tree, holding about 1½ pint. It is purified by being exposed to liquefy in the sun's rays, in barrels perforated in the bottom, through which it filters. In the United States, the collection of turpentine is confided chiefly to negroes, each of whom has the charge of from 3,000 to 4,000 trees. The process lasts all the year, although the incisions are not made in the trees till the middle of March, and the flow of the turpentine generally ceases about the end of October. The boxes are emptied 5 or 6 times during the year; and it is estimated that 250 boxes will produce a barrel weighing 320 lbs. Turpentine has a strong, somewhat fragrant odour, and a bitter disagreeable taste; its consistence is greater than that of honey; its colour dirty yellow; and it is more opaque than the other sorts. We import it almost entirely from the United States.

2. *Venice Turpentine*, is the produce of the larch (*Pinus Larix*). It is obtained by boring a hole into the heart of the tree about 2 feet from the ground, and fitting into it a small tube through which the turpentine flows into vessels prepared for its reception. It is purified by straining through cloths, or hair sieves. It is more fluid, having the consistence of new honey, a yellowish colour, and is less unpleasant to the smell and taste, than the common turpentine. Genuine Venetian turpentine is principally obtained from the forests

of Baye, in Provence; but much of that to be found in the shops comes from America, and is, perhaps, obtained from a different species of fir.

3. *Canadian Balsam*, or *Turpentine*, is obtained from incisions in the bark of the *Pinus Balsamea*, a native of the coldest regions of North America. It is imported in casks, each containing about 1 cwt. It has a strong, not disagreeable odour, and a bitterish taste; is transparent, whitish, and has the consistence of copaiva balsam.—(See BALSAM.)

4. *Chian* or *Cyprus Turpentine*, is obtained from the *Pistacia Terebinthus*, a native of the north of Africa and the south of Europe, and cultivated in Chios and Cyprus. It flows out of incisions made in the bark of the tree in the month of July; and is subsequently strained and purified. It has a fragrant odour, a moderately warm taste, devoid of acrimony or bitterness, and a white or very pale yellow colour; it is about as consistent as thick honey, is clear, transparent, and tenacious. From its comparative high price, Chian turpentine is seldom procured genuine, being for the most part adulterated either with Venetian or common turpentine. The different species of turpentine may be dissolved in rectified spirit, or pure alcohol; and, by distillation, they all give similar oils, which from their being distilled (and not from any resemblance to alcohol, or spirits properly so called), are vulgarly termed spirits of turpentine. If the distillation be performed with water, the produce is an essential oil, the common spirit of turpentine; and if the distillation be carried on in a *retort*, without water, the product is more volatile and pungent,—a concentrated oil, as it were,—and is called the ethereal spirit of turpentine. The residuum that is left, in both cases, is a brownish resinous mass, brittle, capable of being melted, highly inflammable, insoluble in water, but mixing freely with oils: it is the common rosin of commerce.—(*Lib. of Entert. Knowledge, Vegetable Substances; Thomson's Dispensatory.*)

The entries of turpentine for home consumption in 1831 and 1832 amounted, at an average, to 222,339 cwt. a year. It is almost entirely imported from the United States; so much so, that of 317,895 cwt. imported in 1831, 317,095 were supplied by them: the residue came from France.

TURPENTINE, OIL OF (Ger. *Terpentinöl*; Fr. *Eau de raze, Huile de térébenthine*; It. *Acqua di rasa*; Sp. *Aguarras*), the essential oil drawn from turpentine by distillation. There are two sorts of this oil: the best, red; and the second, white. It is very extensively used by house painters, and in the manufacture of varnish, &c. The distillers have been charged with using it in the preparation of gin. Oil of turpentine is very often adulterated.

TURQUOISE (Ger. *Türkis*; Fr. *Turquoise*; It. *Turchina*; Sp. *Turquesa*), a precious stone in considerable estimation. Its colour, which is its principal recommendation, is a beautiful celestial blue, which migrates into pale blue, and is sometimes tinged with green. Specific gravity, 3·127. It is destitute of lustre, opaque, and does not admit of a very high polish. It is much worn in necklaces, and in every part of ornamental jewellery, from the size of a pin's head to that of an almond: it contrasts beautifully with brilliants, or pearls, set in fine gold, and appears to most advantage when cut spheroidal.—(*Mawe on Diamonds*, 2d ed. p. 129.)

Real turquoises are exclusively furnished by Persia. The mines whence they are obtained are situated near Nishapore. They are the property of the Crown, and are farmed to the highest bidder. They bring a rent of from 2,000*l.* to 2,700*l.* a year.—(*Fraser's Travels on the Shores of the Caspian*, pp. 313–317.)

TUTENAG, the name given in commercial language to the zinc or spelter of China.—(See ZINC.) This commodity used to be smuggled from China (the exportation of unwrought metals from that empire being prohibited) to Hindostan, the Malay Archipelago, and neighbouring countries, to the amount, it is supposed, of about 50,000 cwt. a year. In 1820, the British free traders introduced German spelter for the first time into the Indian market. In 1826, the importation of tutenag from China into Calcutta ceased; and it has now been totally superseded throughout India by spelter. Of this latter commodity there were exported from Great Britain to all places eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, except China, at an average of the 3 years ending with 1832, 49,946 cwt. a year, besides the quantities furnished by Hamburgh, Rotterdam, Antwerp, and other continental ports.

TYRE, the principal city of Phœnicia, and the most celebrated emporium of the ancient world. This famous city was situated on the S. E. coast of the Mediterranean, where the inconsiderable town of Tsour now stands, in lat. 33° 17′ N., lon. 35° 14′ 35″ E. The trade that is at present carried on at Tsour is too trifling to deserve notice; but as this work is intended to give some account, however imperfect, of the revolutions in the channels of commercial enterprise, we may, perhaps, be excused for submitting a few statements with respect to the commerce carried on by so renowned a people as the Tyrians.

Tyre was founded by a colony from Sidon, the most ancient of the Phœnician cities. The date of this event is not certainly known, but Larcher supposes it to have been 1,690 years before the Christian era.—(*Chronologie d'Hérodote*, cap. ii. p. 131.) It is singular, that while Homer mentions Sidon, he takes no notice of Tyre, whose glory speedily eclipsed that of the mother city; but this is no conclusive proof that the latter was not then a considerable emporium. The prophets Isaiah, Jeremiah, and Ezekiel, who flourished from 700 to 600 years before Christ, represent Tyre as a city of unrivalled wealth, whose "merchants

were princes, and her traffickers the honourable of the earth." Originally, the city was built on the main land: but having been besieged for a lengthened period by the Babylonian monarch Nebuchadnezzar, the inhabitants conveyed themselves and their goods to an island at a little distance, where a new city was founded, which enjoyed an increased degree of celebrity and commercial prosperity. The old city was, on that account, entitled Palætyre, and the other simply Tyre. The new city continued to flourish, extending its colonies and its commerce on all sides, till it was attacked by Alexander the Great. The resistance made by the Tyrians to that conqueror showed that they had not been enervated by luxury, and that their martial virtues were nowise inferior to their commercial skill and enterprise. The overthrow of the Persian empire was effected with less difficulty than the capture of this single city. The victor had not magnanimity to treat the vanquished as their heroic conduct deserved. In despite, however, of the cruelties inflicted on the city, she rose again to considerable eminence. But the foundation of Alexandria, by diverting the commerce that had formerly centered at Tyre into a new channel, gave her an irreparable blow; and she gradually declined till, consistently with the denunciation of the prophet, her palaces have been levelled with the dust, and she has become "a place for the spreading of nets in the midst of the sea."

Commerce, Colonies, &c. of Tyre.—Phœnicia was one of the smallest countries of antiquity. It occupied that part of the Syrian coast which stretches from Aradus (the modern Ruad) on the north, to a little below Tyre on the south, a distance of about 50 leagues. Its breadth was much less considerable, being for the most part bounded by Mount Libanus to the east, and Mount Carmel on the south. The surface of this narrow tract was generally rugged and mountainous; and the soil in the valleys, though moderately fertile, did not afford sufficient supplies of food to feed the population. Libanus and its dependent ridges were, however, covered with timber suitable for ship building; and besides Tyre and Sidon, Phœnicia possessed the ports of Tripoli, Byblos, Berytus, &c. In this situation, occupying a country unable to supply them with sufficient quantities of corn, hemmed in by mountains, and by powerful and warlike neighbours, on the one hand, and having, on the other, the wide expanse of the Mediterranean, studded with islands, and surrounded by fertile countries, to invite the enterprise of her citizens, they were naturally led to engage in maritime and commercial adventures; and became the boldest and most experienced mariners, and the greatest discoverers, of ancient times.

From the remotest antiquity, a considerable trade seems to have been carried on between the Eastern and Western worlds. The spices, drugs, precious stones, and other valuable products of Arabia and India, have always been highly esteemed in Europe, and have exchanged for the gold and silver, the tin, wines, &c. of the latter. At the first dawn of authentic history, we find Phœnicia the principal centre of this commerce. Her inhabitants are designated in the early sacred writings by the name of Canaanites,—a term which, in the language of the East, means merchants. The products of Arabia, India, Persia, &c. were originally conveyed to her by companies of travelling merchants, or caravans; which seem to have been constituted in the same way, and to have performed exactly the same part in the commerce of the East, in the days of Jacob, that they do at present.—(*Gen.* xxxvii. 25. &c.) At a later period, however, in the reigns of David and Solomon, the Phœnicians, having formed an alliance with the Hebrews, acquired the ports of Elath and Eziongeber, at the north-east extremity of the Red Sea. Here they fitted out fleets, which traded with the ports on that sea, and probably with those of Southern Arabia, the west coast of India, and Ethiopia. The ships are said to have visited Ophir; and a great deal of erudition has been expended in attempting to determine the exact situation of that emporium or country. We agree, however, with Heeren, in thinking that it was not the name of any particular place; but that it was a sort of general designation given to the coasts of Arabia, India, and Africa, bordering on the Indian Ocean; somewhat in the same loose way as we now use the terms East and West Indies.—(See the chapter on the *Navigation and Commerce of the Phœnicians*, in the translation of Heeren's work.)

The distance of the Red Sea from Tyre being very considerable, the conveyance of goods from the one to the other by land must have been tedious and expensive. To lessen this inconvenience, the Tyrians, shortly after they got possession of Elath and Eziongeber, seized upon Rhinocolura, the port in the Mediterranean nearest to the Red Sea. The products of Arabia, India, &c., being carried thither by the most compendious route, were then put on board ships, and conveyed by a brief and easy voyage to Tyre. If we except the transit by Egypt, this was the shortest and most direct, and for that reason, no doubt, the cheapest, channel by which the commerce between Southern Asia and Europe could then be conducted. But it is not believed that the Phœnicians possessed any permanent footing on the Red Sea after the death of Solomon. The want of it does not, however, seem to have sensibly affected their trade; and Tyre continued, till the foundation of Alexandria, to be the grand emporium for Eastern products, with which it was abundantly supplied by caravans from Arabia, the bottom of the Persian Gulf, and from Babylon, by way of Palmyra.

The commerce of the Phœnicians with the countries bordering on the Mediterranean was still more extensive and valuable. At an early period, they established settlements in Cyprus and Rhodes. The former was a very valuable acquisition, from its proximity, the number of its ports, its fertility, and the variety of its vegetable and mineral productions. Having passed successively into Greece, Italy, and Sardinia, they proceeded to explore the southern shores of France and Spain, and the northern shores of Africa. They afterwards adventured upon the Atlantic; and were the first people whose flag was displayed beyond the pillars of Hercules.*

Of the colonies of Tyre, Gades, now Cadiz, was one of the most ancient and important. It is supposed by M. de St. Croix to have originally been distinguished by the name of Tartessus or Tarshish, mentioned in the sacred writings.—(*De l'Etat et du Sort des Anciennes Colonies*, p. 14.) Heeren, on the other hand, contends, as in the case of Ophir, that by Tarshish is to be understood the whole southern part of Spain, which was early occupied and settled by Phœnician colonists.—(See also *Huet, Commerce des Anciens*, cap. 8.) At all events, however, it is certain that Cadiz early became the centre of a commerce that extended all along the coasts of Europe as far as Britain, and perhaps the Baltic. There can be no doubt that by the Cassiterides, or Tin Islands, visited by the Phœnicians, is to be understood the Scilly Islands and Cornwall.—(See TIN.) The navigation of the Phœnicians, probably, also, extended a considerable way along the western coast of Africa; of this, however, no details have reached us.

But, of all the colonies founded by Tyre, Carthage has been by far the most celebrated. It was at first only a simple factory; but was materially increased by the arrival of a large body of colonists, forced by dissensions at home to leave their native land, about 883 years before Christ.—(*St. Croix*, p. 20.) Imbued with the enterprising mercantile spirit of their ancestors, the Carthaginians rose in no very long period to the highest eminence as a naval and commercial state. The settlements founded by the Phœnicians in Africa, Spain, Sicily, &c. gradually fell into their hands; and after the destruction of Tyre by Alexander, Carthage engrossed a large share of the commerce of which it had previously been the centre. The subsequent history of Carthage, and the misfortunes by which she was overwhelmed, are well known. We shall only, therefore, observe, that commerce, instead of being, as some shallow theorists have imagined, the cause of her decline, was the real source of her power and greatness; the means by which she was enabled to wage a lengthened, doubtful, and desperate contest with Rome herself for the empire of the world.

The commerce and navigation of Tyre probably attained their maximum from 650 to 550 years before Christ. At that period the Tyrians were the factors and merchants of the civilised world; and they enjoyed an undisputed pre-eminence in maritime affairs. The prophet Ezekiel (chap. xxvii.) has described in magnificent terms the glory of Tyre; and has enumerated several of the most valuable productions found in her markets, and the countries whence they were brought. The fir trees of Senir (Hermon), the cedars of Lebanon, the oaks of Bashan (the country to the east of Galilee), the ivory of the Indies, the fine linen of Egypt, and the purple and hyacinth of the isles of Elishah (Peloponnesus), are specified among the articles used for her ships. The inhabitants of Sidon, Arvad (Aradus), Gebel (Byblos), served her as mariners and carpenters. Gold, silver, lead, tin, iron, and vessels of brass; slaves, horses, mules, sheep, and goats; pearls, precious stones, and coral; wheat, balm, honey, oil, spices, and gums; wine, wool, and silk; are mentioned as being brought into the port of Tyre by sea, or to its markets by land, from Syria, Arabia, Damascus, Greece, Tarshish, and other places, the exact site of which it is difficult to determine.†

Such, according to the inspired writer, was Tyre, the "Queen of the waters," before she was besieged by Nebuchadnezzar. But, as has been already remarked, the result of that siege did not affect her trade, which was as successfully and advantageously carried on from the new city as from the old. Inasmuch, however, as Carthage soon after began to rival her as a maritime and mercantile state, this may, perhaps, be considered as the era of her greatest celebrity.

It would not be easy to over-rate the beneficial influence of that extensive commerce from which the Phœnicians derived such immense wealth. It inspired the people with whom they traded with new wants and desires, at the same time that it gave them the means of gratifying them. It every where gave fresh life to industry, and a new and powerful stimulus to invention. The rude uncivilised inhabitants of Greece, Spain, and Northern Africa acquired some knowledge of the arts and sciences practised by the Phœnicians; and the advantages of which they were found to be productive secured their gradual though slow advancement.

Nor were the Phœnicians celebrated only for their wealth, and the extent of their com-

* Mons Calpe and Mons Abyla, the Gibraltar and Ceuta of modern times.

† There is, in Dr. Vincent's *Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients in the Indian Ocean* (vol. ii. pp. 634–652), an elaborate and (like the other parts of that work) prolix commentary on this chapter of Ezekiel, in which most of the names of the things and places mentioned are satisfactorily explained.—(See also *Heeren on the Phœnicians*, cap. iv.)

merce and navigation. Their fame, and their right to be classed amongst those who have conferred the greatest benefits on mankind, rest on a still more unassailable foundation. Antiquity is unanimous in ascribing to them the invention and practice of all those arts, sciences, and contrivances that facilitate the prosecution of commercial undertakings. They are held to be the inventors of arithmetic, weights and measures, of money, of the art of keeping accounts, and, in short, of every thing that belongs to the business of a counting-house. They were, also, famous for the invention of ship building and navigation; for the discovery of glass—(see GLASS); for their manufactures of fine linen and tapestry; for their skill in architecture, and in the art of working metals and ivory; and still more for the incomparable splendour and beauty of their purple dye.—(See the learned and invaluable work of the President de Goguet, *Sur L'Origine des Loix, &c.* Eng. trans. vol. i. p. 296., and vol. ii. pp. 95—100.; see also the chapter of Heeren on the *Manufactures and Land Commerce of the Phœnicians.*)

But the invention and dissemination of these highly useful arts form but a part of what the people of Europe owe to the Phœnicians. It is not possible to say in what degree the religion of the Greeks was borrowed from theirs; but that it was to a pretty large extent seems abundantly certain. Hercules, under the name of Melcarthus, was the tutelar deity of Tyre; and his expeditions along the shores of the Mediterranean, and to the straits connecting it with the ocean, seem to be merely a poetical representation of the progress of the Phœnician navigators, who introduced arts and civilisation, and established the worship of Hercules, wherever they went. The temple erected in honour of the god at Gades was long regarded with peculiar veneration.

The Greeks were, however, indebted to the Phœnicians, not merely for the rudiments of civilisation, but for the great instrument of its future progress—the gift of letters! No fact in ancient history is better established than that a knowledge of alphabetic writing was first carried to Greece by Phœnician adventurers: and it may be safely affirmed, that this was the greatest boon any people ever received at the hands of another.

Before quitting this subject, we may briefly advert to the statement of Herodotus with respect to the circumnavigation of Africa by Phœnician sailors. The venerable father of history mentions, that a fleet fitted out by Necho king of Egypt, but manned and commanded by Phœnicians, took its departure from a port on the Red Sea, at an epoch which is believed to correspond with the year 604 before the Christian era, and that keeping always to the right, they doubled the southern promontory of Africa; and returned, after a voyage of 3 years, to Egypt, by the Pillars of Hercules.—(*Herod.* lib. iv. § 42.) Herodotus further mentions, that they related that, in sailing round Africa, they had the sun on their right hand, or to the north,—a circumstance which he frankly acknowledges seemed incredible to him, but which, as every one is now aware, must have been the case if the voyage was actually performed.

Many learned and able writers, and particularly Gosselin (*Recherches sur la Géographie Systématique et Positive des Anciens*, tome i. pp. 204—217.), have treated this account as fabulous. But the objections of Gosselin have been successfully answered in an elaborate note by Larcher (*Hérodote*, tome iii. pp. 458—464. ed. 1802.; and Major Rennell has sufficiently demonstrated the practicability of the voyage (*Geography of Herodotus*, p. 682. &c.). Without entering upon this discussion, we may observe, that not one of those who question the authenticity of the account given by Herodotus, presume to doubt that the Phœnicians braved the boisterous seas on the coasts of Spain, Gaul, and Britain; and that they had, partially at least, explored the Indian Ocean. But the ships and seamen that did this much, might, undoubtedly, under favourable circumstances, double the Cape of Good Hope. The relation of Herodotus has, besides, such an appearance of good faith: and the circumstance which he doubts, of the navigators having the sun on the right, affords so strong a confirmation of its truth; that there really seems no reasonable ground for doubting that the Phœnicians preceded, by 2,000 years, Vasco de Gama in his perilous enterprise.

Present State of Syria.—The principal modern ports on the coast of Syria are Alexandretta, Latakia, Tripoli, Beyrout, Seyde, and Acre. The commerce which they carry on is but inconsiderable. This, however, is not owing to the badness of the ports, the unsuitableness of the country, or to any natural cause, but wholly to long continued oppression and misgovernment. There is a passage in the dedication to Sandys' *Travels*, that describes the modern state of Syria, Asia Minor, Egypt, &c. with a force and eloquence which it is not very likely will soon be surpassed:—

"Those countries, once so glorious and famous for their happy estate, are now, through vice and ingratitude, become the most deplored spectacles of extreme misery; the wild beasts of mankinde having broken in upon them and rooted out all civilitie, and the pride of a sterne and barbarous tyrant possessing the thrones of ancient and just dominion. Who, ayming onely at the height of greatnesse and sensualitie, hath in tract of time reduced so great and goodly a part of the world, to that lamentable distresse and servitude under which (to the astonishment of the understanding beholders) it now faints and groneth. Those

rich lands at this present remain waste and overgrowne with bushes, receptacles of wild beasts, of theeves and murderers; large territories dispeopled or thinly inhabited; goodly cities made desolate; sumptuous buildings become ruines; glorious temples either subverted, or prostituted to impietie; true religion discountenanced and oppressed; all nobilitie extinguished; no light of learning permitted, nor vertue cherished; violence and rapine insulting over all, and leaving no securitie save to an abject mind and unlookt on povertie."

Those who compare this beautiful passage with the authentic statements of Volney—incomparably the best of the modern travellers who have visited the countries referred to—will find that it is as accurate as it is eloquent.

U. V.

VALONIA, a species of acorn, forming a very considerable article of export from the Morea and the Levant. The more substance there is in the husk, or cup of the acorn, the better. It is of a bright drab colour, which it preserves so long as it is kept dry: any dampness injures it; as it then turns black, and loses both its strength and value. It is principally used by tanners, and is always in demand. Though a very bulky article, it is uniformly bought and sold by weight. A ship can only take a small proportion of her registered tonnage of valonia, so that its freight per ton is always high. The price in the London market, in March, 1834, varied from 12*l.* to 15*l.* per ton.

The entries of valonia for home consumption in 1831 and 1832 amounted, at an average, to 146,846 cwt. a year. Of 134,307 cwt. of valonia, imported in 1831, 102,236 were brought from Turkey and Continental Greece, exclusive of the Morea; 17,645 cwt. mostly at second hand, from Italy and the Italian islands; 7,461 cwt. from the Ionian Islands; 3,116 from the Morea and the Greek islands; and 3,839 cwt. from the Philippines.

VALPARAISO, the principal sea-port of Chili, in lat. 33° 1′ 48″ S., long. 71° 31′ 8″ W. Population uncertain, perhaps 6,000 or 7,000. The water in the bay is deep, and it affords a secure anchorage, except during northerly gales, to the violence of which it is exposed; but as the holding ground is good, and the pull of the anchor against a steep hill, accidents seldom occur to ships properly found in anchors and cables. There is no mole or jetty; but the water close to the shore is so deep, that it is customary for the smaller class of vessels to carry out an anchor to the northward, and to moor the ship with the stern ashore by another cable made fast to the shore. Large ships lie a little further off, and load and unload by means of lighters. The best shelter is in that part called the Fisherman's Bay, lying between the castle and fort St. Antonio, where, close to a clear shingle beach, there is 9 fathoms water. In the very worst weather, a landing may be effected in this part of the bay.—(See *Miers's Travels in Chili and La Plata*, vol. i. p. 440., where there is a plan of Valparaiso.) The harbours of Valdivia and Concepcion are much superior to that of Valparaiso; the former being, indeed, not only the best in Chili, but second to few in any part of the world. But Valparaiso, being near the capital, Santiago, and being the central *dépôt* for the resources of the province, is most frequented. The town is inconveniently situated, at the extremity of a mountainous ridge; most of the houses being built either upon its acclivity or in its breaches. Large quantities of corn and other articles of provision are shipped here for Callao and Panama, but principally for the former. Exclusive of wheat, the principal articles of export are tallow and hides, copper, the precious metals, indigo, wool, sarsaparilla, &c. It appears from the account laid before the reader in another article—(see vol. ii. p. 345.),—that the produce of the gold mines of Chili, had materially increased during the 20 years ending with 1829, as compared with the previous 20 years. At present, the average produce of both the gold and silver mines may, we believe, be taken at about 175,000*l.* a year. There is a great want of capital in the country; and the anarchy and insecurity that have prevailed since the commencement of the revolutionary war have been very unfavourable to all sorts of industry. There can, however, be no doubt that Chili has already gained considerably, and that she will every day gain more, by her emancipation from the yoke of Old Spain. The trade we carry on with this distant country already amounts to above 1,000,000*l.* a year; and there can be no doubt that it will become far more extensive. In 1831, the declared or real value of the exports of British produce and manufactures from this country to Chili amounted to 651,617*l.*; of this sum, the exports of cotton goods amounted to about 460,000*l.*, those of woollens to 158,000*l.*, linen to 19,000*l.* &c. Chili also imports spices, tea, wine, sugar, coffee, tobacco, &c. A small part, however, of the imports are re-exported for Peru.

A country with a scanty population, which imports so extensively, cannot be in the wretched condition that Mr. Miers and other disappointed travellers would have us believe. The candour and good sense of M. de la Perouse are above all question; and every one who compares his remarks on the condition of Chili with what has now been stated, must see that its commerce, at least, has gained prodigiously by the revolution.

"The influence of the government is in constant opposition to that of the climate. The system of prohibition exists at Chili in its fullest extent. This kingdom, of which the productions would, if increased to their maximum, supply all Europe; whose wool would be sufficient for the manufactures of France and England; and whose herds, converted into salt provisions, would produce a vast revenue;—this kingdom, alas! has no commerce. Four or five small vessels bring, every year, from Lima, tobacco, sugar, and some articles of European manufacture, which the miserable inhabitants can obtain only at second or third hand, after they have been charged with heavy customs duties at Cadiz, at Lima, and lastly, at their arrival in Chili; in exchange they give their tallow, hides, some deals, and their wheat, which, however, is at so low a price, that the cultivator has no inducement to extend his tillage. Thus Chili, with all its gold, and articles of exchange, can scarcely procure sugars, tobacco, stuffs, linens, cambrics, and hardware, necessary to the ordinary wants of life."—(*Perouse's Voyage*, vol. i. p. 50. Eng. ed.)

Instead, however, of 4 or 5 small ships from Lima, in 1831, 43 British ships, carrying 8,281 tons, entered Valparaiso only, besides several at the other ports! All sorts of European goods are carried direct to Chili, and are admitted at reasonable duties. The advantages resulting from this extensive intercourse with foreigners, and from the settlement of English adventurers in the country, have been already immense, and will every day become more visible. It was impossible, considering the ignorance of the mass of the people, that the old system of tyranny and superstition could be pulled to pieces without a good deal of violence and mischief; but the foundations of a better order of things have been laid; nor can there be a doubt that Chili is destined to become an opulent and a flourishing country.

Monies, Weights, and Measures of Chili are the same as those of Spain; for which, see CADIZ. The quintal of 4 arrobas, or 100 lbs., = 101·44 lbs. avoirdupois. The fanega, or principal corn measure, contains 3,439 English cubic inches, and is therefore = 1·599 Winch. bushels. Hence 5 fanegas = 1 Winch. quarter very nearly. The vara, or measure of length, = 33·384 Eng. inches.

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND, a large island belonging to Great Britain, forming part of Australia, lying between 41° 20′ and 43° 30′ S. lat., and 144° 40′ and 148° 20′ W. long. It is supposed to contain about 15,000,000 acres.

This land was discovered by the Dutch navigator Tasman, in 1642, and was named in honour of Anthony Van Diemen, at that time governor-general of the Dutch possessions in the East Indies. Previously to 1798, it was supposed to form part of New Holland, but it was then ascertained to be an island. It was taken possession of by the British in 1803; and in 1804, Hobart Town, the capital, was founded.

The surface is generally hilly and mountainous; but, though none of the land be of the first quality, there are several moderately fertile plains, and a good deal of the hilly ground is susceptible of being cultivated. On the whole, however, it is not supposed that more than about a third part of the entire surface of the island can be considered arable; but about a third more may be advantageously used as sheep pasture. As compared with New Holland, it is well watered. The climate, though very variable, is, generally speaking, good, and suitable for European constitutions; and it is not exposed to the tremendous droughts that occasion so much mischief in New South Wales. Wheat is raised in considerable quantities. Wool, however, is at present the staple produce of the colony.

Van Diemen's Land, like New South Wales, was originally intended to serve as a penal colony, and convicts are still sent to it; latterly, however, it has received a very considerable number of free settlers. In 1830, the total population of the island, exclusive of aborigines, amounted to 23,169, of whom about 10,000 were convicts. The disparity between the sexes is not quite so great here as in New South Wales.

The prosperity of the colony was formerly a good deal retarded by the enormities committed by a banditti of runaway convicts, known by the name of bush-rangers; and more recently by the hostilities of the natives. Vigorous measures have, however, been adopted for the suppression of such outrages, by confining the natives within a limited district; and it is to be hoped that they may be effectual.

Hobart Town is situated in the southern part of the island, on the west side of the river Derwent, near its junction with Storm Bay, in lat. 42° 54′ S., lon. 147° 28′ E. The water is deep, and the anchorage good. A jetty has been constructed, accessible to the largest ships. The situation appears to have been very well chosen; and the town has been judiciously laid out. In December, 1832, the district of Hobart Town contained 10,101 inhabitants, of which were, *free*, males 3,850, females 2,776; *convicts*, males 2,699, females 776. The population of the town itself, at the epoch referred to, was about 9,600. The houses are supposed to be worth, at an average, 50*l.* a year. There are several printing establishments in the town, and no fewer than 9 or 10 newspapers, some of them very well conducted. There is also a Book Society, a Mechanics' Institute, and several respectable schools and academies. The Van Diemen's Land Banking Company, the Derwent Bank, and the Commercial Bank, have each offices in Hobart Town. They are joint-stock companies.

Launceston, the second town in the island, is situated in the northern part, at the head of the navigable river Tamar, which falls into Port Dalrymple. Its population may amount

to about 5,000. It has a considerable trade with Sydney and Hobart Town, and recently it has begun to trade direct to England.

Trade of Van Diemen's Land.—Imports.—Malt liquors, rum, brandy, and wine, form the principal part of the imports into the colony. Next to them are piece goods, hardware, tea, sugar, &c.

Account of the Exports from the United Kingdom to Van Diemen's Land during each of the Five Years ending with 1831.

Articles.		1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.
British and Irish produce and manufactures,	*Declared value.*					
Apparel, slops, and haberdashery	*L.*	19,092	23,251	19,674	26,119	24,018
Beer and ale	"	7,885	4,209	5,049	7,438	8,540
Cabinet and upholstery wares	"	540	188	313	1,356	464
Cotton manufactures	"	11,107	11,206	4,534	8,291	19,018
Glass and earthenware	"	3,501	6,185	3,549	4,972	5,018
Iron, steel, and hardwares	"	9,717	12,838	7,378	10,269	16,011
Leather and saddlery	"	1,359	2,430	1,098	2,562	2,660
Linens	"	4,089	2,518	1,248	3,158	3,340
Sheep	"	286	2,240	108	168	80
Silks	"	940	1,902	1,204	2,291	3,761
Soap and candles	"	2,079	940	532	880	999
Stationery	"	3,097	3,165	1,770	1,948	2,547
Woollen goods	"	6,734	5,397	4,945	7,919	8,376
All other articles	"	16,133	20,566	8,245	15,814	17,124
Total	*L.*	86,099	102,751	65,901	94,480	119,444
Foreign and colonial produce,	*Quantities.*					
Sheep	Number	206	625	"	115	
Spirits, brandy	proof gals.	12,994	25,256	7,315	1,776	2,278
geneva	"	2,827	4,430	4,231	1,748	1,679
rum	"	73,178	77,193	21,441	20,204	56,088
of the British North American colonies	"	7,895	"	"	"	"
Tea	lbs.	2,446	3,536	600	2,076	2,096
Wines	gallons	85,532	20,456	18,196	16,084	18,119

Exclusive of the imports from the mother country, Van Diemen's Land imports sugar from the Mauritius, wine and fruit from the Cape, tea from China or Singapore, piece goods from India, tobacco from Brazil, and beef, bacon, cheese, horses, &c. from New South Wales. According to the statement in the papers published by the Board of Trade (vol. i. p. 251.), the total value of the imports in 1830, was 253,208*l.*; of which, 153,478*l.* was supplied by Great Britain, 93,251*l.* by British possessions, and 6,569*l.* by foreign states.

Exports.—Wool forms by far the principal article of export, and next to it is wheat, principally sent to Sydney, whale oil, whalebone, timber, mimosa bark, live stock, potatoes, &c. The increase in the exports of wool is quite extraordinary. It is almost wholly brought to England.

Account of the Imports of Wool from Van Diemen's Land into the United Kingdom from 1827 to 1833, both inclusive.

Years.	Lbs.	Years.	Lbs.	Years.	Lbs.	Years.	Lbs.
1827	191,075	1829	285,330	1831	1,259,208	1833	1,547,301*
1828	86[illegible],846	1830	993,979	1832	951,131		

In 1831, the imports of whale oil from Van Diemen's Land amounted to 848 tuns; and during the same year, 39,264 cwt. of bark were imported. The total real value of the articles exported in 1830 was estimated at 170,000*l.*, distributed as follows:—

Articles.	Amount.	Articles.	Amount.
	L.		*L.*
Wool	48,000	Hides	600
Wheat	40,000	Seal skins	400
Oil	17,000	Opossum and kangaroo skins	400
Whalebone	6,000	Mimosa bark	2,000
Timber	3,000	Timber	1,000
Live stock	5,080	Unenumerated goods	41,600
Potatoes	4,500		
Barley and oats	800	Total *L.*	170,000

Coins, Weights, and Measures, same as in England. The Spanish dollar circulates at 4*s.* 4*d.*

Shipping, &c.—In 1830, there belonged to the island 26 vessels, of the aggregate burden of 2,151 tons.

Arrivals at Hobart Town in 1832.—There arrived during the year, 51 ships, of the burden of 18,214 tons; 25 brigs, of 4,201 tons; and 29 schooners, of 1,948 tons; making in all, 105 vessels, of the burden of 24,363 tons. Of these, were from England 41, New South Wales 35, India and China 3, Swan River 3, New Zealand 6, fishery 2, Mauritius 5, Launceston 10, and Desolation Island 1.

Revenue, &c.—The customs duties collected in the colony amount to about 50,000*l.* a year, and the whole ordinary revenue is about 70,000*l.*; to which has to be added, the revenue derived from the sale of land, and other sources. Government contributes about 120,000*l.* a year in aid of the colonial revenue, to defray the expenses of the convict establishments, &c.

For the regulations as to the granting of land in Van Diemen's Land, &c., see SYDNEY.

Immigrants.—Of these there arrived at Van Diemen's Land, during 1832, men 926, women 769, children 416; in all, 2,131.

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* The imports of wool from New South Wales in 1832, were 1 969,608 lbs.; making the total imports from Australia in that year, 3,516,860 lbs.

Prices of Provisions at Hobart Town, December, 1832.

	s. d.	s. d.
Beef, per lb.	0 9 to	0 10
Mutton, do.	0 5½ —	0 6
Veal, do.	0 5 —	0 9
Pork, do.	0 9 —	0 9
Goose	0 0 —	10 0
Turkey	12 0 —	14 0
Bread, the quarten loaf		0 8

The average prices during the year 1832 were—

	s. d.	s. d.
Salt-fed beef, per lb.	0 8 to	0 11
Mutton, do.	0 4½ —	0 7½
Pork, do.	0 5 —	0 8
Veal, do.	0 9 —	0 10
Hay, from 4*l.* to 8*l.* 8*s.* per ton.		

By comparing these prices with those of Sydney (*ante*, p. 576), the greater cheapness of the principal necessaries of life at the latter is obvious; house rent is also higher at Hobart Town. But it would appear that wages are rather higher in Van Diemen's Land than in New South Wales. Drunkenness is the great vice of the free, as well as of the convict population; and it is this, and not the facility of acquiring land, that renders it so difficult to procure good servants in Australia. Lieutenant Breton says, that the free women sent to the colony by government have proved no great acquisition, except by increasing the population; but we hardly think that this can be the case.

Encouragement to Emigrants.—Government has recently come to a resolution to advance, by way of loan, a sum not exceeding 30*l.* each, to a given number of young and married agricultural labourers, intending to emigrate to Australia with their wives and families. The following are the conditions as to this advance:—

Conditions under which Government will make advances to Emigrants to New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land.—No advance will be made except to young and married agricultural labourers, who intend taking their wives and families with them; and a strict inquiry will be instituted into their character and habits of industry, before the assistance they solicit will be granted to them.

No 1 family will be allowed an advance exceeding 30*l.*; and it will be useless therefore for parties, who may not possess the remainder of the sum requisite for defraying the expense of their passage, to apply for assistance.

Every person desirous of receiving the proposed advance must fill up, and send back to the Under Secretary of State for the Colonial Department, the Return hereto annexed. (Copies of this Return may be had from any of the agents for emigration mentioned below.) If the information contained in this Return, and the answers to the inquiries which may be addressed to the parties who certify the correctness of the return, shall be considered satisfactory, the applicant will receive notice to that effect. He may then proceed to make his agreement with the owners or masters of ships proceeding to New South Wales or Van Diemen's land; and as soon as any ship owner or master shall notify (in a form which will be provided for that purpose) that the emigrant has taken the other necessary steps for engaging his passage, an order will be granted for the payment, in the colony, of 30*l.* to the agent or master of the vessel in which this emigrant may arrive. The emigrant will of course be able to obtain a corresponding deduction from the amount to be paid by himself in this country.

The order for payment will be intrusted to the master of the vessel in which the emigrant is to proceed, and will consist of a sealed despatch to the governor, containing the name and description of the party on whose account the money is to be paid, and enclosing a promissory note, which he will be required to sign in acknowledgment of his debt;—which note must be witnessed by the captain and chief mate of the vessel. But arrangements will be made, by which the payment of this order will not take place in the colony, until the captain shall have produced the parties, on whose account it is to be made, before the officer appointed for that purpose; and they shall have entered into a fresh obligation for the repayment of the advance made to them. For it is the intention of his Majesty's government, and cannot be too clearly understood by all persons who may accept this loan, that repayment of the debt (in such proportions, and at such intervals, as may not be unsuitable to the circumstances of each emigrant) shall be strictly enforced, by means of the ample powers which the laws of the colony render available for that purpose.

Government agents for emigration have been appointed at Liverpool, Bristol, Dublin, Cork, Limerick, Belfast, and Greenock; who have been instructed to afford gratuitous information to all persons applying to them, as to the best means of carrying their schemes of emigration into effect. Parties, therefore, who may reside in the neighbourhood of these agents, are requested to apply to them either personally (or if by letter, post paid) for information on this subject.

All applications for the assistance of government must be made by letter only, addressed to R. W. Hay, Esq., Under Secretary of State, London; and should the number of applications be greater than the funds at their disposal will enable them to comply with, priority of date will form the rule of selection among applications in which there shall appear no other ground of distinction.

Downing Street, 6th April, 1834.

Custom-house Regulations, Rates of Pilotage, Harbour Dues, etc.

Custom-house Regulations.

(Hours for public business from 10 to 3 daily, excepting on Saturday, from 10 to 12.)

	L. s. d.
Entry of a British vessel, not coloial, with merchandise	1 10 0
Entry of any foreign vessel	3 0 0
Permission to trade	1 1 0
Dues on each boat	0 10 6
Dues on port clearance and fee	0 7 6

Transports are free from port charges.

Colonial Vessels.—Entry, and clearance to the outports 0 4 0
Fee on ditto 0 2 0
Entry and clearance to the fishery or to the out settlement 0 10 0
Fee on ditto 0 2 0
Clearance of an open boat 0 1 0
Annual license for a boat 0 2 6

Duties.—On brandy, per gallon 0 10 0
On Hollands or geneva, per gallon 0 10 0
On rum, per gallon, the produce of the West Indian colonies 0 7 6
On British gin, per gallon 0 7 6
On tobacco, per lb. 0 1 6

The duty on all spirits, either British or foreign, is increased in proportion to strength, if over proof, according to Sykes's hydrometer.

On all merchandise of foreign produce or manufacture, an *ad valorem* duty of 5 per cent. on importation, agreeably to the act of 4 Geo. 4. c. 96., with the exception of wine, which is subjected to a duty of 15 per cent. Goods of British manufacture are not subjected to any duty.

	L. s. d.
Wharfage.—On landing each cask, bale, or package	0 0 9
On landing iron, per ton	0 9 0
On landing salt, per ton	0 3 0
On landing timber, per 1,000 feet	0 2 0
On shipping each cask, bale, or package	0 0 3
On shipping iron, per ton	0 0 6
On shipping salt, per ton	0 1 0

Colonial produce, when landed or shipped, is not subjected to any charge, except for a sufferance.

	L. s. d.
Fees.—A sufferance to land or ship goods	0 1 0
A warrant to remove goods from under bond	0 1 0
On landing each cask or package of spirits or wine	0 0 6
On the registry of vessels not exceeding 40 tons	0 0 0
On the registry of vessels above 40 tons, per ton	0 1 0
To the chief clerk, on the registry of vessels	0 10 0
On indorsing change of master	0 10 0

Warehouse Rent and Charges.—A government order published the 7th of February, 1828, fixes the following rents on spirits and tobacco, in the king's bonded stores, viz.—

1st. All spirituous liquors, 1*s.* 6*d.* per ton *of* 252 gallons, for every week, or any period less than a week, during which the same shall be deposited.

2dly. Tobacco, 6*d.* per ton for every week, or any period less than week, during which the same shall be deposited.

3dly. The amount of all such warehouse rent, in respect of any cask or package required to be delivered, must be paid before the same can be so delivered.

4thly. No allowance whatsoever will at any time be made, in respect of, nor will the government be answerable for, any loss by fire, leakage, robbery, or casualty of any kind.

Government Order, 28th of February, 1829.—Representations having been made to the lieutenant governor, of the inconvenience and delay attending the stowing and unstowing of goods in the bonded warehouses, a gang of men has been appointed to be employed under the storekeeper for this purpose exclusively, and the following scale of charges will be required to be paid:—

For Spirits.—Per pipe, 3-4 pipe, or puncheon, each, stowing 9*d.* unstowing 1*s.* 6*d.*

Per 1-2 pipe, hogshead, or barrel, stowing 6*d.*, unstowing 3*s.*

Per case containing 9 or more dozen bottles, stowing 3*d.*, unstowing 4*d.*

Per case containing a less quantity than 3 dozen, stowing 2*d.*, unstowing 3*d.*

For Tobacco.—In large serons, each, stowing 6*d.*, unstowing 9*d.*

In cases, each, stowing 3*d.*, unstowing 4*d.*

In kegs, each, stowing 2*d.*, unstowing 3*d.*

In baskets, rolls, or small serons, stowing 1*d.*, unstowing 1*d.*

In consequence of this arrangement, it is to be understood that no labourers are to be admitted into, or employed at, the bonded warehouse, except the storekeeper's gang.

Goods intended to be warehoused under bond must be landed before 12 o'clock.

Hours of attendance at the Custom house quay, from 9 o'clock till 4 from the 1st of September to the 30th of April, and from 9 till 4 from the 1st of May till the 31st of August.

The appointed days for opening the bonding warehouse for the delivery of goods, are, Mondays and Thursdays in every week, at 1 o'clock, on which days the duties must be paid prior to 12 o'clock. Tobacco is issued on the same days, from 10 to 12 o'clock.

Rates of Pilotage at the Derwent.

Draught of water.	In.	Out.
	L. s. d.	*L.* s. d.
10 feet and under	3 0 11 1-4	2 7 4 3-4
11 ditto	3 3 4 1-2	2 9 3 1-4
12 ditto	3 8 8	2 13 1 1-2
13 ditto	3 15 6 3-4	2 18 9 1-2
14 ditto	4 5 8 3-4	3 6 4
15 ditto	4 19 11 1-4	3 17 8 1-2
16 ditto	5 17 0	4 11 0
17 ditto	7 1 4 1-2	5 9 11
18 ditto	8 13 0 3-4	6 14 7 1-2
19 ditto	10 14 6	8 6 10
20 ditto	13 3 3	10 4 9

At Port Dalrymple.

Proceeding above Whirlpool Reach.	*L.* s. d.	Remaining below Whirlpool Reach. *L.* s. d.
7 feet and under	2 5 6	1 10 4
Above 7 feet, per foot	0 6 6	0 4 4

If the pilot does not board the vessel outside the middle ground at

in Roads at George Town, or the weather not permitting his going sooner, if he be not ready to show the channel by keeping his boat a fair way until the ship can be boarded, he shall forfeit 1-3 the pilotage inwards

For every number of inches below 6, no charge is to be made; for 6 feet and upwards, 1 foot is to be charged

Colonial vessels are exempted from the payment of pilotage, unless the master shall make the signal for a pilot and accept his service.

Harbour Dues at the Derwent

	£. s. d.
For mooring and unmooring a vessel within the harbour, per register ton	0 0 1
For each removal of the ship within the harbour, per register ton	0 0 1

Colonial vessels under 90 tons per register, to be exempted from the payment of the foregoing dues, unless the services of the harbour master be specifically required.

At Port Dalrymple.

	£. s. d.
For each removal of a ship or vessel from anchorage or moorings, to other anchorage or moorings, under 200 tons	0 15 0
200 tons and under 300	1 0 0
300 tons and under 400	1 10 0
400 tons and under 500	2 0 0
500 tons and upwards	2 10 0

Each vessel entering the harbour will be charged with 2 removes.
Vessels belonging to the port are not to pay harbour dues.
No vessels to be deemed colonial that are not registered in Van Diemen's Land.

These details have been principally derived from *An Account of Van Diemen's Land*, published at Hobart Town in 1833; and partly from Lieut. Breton's book, and different *Parliamentary Papers*.

(*Population.*—Including military, the total population of Van Diemen's Land amounted, in December, 1838, to 45,846, of whom 18,133 were convicts. The males are to the females in the proportion of about 7 to 4, and the free to the convict population nearly as 37 to 18. The total estimated value of the articles of colonial produce exported from the colony in 1838 was 581,475*l.*: the value of the imports during the same year being 702,956*l.*

Statement of the Value of the different Articles exported from Van Diemen's Land in 1835.

Articles	Amount	Articles.	Amount.
	£.		£.
Wool	149,894	Potatoes	2,761
Wheat	40,769	Hides, seal skins, opossum and kangaroo skins	3,243
Oil	64,160	Bark	11,882
Whalebone	10,695	Unenumerated goods	41,586
Flour	5,090		
Live stock	7,125	Total	320,676

The progress of the colony during the last few years has been singularly rapid, particularly in the breeding of sheep, its staple branch of industry. In 1828, for example, the stock of sheep amounted to 533,698 head, whereas in 1838 it had increased to 1,214,485 head! The export of wool has increased in a like proportion, having advanced from 99,415 lbs. in 1820, to 903,979 lbs. in 1830, and to 2,609,520 lbs. in 1838! The revenue of the colony was 58,483*l.* in 1827, and 138,591*l.* in 1838. In the latter year there belonged to the colony 101 vessels, of the aggregate burden of 8,382 tons.—*Sup.*)

VANILLA, the fruit of the *Epidendrum Vanilla*, a species of vine extensively cultivated in Mexico. It has a trailing stem, not unlike the common ivy, but not so woody, which attaches itself to any tree that grows near it. The Indians propagate it by planting cuttings at the foot of trees selected for that purpose. It rises to the height of 18 or 20 feet; the flowers are of a greenish yellow colour, mixed with white; the fruit is about 8 or 10 inches long, of a yellow colour when gathered, but dark brown or black when imported into Europe; it is wrinkled on the outside, and full of a vast number of seeds like grains of sand, having, when properly prepared, a peculiar and delicious fragrance. It is principally used for mixing with and perfuming chocolate, and is, on that account, largely imported into Spain; but as chocolate, owing to oppressive duties, is little used in England, vanilla is not much known in this country.

Vanilla is principally gathered in the intendancy of Vera Cruz, in Mexico, at Misantla, Colipa, Vacuatla, and other places. It is collected by the Indians, who sell it to the whites (*gente de razon*), who prepare it for the market. They spread it to dry in sun for some hours, then wrap it in woollen cloths to sweat. Like pepper, it changes its colour in this operation—becoming almost black. It is finally dried by exposing it to the sun for a day. There are four varieties of vanilla, all differing in price and excellence; viz. the *vanilla fina*, the *zacate*, the *rezacate*, and the *vasura*. The best comes from the forests surrounding the village of Zentila, in the intendancy of Oaxaca. According to Humboldt, the mean exportation of vanilla from Vera Cruz may amount to from 900 to 1,000 millares, worth at Vera Cruz from 30,000 to 40,000 dollars.—Vanilla is also imported from Brazil, but it is very inferior. The finest Mexican vanilla is extremely high priced. All sorts are subjected in this country to a duty of 5*s.* per lb.—(See *Humboldt, Nouvelle Espagne*, 2d edit. tome iii. pp. 37. 46.; *Poinsett's Notes on Mexico*, p. 194. &c.)

VELLUM, a species of fine parchment.—(See PARCHMENT.)

(VENEZUELA.—An account of the trade of La Guayra, the principal port of this republic, in 1829, 1830, and 1831, is given under the article LA GUAYRA. The following details with respect to the foreign trade of the republic in 1833–34, are taken from the official statements contained in the Report of the *Secretario de Hacienda*, published at Caraccas in 1835.

Exports.—Account of the Quantities and Values of the principal Articles exported by Sea from Venezuela in 1833–34.

Articles.	Quantity.	Value.	Articles.	Quantity.	Value.
	Lbs.	*Dollars.*		*Lbs.*	*Dollars.*
Coffee	11,602,634	1,293,655	Dye-woods	17,506,853	73,925
Cacao	5,514,916	705,348	Tobacco, hides, balsa, and all other articles		816,857
Indigo	431,602	804,818	Total		3,594,483

Imports.—During the same year the total value of the imports was 3,296,411 dollars; of these the value of the cotton goods was 1,063,527 dollars; linens, 615,270 dollars; woollens, 75,437 dollars; silk, 90,912 dollars; flour, 140,770 dollars; pork, 123,477 dollars, &c.

Statement of the Import and Export Trade of Venezuela, in 1833-34, exhibiting the Amount of the Trade with each Country.

Countries.	Imports and Exports.			Duties on Imports and Exports.		
	Imports.	Exports.	Totals.	Imports.	Exports.	Totals.
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
Great Britain	997,742·76	420,542·08	1,418,284·84	238,882·35	46,479·16	285,361·51
United States	783,081·33	1,113,490·38	1,896,571·71	272,709·38	33,514·25	306,230·63
France	91,969·21	39,750·21	131,719·42	25,734·88	5,757·49	31,490 37
Germany	346,371·96	364,627·26	711,499·22	103,249·96	10,339·52	113,589·48
Spain	82,366·01	206,750·66	289,148·67	12,550·81	9,774·36	22,325·17
New Grenada	141 80	18,784·33	18,926·23	46·87	197 49	244·36
Holland	90,597·29	158,459·46	249,056·75	27,510·56	3,961·71	31,372 27
Denmark	260,101·15	740,815·33	1,730,306·48	268,856·90	27,778·38	296,674·28
Mexico	5,030		5,030			
Sardinia		22,858·19	22,858·19		966 83	966·83
Hyti		1,018·90	1,018·90		2 92	2·92
Various	66,416 30	18,316·67	86,732 97	19,163·58	821·63	19,985·21
Totals	3,296,411·31	3,394,483 41	6,690,894·72	969,536·31	117,699·82	1,087,236 13

The trade under the head of Denmark is entirely carried on with the island of St. Thomas.

The total imports and exports from La Guayra in 1833-34 were 3,541,190 dollars, being more than half the trade of the republic. The imports and exports from Puerto Cabello during the same year were 1,445,721 dollars; the rest were from Maracaybo, Guiana, &c. The countries to which the shipping frequenting the ports of the republic belonged, is not specified; but, in all, there cleared out 242 foreign ships of the burden of 22,532 tons.—*Sup.*)

VENICE, a famous city of Austrian Italy, formerly the capital of the republic of that name, situated on a cluster of small islands towards the northern extremity of the Adriatic, in lat. 45° 25′ 53″ N., lon. 12° 20′ 31″ E. Population about 100,000. The commerce of Venice, once the most extensive of any European city, is now comparatively trifling; and the population is gradually diminishing both in numbers and wealth. Her imports consist of wheat, and other sorts of grain, from the adjoining provinces of Lombardy and the Black Sea; olive oil, principally from the Ionian Islands; cotton stuffs and hardware from England; sugar, coffee, and other colonial products from England, the United States, Brazil, &c.; dried fish, dye stuffs, &c. The exports principally consist of grain, raw and wrought silk, paper, woollen manufactures, fruits, cheese, &c., the products of the adjoining provinces of Italy, and of her own industry; but her manufactures, so famous in the middle ages, are now much decayed.

Port.—The islands on which Venice is built lie within a line of long, low, narrow islands, running N. and S., and enclosing what is termed the lagoon, or shallows, that surround the city, and separate it from the main land. The principal entrance from the sea to the lagoon is at Malamocco, about 1½ league S. from the city; but there are other, though less frequented, entrances, both to the S. and the N. of this one. There is a bar outside Malamocco, on which there are not more than 10 feet at high water at spring tides; but there is a channel between the western point of the bar and the village of San Pietro, which has 16 feet water at springs, and 14 at neaps. Merchant vessels usually moor off the ducal palace; but sometimes they come into the grand canal which intersects the city, and sometimes they moor in the wider channel of the Giudecca. Vessels coming from the south for the most part make Pirano or Rovigno on the coast of Istria, where they take on board pilots, who carry them to the bar opposite to Malamocco. But the employment of Istrian pilots is quite optional with the master, and is not, as is sometimes represented, a compulsory regulation. When one is taken, the usual fee from Pirano or Rovigno to the bar is 20 Austrian dollars, or about 4*l.* On arriving at the bar, ships are conducted across it and into port by pilots, whose duty it is to meet them outside, or on the bar, and of whose services they must avail themselves.—(For the charges on account of pilotage, see *post.*)

Money.—Formerly there were various methods of accounting here; but now accounts are kept, as at Genoa, in lire Italiane, divided into centesimi, or 100th parts. The lira is supposed to be of the same weight, fineness, and, consequently, value as the franc. But the coins *actually in circulation*, denominated lire, are respectively equal in sterling value to about 5*d.* and 4½*d.* The latter are coined by the Austrian government.

Weights and Measures.—The commercial weights are here, as at Genoa, of two sorts; the *peso sottile* and the *peso grosso*. The French kilogramme, called the libbra Italiana, is also sometimes introduced.

100 lbs. peso grosso =	105·186 lbs. avoirdupois.	100 lbs. peso sottile =	66·428 lbs. avoirdupois.
—	127·830 lbs. Troy.	—	80·728 lbs. Troy.
—	47·698 kilogrammes.	—	30·123 kilogrammes.
—	98·485 lbs. of Hamburgh.	—	62·196 lbs. of Hamburgh.
—	96·569 lbs. of Amsterdam.	—	60·986 lbs. of Amsterdam.

The moggio, or measure for corn, is divided into 4 staje, 16 quarte, or 64 quartaroli. The staja = 2·27 Winch. bushels.

The measure for wine, anfora = 4 bigonzi, or 8 mastelli, or 48 secchi, or 192 bozze, or 768 quartuzzi. It contains 137 English wine gallons.

The botta = 5 bigonzi. Oil is sold by weight or measure. The botta contains 2 migliaje, or 80 miri of 25 lbs. peso grosso. The miro = 4·028 English wine gallons.

The braccio, or long measure, for woollens = 26·6 English inches; the braccio for silks = 21·8 do. The foot of Venice = 13·68 English inches.—(*Nelkenbrecher*, and *Dr. Kelly.*)

Historical Notice.—Venice was the earliest, and for a lengthened period the most considerable, commercial city of modern Europe. Her origin dates from the invasion of Italy by Attila in 452. A number of the inhabitants of Aquileia, and the neighbouring territory, flying from the ravages of the barbarians, found a pure but secure asylum in the cluster of small islands opposite to the mouth of the Brenta, near the head of the Adriatic Gulf. In

this situation they were forced to cultivate commerce and its subsidiary arts, as the only means by which they could maintain themselves. At a very early period they began to trade with Constantinople and the Levant; and notwithstanding the competition of the Genoese and Pisans, they continued to engross the principal trade in Eastern products, till the discovery of a route to India by the Cape of Good Hope turned this traffic into a totally new channel. The crusades contributed to increase the wealth, and to extend the commerce and the possessions of Venice. Towards the middle of the 15th century, when the Turkish sultan, Mahomet II., entered Constantinople sword in hand, and placed himself on the throne of Constantine and Justinian, the power of the Venetians had attained its maximum. At that period, besides several extensive, populous, and well cultivated provinces in Lombardy, the republic was mistress of Crete and Cyprus, of the greater part of the Morea, and most of the isles in the Egean Sea. She had secured a chain of forts and factories that extended along the coasts of Greece from the Morea to Dalmatia; while she monopolised almost the whole foreign trade of Egypt. The preservation of this monopoly, of the absolute dominion she had early usurped over the Adriatic, and of the dependence of her colonies and distant establishments, were amongst the principal objects of the Venetian government; and the measures it adopted in that view were at once skilfully devised, and prosecuted with inflexible constancy. With the single exception of Rome, Venice, in the 15th century, was by far the richest and most magnificent of European cities; and her singular situation in the midst of the sea, on which she seems to float, contributed to impress those who visited her with still higher notions of her wealth and grandeur. Sannazarius is not the only one who has preferred Venice to the ancient capital of the world; but none have so beautifully expressed their preference.

Viderat Adriacis Venetam Neptunus in undis,
  Stare urbem, et toto ponere jura mari.
Nunc mihi Tarpeias quantumvis, Jupiter, arces
  Objice, et illa tua mœnia Martis, ait:
Si Tiberim pelago præfers, urbem aspice utramque,
  Illam homines dicas, hanc posuisse Deos.

Though justly regarded as one of the principal bulwarks of Christendom against the Turks, Venice had to contend, in the early part of the 16th century, against a combination of the European powers. The famous league of Cambray, of which Pope Julius II. was the real author, was formed for the avowed purpose of effecting the entire subjugation of the Venetians, and the partition of their territories. The emperor and the kings of France and Spain joined this powerful confederacy. But, owing less to the valour of the Venetians, than to dissensions amongst their enemies, the league was speedily dissolved without materially weakening the power of the republic. From that period the policy of Venice was comparatively pacific and cautious. But notwithstanding her efforts to keep on good terms with the Turks, the latter invaded Cyprus in 1570; and conquered it after a gallant resistance, continued for 11 years. The Venetians had the principal share in the decisive victory gained over the Turks at Lepanto in 1571: but owing to the discordant views of the confederates, it was not properly followed up, and could not prevent the fall of Cyprus.

The war with the Turks in Candia commenced in 1645, and continued till 1670. The Venetians exerted all their energies in defence of this valuable island; and its acquisition cost the Turks above 200,000 men. The loss of Candia, and the rapid decline of the commerce of the republic, now almost wholly turned into other channels, reduced Venice, at the close of the 17th century, to a state of great exhaustion. She may be said, indeed, to have owed the last 100 years of her existence more to the forbearance and jealousies of others than to any strength of her own. Nothing, however, could avert that fate she had seen overwhelm so many once powerful states. In 1797, the "maiden city" submitted to the yoke of the conqueror: and the last surviving witness of antiquity—the link that united the ancient to the modern world—stripped of independence, of commerce, and of wealth, is now slowly sinking into the waves whence she arose.

The foundation of Venice is described by Gibbon, c. 35.; and in his 60th chapter he has eloquently depicted her prosperity in the year 1200. Mr. Hallam, in his work on the *Middle Ages* (vol. i. pp. 470–487.), has given a brief account of the changes of the Venetian government. Her history occupies a considerable space in the voluminous work of *M.* Sismondi on the *Italian Republics*; but his details as to her trade and commercial policy are singularly meagre and uninteresting. All previous histories of Venice have, however, been thrown into the shade by the admirable work of M. Daru (*Histoire de la République de Venise*, 2d ed. 8 vols. 8vo. Paris, 1821.) Having had access to genuine sources of information, inaccessible to all his predecessors, M. Daru's work is as superior to theirs in accuracy, as it is in most other qualities required in a history.

Trade, Navigation, and Manufactures of the Venetians in the 15th Century.—The Venetian ships of the largest class were denominated galeasses, and were fitted up for the double purpose of war and commerce. Some of them carried 50 pieces of cannon, and crews of 600 men. These vessels were sometimes, also, called argosers or argosies. They had early an intercourse with England; and argosies used to be common in our ports. In 1325, Edward II. entered into a commercial treaty with Venice, in which full liberty is given

to them, for 10 years, to sell their merchandise in England, and to return home in safety, without being made answerable, as was the practice in those days, for the crimes or debts of other strangers.—(*Anderson's Chron. Deduction, Anno* 1325.) Sir William Monson mentions, that the last argosie that sailed from Venice for England was lost, with a rich cargo and many passengers, on the coast of the Isle of Wight, in 1587.

In the beginning of the 15th century, the annual value of the goods exported from Venice by sea, exclusive of those exported to the states adjoining her provinces in Lombardy, was estimated, by contemporary writers, at 10,000,000 ducats; the profits of the out and home voyage, including freight, being estimated at 4,000,000 ducats. At the period in question, the Venetian shipping consisted of 3,000 vessels of from 100 to 200 tons burden, carrying 17,000 sailors; 300 ships with 8,000 sailors; and 45 galleys of various size, kept afloat by the republic for the protection of her trade, &c., having 11,000 men on board. In the dock-yard, 16,000 labourers were usually employed.* The trade to Syria and Egypt seems to have been conducted principally by ready money; for 500,000 ducats are said to have been annually exported to these countries; 100,000 were sent to England.—(*Daru*, tome ii. p. 189. &c.) The vessels of Venice visited every port of the Mediterranean, and every coast of Europe; and her maritime commerce was, probably, not much inferior to that of all the rest of Christendom. So late as 1518, 5 Venetian galeasses arrived at Antwerp, laden with spices, drugs, silks, &c. for the fair at that city.

The Venetians did not, however, confine themselves to the supply of Europe with the commodities of the East, and to the extension and improvement of navigation. They attempted new arts, and prosecuted them with vigour and success, at a period when they were entirely unknown in other European countries. The glass manufacture of Venice was the first, and for a long time the most celebrated, of any in Europe; and her manufactures of silk, cloth of gold, leather, refined sugar, &c. were deservedly esteemed. The jealousy of the government, and their intolerance of any thing like free discussion, was unfavourable to the production of great literary works. Every scholar is, however, aware of the fame which Venice early acquired by the perfection to which she carried the art of printing. The classics that issued from the Aldine presses are still universally and justly admired for their beauty and correctness. The Bank of Venice was established in the 12th century. It continued throughout a bank of deposit merely, and was skilfully conducted.

But the policy of government, though favourable to the introduction and establishment of manufactures, was fatal to their progressive advancement. The importation of foreign manufactured commodities into the territories of the republic for domestic consumption was forbidden under the severest penalties. The processes to be followed in the manufacture of most articles were regulated by law.—"*Dès l'année* 1172, *un tribunal avoit été crée pour la police des arts et métiers, la qualité et la quantité des matières furent soigneusement déterminées.*"—(*Daru*, tome iii. p. 153.) Having, in this way, little to fear from foreign competition, and being tied down to a system of routine, there was nothing left to stimulate invention and discovery; and during the last century the manufactures of Venice were chiefly remarkable as evincing the extraordinary perfection to which they had early arrived, and the absence of all recent improvements. An unexceptionable judge, M. Berthollet, employed by the French government to report on the state of the arts of Venice, observed, "*Que l'industrie des Vénitiens, comme celle des Chinois, avoit été précoce, mais éloit restée stationnaire.*"—(*Daru*, tome iii. p. 161.)

M. Daru has given the following extract from an article in the statutes of the State Inquisition, which strikingly displays the real character of the Venetian government, and their jealousy of foreigners:—"If any workman or artisan carry his art to a foreign country, to the prejudice of the republic, he shall be ordered to return; if he do not obey, his nearest relations shall be imprisoned, that his regard for them may induce him to come back. If he return, the past shall be forgiven, and employment shall be provided for him at Venice. If, in despite of the imprisonment of his relations, he persevere in his absence, an *emissary shall be employed to despatch him*; and after his death his relations shall be set at liberty!" —(Tom. iii. p. 150.)

The 19th book of M. Daru's history contains a comprehensive and well-digested account of the commerce, manufactures, and navigation of Venice. But it was not possible, in a work on the general history of the republic, to enter so fully into the details as to these subjects as their importance would have justified. The *Storia Civile e Politica del Commercio de' Venetiani*, di Carlo Antonio Marin, in 8 vols. 8vo., published at Venice at different periods, from 1798 to 1808, is unworthy of the title. It contains, indeed, a great many curious statements; but it is exceedingly prolix; and while the most unimportant and trivial subjects are frequently discussed at extreme length, many of great interest are either entirely omitted, or are treated in a very brief and unsatisfactory manner. The commercial history of Venice remains to be written; and were it executed by a person of competent attainments, it would be a most valuable acquisition.

Present Trade of Venice.—From the period when Venice came into the possession of Austria, down to 1830, it seems to have been the policy of the government to encourage Trieste in preference to Venice; and the circumstance of the former being a free port, gave her a very decided advantage over

* This is the statement of the native authorities; but there can be no doubt that it is much exaggerated;—1,000 would be a more reasonable number.

the latter. Latterly, however, a more equitable policy has prevailed. In 1830, Venice was made a free port; and has since fully participated in every privilege conferred on Trieste. But, notwithstanding this circumstance, the latter still continues to preserve the ascendancy; and the revival of trade that has taken place at Venice has not been so great as might have been anticipated. The truth is, that except in so far as she is the *entrepôt* of the adjoining provinces of Lombardy, Venice has no considerable natural advantage as a trading city; and her extraordinary prosperity during the middle ages is more to be ascribed to the comparative security enjoyed by the inhabitants, and to their success in engrossing the principal share of the commerce of the Levant, than to any other circumstance. Still, however, the trade is far from inconsiderable. But, unfortunately, there are no means by which to ascertain its precise amount. The statements subjoined are to be regarded merely as rough approximations; they have, however, been obtained from the best sources, and come as near the mark as it is perhaps possible to attain. By far the largest part of the exports from Venice are made through Trieste by coasting vessels, that are every day passing between the two cities. The smuggling of prohibited and overtaxed articles into Austrian Lombardy is also practised to a great extent. It is believed that fully 2-3ds of the coffee made use of in Lombardy is clandestinely introduced; and sugar, British cottons, and hardware, with a variety of other articles, are supplied through illegitimate channels. The facilities for smuggling, owing to the nature of the frontier, and the ease with which the officers are corrupted, are such, that the articles passing through the hands of the fair trader affords no test of the real extent of the business done. It is to be hoped that the Austrian government will take an enlightened view of this important matter. It cannot but be anxious for the suppression of smuggling; and it may be assured that this is not practicable otherwise than by a reduction of the duties. The regulations as to the payment of the duties on goods destined for the interior, the clearing of ships, &c., are the same at Venice as Trieste; which see.

Shipping.—There belonged in Venice in 1832—

Vessels.	No.	Tonnage.	Men.
In foreign trade	104	21,841	1,114
coasting do.	107	8,208	646
	211	30,049	1,760

Fishing boats are not of a size to be rated as vessels of tonnage; but Mr. Money thinks that not less than 16,000 of the population subsist by fishing near the port and over the lagoon. The tonnage of Venice has not recently been either on the increase or the decline. Its inconsiderable amount, compared with what it once was, is a striking proof of the decline of this famous emporium.

Arrivals of Ships in the Port of Venice during the Years 1829, 1830, and 1831.

Under what Flag.	1829.		1830.		1831.	
	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.	Number of Vessels.	Tonnage.
British	10	1,507	26	3,520	25	3,098
Hanoverian	1	108	2	320	1	80
Ionian	1	44				
Austrian	108	23,875	157	29,404	170	26,829
French	1	99	4	399	1	87
Dutch	1	318	5	1,009	2	458
Swedish	5	973	9	1,049	7	1,125
Danish			3	367	3	440
Neapolitan	45	12,585	30	7,630	28	6,609
Papal	1	92	5	409	5	559
Sardinian	2	396	5	625	3	488
Greek	4	122	4	520	7	434
Tuscan			1	51		
Russian			4	615	2	461
Turkish					1	200

A steam-packet has been established between Venice and Trieste; but it is of indifferent construction, and has not succeeded so well as might have been expected.

Shipping Charges in the Port of Venice on Ships of different Nations of the Burden of 300 Tons.

Description of Charge.	If Austrian, or of a Nation having a Treaty of Reciprocity with Austria.		If of a Nation not having a Treaty of Reciprocity with Austria.	
	Austrian Livres.	*L. s. d.*	*Austrian Livres.*	*L. s. d.*
Pilotage.				
From the bar to the place of finally mooring	61 57	2 1 0 1-2	61 57	2 1 0 1-2
Out of the port of departure	61 57	2 1 0 1-2	61 57	2 1 0 1-2
Tonnage Duty.				
One Austrian livre (8d. sterling) per ton (Originally levied on all ships not Austrian.)	Free.		300 0	10 0 0
Clearing Charges.				
If to a port out of the Gulf of Venice (but if to a port in the Gulf, 1s. 2 1-4d. less in all cases)	2 80	0 1 6 1-2	18 76	0 11 2 1-4
Quarantine Charges.				
If performing 7 days, being the usual time for vessels from England	99 97	1 6 2	53 88	1 16 7
Total of ordinary charges	164 71	5 9 9 1-2	493 80	16 8 10 1-4
If in long quarantine, all ships pay extra	35 74	0 17 2	35 74	0 17 2
If departing in ballast, or with less than 1-2 a cargo, all ships not Austrian, or not under treaty to be charged as such, pay extra tonnage duty, 45 cents (about 3 1-4d. sterling) per ton, being, on a 300 ton ship	Free.		135 0	4 10 0
Total of extreme charges	190 45	6 6 11 1-2	653 94	21 16 0 1-4

IMPORTS.—A Statement of the Quantity and Value in British Sterling Money, Weights, &c. of the different Articles furnished by each of the subjoined Places, and imported into Venice, during the Years 1829, 1830, and 1831.

Places.	Articles.	1829. English Weight or Measure.	1829. Quantity.	1829. Value in Sterling.	1830. English Weight or Measure.	1830. Quantity.	1830. Value in Sterling.	1831. English Weight or Measure.	1831. Quantity.	1831. Value in Sterling.
				£.			£.			£.
England	Coffee	. .	. .	. .	cwt.	285	754	cwt.	511	926
	Cotton wool	. .	. .	. .	—	980	1,138	—	812	1,466
	Dye woods	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	value	. .	642
	Fish, herrings, pilchards	tons	9,500	13,864	barrels —	11,200 2,937	13,131 9,801	barrels —	9,767 5,562	3,726 16,686
	Indigo	. .	. .	. .	lbs.	18,400	2,776	lbs.	7,600	1,212
	Iron	. .	. .	. .	tons	49	980	tons	1,627	8,135
	Manuf. cotton	. .	. .	. .	sup. value	. .	50,000	sup. value	. .	50,000
	Sugar	. .	. .	. .	tons	718	17,405	tons	1,205	30,485
	Tinned plates	. .	. .	. .	value	. .	1,100	value	. .	884
Ionian Islands	Olive oil	tons	4,219	121,203	tons	6,234	207,695	tons	5,928	228,080
Norway	Pitch and tar	—	4,222	4,200						
	Stockfish	—	2,151	35,786	tons	173	2,607	tons	173	2,583
France (Marseilles)	Coffee	. .	. .	. .	cwt.	980	1,734	cwt.	986	856
	Cinnamon	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	lbs.	2,100	109
	Pepper	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	cwt.	196	286
Portugal (Lisbon)	Coffee	. .	. .	. .	cwt.	980	1,318	—	1,120	2,184
	Sugar	. .	. .	. .	—	1,110	1,404	—	11,200	15,117
Amer. (Bahia & Rio)	Do.	. .	. .	. .	—	10,695	12,188	—	34,164	43,219
Alexandria	Coffee	. .	. .	. .	—	56	107	—	65	127
	Cotton wool	value	. .	1,500	—	1,010	3,010	—	1,240	3,695
	Linseed, &c.	. .	. .	. .	quarters	4,800	3,200			
	Indian corn	. .	. .	. .	—	4,988	2,741	quarters	6,968	5,226
Ancona	Do.	quarters	10,000	7,500	—	20,370	15,277	—	9,009	6,756
Naples	Linseed	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	—	3,590	6,320
Sicily	Olive oil	tons	2,100	65,490	tons	2,762	79,541	tons	2,964	70,540
Puglia	Wheat	. .	. .	. .	quarters	5,726	9,315	quarters	6,913	11,876
Odessa	Coffee	*	. .	. .	cwt.	21,088	41,010	cwt.	21,556	53,981
Trieste	Cotton wool	. .	. .	. .	—	10,256	30,568			
	Grain, wheat	. .	. .	. .	quarters	10,959	12,800	quarters	10,228	17,900
	maize	. .	. .	. .	—	980	652	—	2,064	1,548
	Linseed, &c.	. .	. .	. .	—	1,113	5,960	—	1,603	3,675
	Indigo	. .	. .	. .	lbs.	21,700	7,170	lbs.	14,500	4,219
	Iron	. .	. .	. .	tons	1,324	9,120	value	. .	100
	Manufact. silk	. .	. .	. .	sup. value	. .	80,000	sup. value	. .	75,300
	wool	. .	. .	. .	—	. .	23,000	—	. .	18,000
	cotton	. .	. .	. .	—	. .	90,000	—	. .	80,000
	Stockfish	. .	. .	. .	tons	56	835	tons	433	6,566
	Sugar	. .	. .	. .	—	1,831	46,273	—	2,102	53,181

EXPORTS.—An approximate Statement of the Quantities and Value in British Weights, Money, &c., of the principal Articles exported from the Venetian Provinces, during the Years 1829, 1830, and 1831.

Articles.	1829. English Weight.	1829. Quantity.	1829. Value Pounds Sterling.	1830. English Weight.	1830. Quantity.	1830. Value Pounds Sterling.	1831. English Weight.	1831. Quantity.	1831. Value Pounds Sterling.
Books	value	. .	7,272	value	. .	2,667	value	. .	6,352
Brick and stone	cwt.	10,442	578	cwt.	87,763	4,862	cwt.	135,418	7,502
Cattle (for Venice)	value	. .	10,682	value	. .	7,142	value	.	11,492
Cream of tartar	cwt.	576	1,706	cwt.	91	276	cwt.	4	15
Cotton manufactures	—	185	5,059	—	176	4,581	—	677	17,769
Grain: wheat	—	126,354	56,468	—	55,068	25,434	—	82,414	34,480
maize	—	14,297	6,455	—	36,210	16,310	—	33,557	15,128
rice	—	85,158	20,686	—	24,561	22,681	—	25,274	23,339
seeds	—	367	392	—	346	429	—	361	402
Hemp, raw	—	297	1,106	—	706	1,104	—	1,859	2,676
ropes, &c.	—	2,626	4,850	—	418	769	—	238	476
cloth, &c.	—	586	4,933	—	1,715	15,860	—	2,060	18,327
Iron bars and plates	—	1,830	1,963	—	2,980	2,827	—	1,947	1,979
beaten (steel)	—	904	2,007	—	1,245	2,961	—	1,118	3,031
manufactures	—	1,526	3,893	—	2,179	6,177	—	208	390
Oil of low quality	—	301	2,727	—	72	696	—	87	799
Silk, raw	—	123	3,062	—	188	6,417	—	231	14,991
sewing	—	947	21,085	—	940	25,462	—	404	40,067
spun	—	285	20,967	—	131	9,785	—	314	25,078
manufactures	. .	. .	. .	—	41	6,828	—	90	15,017
Salted fish	cwt.	7,435	5,206	—	1,312	978	—	2,171	1,604
Timber, &c.	value	. .	46,233	value	. .	11,432	value	. .	9,189
Wax, manufactured	cwt.	365	7,761	cwt.	190	1,443			
Woollen, manufactured	—	1,521	54,982	—	763	22,999	cwt.	1,004	29,759
Venice treacle	—	121	1,812	—	37	556			
Paper	—	19,251	71,146	—	24,566	90,926	cwt.	21,950	81,202

Banking Establishments.—The old bank of Venice was founded so far back as 1171, being the most ancient establishment of the kind in Europe. It was a bank of deposit; and such was the estimation in which it was held, that its paper continued to bear an agio as compared with coin down to 1797, when the bank fell with the government by which it had been guaranteed. At present there are no corporate banking establishments in the city; and no bank notes are in circulation. There are, however, several private banking houses, which buy, sell, and discount bills; and make advances on land and other securities. They are under no legal regulations of any sort, except formally declaring the amount of their capital to the authorities when they commence business. The legal and usual rate of interest and discount is 6 per cent. It is not the practice to allow interest on deposits. Bills on London are usually drawn at 3 months, and on Trieste at 1 month.

Brokers, Commission, &c.—The number of brokers is limited, and they are licensed by government; but the business of commission merchant and factor is open to every one. Before, however, commencing any trade or profession at Venice, a petition must be presented for leave to the authorities: but this is more a matter of form than any thing else; its prayer being rarely, if ever, refused.

The usual rate of commission and factorage on the purchase or sale of colonial produce is 2 per

* With the above exceptions, Trieste may be said to have wholly supplied Venice in the year 1829.

cent., and on manufactured goods 3 per cent., inclusive of broker's commission, 1 per cent. A ship broker's commission on the freight of a whole cargo is 2 per cent., and on a general cargo 4 per cent. By the custom of the place, merchants charge 2 per cent. on the inward, and 2 per cent. on the outward, freight of all ships consigned to them; and this, though they had done no more than recommend the master to a broker! A bill broker's commission is ½ per mille. Merchants and bankers charge a commission on internal bills of ¼ per cent., and on foreign do. of 1 per cent.

Insurances are effected by companies and individuals. The government charges no duty on the policies.

Communications with Lombardy are effected by flat-bottomed vessels, which, passing through the lagoon, enter the canals and rivers, and make their way through most part of the country watered by the Po and its tributaries. The freight of goods from Milan to Venice, distant about 170 miles, is about 1l. per ton. The principal products they bring down are grain, silk, hemp, and flax, cheese, rhubarb, &c. The country to the north of Venice affords large quantities of deals, which are shipped for Malta, Sicily, and the Levant.

Quarantine is enforced here the same as at Trieste. Ships coming from without the Straits of Gibraltar, provided there be no infectious disease on board, are admitted to *pratique* on performing a short quarantine of 7 days in a part of the lagoon, about a mile from the city. Long quarantine is performed a little farther off. The lazaretto, and establishments for passengers, &c. performing quarantine, are among the best in Europe. Ships having foul bills, or coming from suspicious places, are sent thither from Trieste.—(For the quarantine charges, see *ante*.)

Provisions, Ships' Stores, &c.—These articles may all be had at Venice of excellent quality, but not cheap, with, perhaps, the exception of bread. Water is conveyed to the city by lighters, and is, consequently, pretty dear; fuel is very scarce, and very high priced. We subjoin an account of the

Average Prices in Sterling Money, per Imperial Quarter, of the several Sorts of Grain at Venice for the Ten Years ending with 1831.

Years.	Wheat.	Maize.	Oats.	Rye.	Years.	Wheat.	Maize.	Oats.	Rye.
	L. s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.		*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.
1822	1 6 8	1 0 2	0 14 4	1 1 0	1827	1 19 10	1 2 0	0 14 9	1 3 11
1823	1 6 3	1 0 8	0 13 4	1 0 4	1828	1 19 3	1 14 1	0 17 6	1 6 3
1824	1 2 10	0 17 10	0 11 7	0 17 7	1829	1 18 5	1 7 3	0 17 1	1 8 10
1825	1 0 5	0 16 9	0 11 0	0 14 10	1830	1 13 0	1 10 6	0 16 0	1 6 5
1826	1 7 3	0 18 9	0 9 9	0 17 6	1831	1 17 4	1 6 10	0 16 4	1 12 4

Taxes.—On goods leaving the free port of Venice for the interior of the Austrian states, the Custom-house allows no tares; but cases, casks, and other coverings go into the scale with their contents, and the duty is levied on the gross weight. Wine, spirits, &c. consumed in the city, being liable to an excise duty to cover the municipal expenses, have an allowance, if in iron-bound casks, of 18 per cent. on the weight; and if not in iron-bound casks, of 12 per cent. The tares allowed between merchants are as follow:—

Cotton wool, Pernambuco and Bahia	2 per cent.
East India, &c.	4 —
Sugar, Brazil	15 to 18 per cent.
Jamaica, muscovado	14 —
Bourbon, brown and yellow, and East India of all colours	6 —
refined, crushed	12 —
Brimstone	10 —
Italian hemp	2 —
Madder root	4 —
Hungary potash	10 —

On other articles, real tares are usually taken.

These details with respect to the present trade of Venice have been mostly derived from the well-digested and very valuable answers returned by the consul-general, Mr. Money, to the *Circular Queries*.

VERA CRUZ, the principal sea-port on the western coast of Mexico; lat. 19° 11′ 52″ N., long. 96° 8′ 45″ W. Population (supposed) 16,000. Opposite the town, at the distance of about 400 fathoms, is a small island, on which is built the strong castle of St. Juan d'Ulloa, which commands the town. The harbour lies between the town and the castle, and is exceedingly insecure; the anchorage being so very bad, that no vessel is considered safe unless made fast to rings fixed for the purpose in the castle wall: nor is this always a sufficient protection from the fury of the northerly winds (*los nortes*), which sometimes blow with tremendous violence. Humboldt mentions, in proof of what is now stated, that a ship of the line, moored by 9 cables to the castle, tore, during a tempest, the brass rings from the wall, and was dashed to pieces on the opposite shore.—(*Nouvelle Espagne*, ed. 2de, tome iv. p. 59.) Its extreme unhealthiness is, however, a more serious drawback upon Vera Cruz, than the badness of its port. It is said to be the original seat of the yellow fever. The city is well built, and the streets clean; but it is surrounded by sand hills and ponds of stagnant water, which, within the tropics, are quite enough to generate disease. The inhabitants, and those accustomed to the climate, are not subject to this formidable disorder; but all strangers, even those from Havannah and the West India islands, are liable to the infection. No precautions can prevent its attack; and many have died at Xalapa, on the road to Mexico, who merely passed through this pestilential spot. During the period that the foreign trade of Mexico was carried on exclusively by the *flota*, which sailed periodically from Cadiz, Vera Cruz was celebrated for its fair, held at the arrival of the ships. It was then crowded with dealers from Mexico, and most parts of Spanish America; but the abolition of the system of regular fleets in 1778 proved fatal to this fair, as well as to the still more celebrated fair of Portobello.

A light-house has been erected on the N.W. angle of the castle of St. Juan. The light, which is a revolving one of great power and brilliancy, is elevated 79 feet above the level of the sea.

The distance in a direct line from Mexico to Vera Cruz is about 70 leagues; but by the road it is about 93. Mexico being situated on a *plateau* elevated about 8,000 feet above the level of the sea, and the country being in many places very rugged, the road originally was so bad as to be hardly practicable, even for mules. During the last 30 years, immense sums have been laid out on its improvement; and a considerable part of it has been completed in the best, and, indeed, most splendid manner; but in many places it is still rough and unfinished, and does not admit of carriages being used. M. Humboldt seems to think, that

were this road completed, wheat and flour brought from the table land of Mexico might be shipped at Vera Cruz, and sold in the West Indies cheaper than the wheat and flour of the United States. But we agree with Mr. Poinsett in regarding any such expectation as quite chimerical. Though the advantage on the side of Mexico in respect of superior fertility of soil and cheapness of labour were decidedly greater than it really is, it would not balance the enormous expense of 300 miles of land carriage upon such bulky and heavy articles, more especially as the wagons would, in most cases, have to return empty. It is plain, however that the advantage of getting the produce of the mines, and the peculiar productions of the country, as cochineal, indigo, sugar, vanilla, tobacco, &c., conveyed with comparative facility to market, and of receiving back European goods at a proportionally less expense, will more than indemnify all the outlay that may be required to perfect the road, and will be of the very greatest importance to the republic; but it is quite out of the question to imagine that Vera Cruz is ever destined to become a rival of New Orleans in the exportation of corn and flour.

For a considerable period after the town of Vera Cruz had thrown off the Spanish yoke, the fortress of St. Juan d'Ulloa continued in possession of the Spaniards. During this interval, the commerce of Vera Cruz was almost entirely transferred to the port of Alvarado, 12 leagues to the south-east. Alvarado is built upon the left bank of a river of the same name. The bar at the mouth of the river, about 1½ mile below the town, renders it inaccessible for vessels drawing above 10 or 12 feet water. Large ships are obliged to anchor in the roads, where they are exposed to all the violence of the north winds, loading and unloading by means of lighters. Alvarado is supposed, but probably without much foundation, to be a little healthier than Vera Cruz. The trade has now mostly reverted to its old channel.

But within these few years, Tampico has risen to considerable importance as a commercial sea-port. It is situated about 60 leagues N.N.W. of Vera Cruz, in lat. 22° 15′ 30″ N., lon. 97° 52′ W., being about 104 leagues from Mexico. Hitherto it is said to have been free from fever. The shifting of the bar at the mouth of the river, and the shallowness of the water on it, which is sometimes under 8, and rarely above 15 feet, are serious obstacles to the growth of the port. Vessels coming in sight are boarded by pilots, who conduct them, provided they do not draw too much water, over the bar. Those that cannot enter the port load and unload by means of lighters; mooring so that they may get readily to sea in the event of a gale coming on from the north.

Exports and Imports.—The precious metals have always formed the principal article of exports from Mexico. During the 10 years ending with 1801, the average annual produce of the Mexican mines amounted, according to M. Humboldt, to 23,000,000 dollars—(*Nouvelle Espagne*, tome iv. p. 137.); and in 1805, the produce was 27,165,888 dollars.—(*Id.* tome iv. p. 83.) But during the revolutionary war, the old Spanish capitalists, to whom most of the mines belonged, being proscribed, emigrated with all the property they could scrape together: and this withdrawal of capital from the mines, added to the injury several of them sustained by the destruction of their works during the contest, the interruption of all regular pursuits which it occasioned, and the insecurity and anarchy that afterwards prevailed, caused an extraordinary falling off in the produce of the mines. Within these few years, however, a considerable improvement has taken place. The efforts, and the lavish expenditure, of a few of the companies formed in this country for working the mines, have been so far successful, that some of them have been got again into good order, and that a large increase of produce may be fairly anticipated, provided they are permitted to prosecute their operations without molestation. But, as we have elsewhere stated (see *antè*, p. 190.), some of the parties who sold or leased the mines, began to put forward claims never heard of before, the moment they perceived that there was a reasonable prospect of the companies succeeding; and in some instances they have not scrupled to enforce their claims by violence! It is to be hoped that the Mexican government will exert itself to repress these outrages. If it have power to put down, and yet wink at or tolerate such disgraceful proceedings, it will make itself responsible for the consequences; and will merit chastisement as well as contempt.

The total quantity of gold and silver coined in the different Mexican mints during the 4 years ending with 1829, was—

In 1826	8,608,978 dollars.	In 1828	9,082,905 dollars.
1827	10,619,217 —	1829	11,787,133 —

(*Parl. Paper*, No. 338. Sess. 1833.)

Besides the precious metals, cochineal, sugar, flour, indigo, provisions, leather, sarsaparilla, vanilla, jalap, soap, logwood, and pimento, are the principal articles exported from Vera Cruz.

The imports consist principally of linen, cotton, woollen, and silk goods, paper, brandy, cacao, quicksilver, iron, steel, wine, wax, &c.

According to the statement published by the Mexican government, the value of the imports and exports at Vera Cruz and Alvarado, in 1834, was as follows:—

	Dollars.
Imports from other Mexican ports	284,087
from American ports	4,360,568
from European and other foreign ports	7,437,375
Total	12,082,030

Exports for other Mexican ports	209,048
for American ports	3,023,422
for European and other ports	1,468,092
Total	4,692,557

This account is exclusive of the imports by government on account of the loan negotiated in London.

According to Humboldt, the imports at Vera Cruz, before the revolutionary struggles, might be estimated, at an average, at about 15,000,000 dollars, and the exports at about 22,000,000 ditto.

It must, however, be observed that this statement refers only to the *registered* articles, or to those that paid the duties on importation and exportation. But exclusive of these, the value of the articles clandestinely imported by the ports on the Gulf, previously to the revolution, was estimated at 4,500,000 dollars a year; and 2,500,000 dollars were supposed to be annually smuggled out of the country in plate and bars, and ingots of gold and silver. A regular contraband trade used to be carried on between Vera Cruz and Jamaica: and notwithstanding all the efforts of government for their exclusion, and the excessive severity of its laws against smuggling, the shops of Mexico were always pretty well supplied with the products of England and Germany.—(*Humboldt, Nouvelle Espagne*, tome iv. p. 125.; *Poinsett's Notes on Mexico*, p. 133.)

M. Humboldt states, that the total population of Mexico, exclusive of Guatemala, may be estimated at about 7,000,000. Of this number about ⅓ are Indians, the rest being Europeans, or descendants of Europeans, and mixed races. But notwithstanding this large amount of population, the trade we carry on with Mexico is very inferior to that which we carry on with Brazil. The following is an account of the real or declared value of all sorts of British produce and manufactures exported to the States of Central and Southern America in 1831:—

	£		£
Mexico	738,858	States of the Rio de la Plata	339,870
Guatemala	nil.	Chili	651,617
Colombia	248,250	Peru	409,003
Brazil	1,238,371		

The imports of British goods at second hand into Mexico and Colombia, from Jamaica, and the other West India islands, are no longer of any considerable importance; but considerable quantities are imported from New Orleans.

Mexico being, with the exception of the United States, the richest and most populous of all the American countries, the smallness of its trade with England may justly excite surprise. It originates principally, we believe, in the want of good ports and large cities on the coast, and the distance and difficulty of the roads from Vera Cruz and other ports to the healthy and elevated part of the country. These circumstances, coupled with the obstacles which the restrictive policy of the Spaniards threw in the way of the importation of foreign products, led to the establishment of manufactures in the interior. Previously to the commencement of the revolutionary struggles, some of these manufactures were in a very advanced state; and were sufficient to supply the population with most of the clothes and other articles required for their consumption. They have since declined considerably; but as it is pretty certain that the wealth of the inhabitants has declined still more, this circumstance has had little effect in increasing importation.

Revenues.—The revenues of Mexico have been, during the years (ended 30th of January),

1826	13,715,801 dollars.	1830	14,493,189 dollars.
1827	13,289,682 —	1831	16,922,299 —
1828	10,494,299 —	1832	16,413,060 —
1829	12,232,985 —		

Of these sums, about ⅓ have been produced by the customs duties. The latter amounted, in 1832, to 8,802,930 dollars. During the same year, the duties on imported cottons were 1,150,000 dollars, and those on the exportation of the precious metals 309,472 dollars. The total receipts of the Custom-house of Vera Cruz, in 1832, were 2,962,299 dollars, and those of Tampico 1,428,992 dollars.

Port Charges.—Foreign ships pay in the port of Vera Cruz—

	Dols.	reals.
Tonnage duty, &c. (per ton)	2	1
Pilotage on entering	15	4
— on leaving	19	0

A 5th part, or 20 per cent., is deducted from the duties on all commodities brought from a foreign port in Mexican ships. The Mexican Congress is, at this moment, engaged in discussions respecting a modification of the tariff.

Monies, Weights, and Measures, same as in Spain; for which, see CADIZ.

Duties, &c. at Vera Cruz.—The Mexican government issued, on the 16th of November, 1827, a new tariff, to which the following regulations were prefixed:—

Regulations as to the Mexican Tariff.

Vessels of all nations in amity with the United States of Mexico will be admitted to entry at the privileged ports of the republic, upon payment of the duties, and subject to the regulations to be observed at the maritime Custom-house, according to this tariff.

The anchorage duty is abolished, and all vessels arriving from foreign ports are to pay 2 dol 1 real per ton tonnage duty.

Foreign vessels will not be allowed to trade coastwise with the ports of the republic.

All vessels putting into any of the ports of this republic, by stress of weather or for refitment, will

be allowed the requisite time to complete their repairs or provisions, and will only have to pay such charges as are customary.

All vessels on their arrival are to present their manifests by triplicate, specifying the marks and numbers of the packages, with the particulars of their respective contents.

The duties will be levied on all goods according to their specification in the manifest, whether they are landed or not; and any article that shall be found not specified in the manifest, or any alteration in the quantity or quality, will subject such goods to seizure.

The weights and measures designated in the tariff are those used in Mexico; and any article exceeding the maximum annexed to the same shall, for every ½ of such excess in measurement, pay ½ increase of the duty affixed to the said article.

All articles not specified or enumerated in the tariff shall pay a duty of 40 per cent. on the valuation that may be fixed on the same at the port of entry; and for every such valuation, 3 brokers shall be appointed, 1 of whom is to be chosen by the importer, and the other 2 on the part of the Custom-house.

The *averia*, and all other duties lately payable in this republic under various denominations (excepting the State duty), are abolished.

The importer shall be liable for the whole amount of the duties; ½ of which is to be paid within 60 days from the day the goods are landed, and the other ½ within 90 days after the expiration of the latter period. No article will be allowed to be taken out of the Custom-house until the duties shall have been paid, or security given for the due payment of the same, to the satisfaction of the proper authorities.

All articles imported prior to this law taking effect are liable to the international duties as before.

After the duties have been once paid, no deduction or allowance whatever can be made on the same, excepting in cases where an error may have occurred.

No article will be allowed to be re-exported without previous payment of the import duties.

All goods that may arrive damaged shall be examined in presence of the proper authorities, and an allowance made according to the damage such goods shall have sustained.

All goods arriving direct from the place of their growth or manufacture, in vessels under the Mexican flag, are to pay 1-8th less duty than in foreign vessels.

The tariff may be altered at any time, whenever the Congress shall deem it expedient so to do; but no alteration which may be prejudicial to commerce in general shall be put in force until 6 months after such alteration shall have been decided upon.

The basis contained in the preceding articles are not intended to interfere with any separate treaty of commerce which has or may be entered into by this nation.

These regulations are to be put in force within 60 days from the date hereof.

Articles admitted into Mexico Duty free.

Quicksilver
Carts upon foreign construction.
Wooden frames for houses.
Printed books, maps, and music.
Philosophical, mathematical, and optical instruments.
Slates of all sorts.
Instruments for agriculture, mines, and artificers.
Carding wire.
Plants and seeds.

Articles prohibited to be imported into Mexico.

Aniseeds, cummins, and caraways.
Rum and molasses.
Sugar, raw or refined.
Coffee and chocolate.
Rice.
Leather.
Boots and shoes.
Saddlery of every description.
Salted and dried meats of all kinds.
Lard.
Wax, wrought.
Tallow.
Soap, hard or soft.
Epaulets, gold and silver lace, galloons, &c.
Tapes of cotton.
Shawls of silk or cotton.
Beds, bedding, and bed linen, made up, of every kind and description.
Copper, in sheets or pigs.
Lead, in sheet, pigs, or shot.
Biscuit.
Flour and wheat.
Vermicelli.
Cotton thread, under No. 20.
Stone ware.
Trunks and portmanteaus.
Woollen cloths, coarse and ordinary.
Parchment.
Wearing apparel of every description.
Common salt.
Hats, common, stuff, and leather.
Tobacco, in leaf or manufactured.

Export Duties.—All articles, the growth and produce of this republic, are free of duty on exportation, excepting gold in coin, or wrought, which pays 2 per cent. *ad valorem*; silver in coin, or wrought, which pays 3 1-2 per cent. *ad valorem*.

N. B.—Gold and silver ore, or in ingots or dust, are prohibited under penalty of seizure.

Notices to Masters of Vessels and Passengers proceeding to any Mexican Port.

Notice is hereby given to all masters of vessels proceding from London to any port or ports of the United States of Mexico, that the passengers they take out should be provided with passports, signed by his Excellency the minister of the republic, otherwise the vessels will be liable to detention on their arrival at those ports, and the passengers on board unprovided with such passports will not be permitted to land in the ports of Mexico. No plea for the want of them will be admitted.

Masters of vessels proceeding to and from those States are required to have on board all necessary papers and vouchers, which, according to the orders conveyed through his Excellency the Mexican minister plenipotentiary at the court of his Britannic Majesty, to this consulate, ought to consist of, besides the regular ship's papers, all the invoices of shippers, with the corresponding bills of lading. Merchandise found on board, which should not appear inserted in the invoices certified by the consul, or that otherwise is falsely described, either in quality or quantity, shall be considered and dealt with as contraband.

A bill of health, certified by the consul, will also be required from vessels on arrival, by the authorities at the Mexican ports.

The above regulations are to be in force from the date of this notice, Nov. 26. 1830.

Notice is hereby given, that the Congress of the United States of Mexico decreed, the 12th of October of the last year, that the Mexican envoys and consular agents must henceforward charge for each passport to Mexico 2 dollars, and for each certification and signature 4 dollars.

20, Austin-friars, 9th of Jan. 1831. The Vice-Consul, J. SCHEIDNAGEL.

VERDIGRIS (Ger. *Grünspan*; Fr. *Vert-de-gris*, *Verdet*; It. *Verderame*; Sp. *Cardenillo*, *Verdete*, *Verde-gris*; Rus. *Jar*), a kind of rust of copper, of a beautiful bluish green colour, formed from the corrosion of copper by fermented vegetables. Its specific gravity is 1·78. Its taste is disagreeably metallic; and, like all the compounds into which copper enters, it is poisonous. It was known to the ancients, and various ways of preparing it are described by Pliny. It is very extensively used by painters, and in dyeing; it is also used to some extent in medicine. The best verdigris is made at Montpellier; the vineyards of Languedoc being particularly well suited for corroding copper, and forming this substance. It is generally exported in cakes of about 25 lbs. weight each. It is also manufactured in this country, by means of the refuse of cider, &c.; the high duty of 2*s.* per lb. on

the foreign article giving the home producers a pretty complete monopoly of the market. The goodness of verdigris is judged of from the deepness and brightness of its colour, its dryness, and its forming, when rubbed on the hand with a little water or saliva, smooth paste, free from grittiness.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*; *Rees's Cyclopædia.*)

VERJUICE (Ger. *Agrest*; Fr. *Verjus*; It. *Agresto*; Sp. *Agraz*), a kind of harsh, austere vinegar, made of the expressed juice of the wild apple, or crab. The French give this name to unripe grapes, and to the sour liquor obtained from them.

VERMICELLI (Ger. *Nudeln*; Du. *Meelneepen, Proppen*; Fr. *Vermicelli*; It. *Vermicelli, Tagliolini*; Sp. *Aletrias*), a species of wheaten paste formed into long, slender, hollow tubes, or threads, used amongst us in soups, broths, &c.

Vermicelli is the same substance as maccaroni; the only difference between them being that the latter is made into larger tubes. Both of them are prepared in the greatest perfection in Naples, where they form the favourite dish of all classes, and the principal food of the bulk of the population. The flour of the hard wheat (*grano duro*) imported from the Black Sea is the best suited for the manufacture of maccaroni. Being mixed with water, it is kneaded by means of heavy wooden blocks wrought by levers, till it acquires a sufficient degree of tenacity; it is then forced, by simple pressure, through a number of holes, so contrived that it is formed into hollow cylinders. The name given to the tubes depends on their diameter; those of the largest size being maccaroni, the next to them vermicelli, and the smallest fedelini. At Genoa, and some other places, the paste is coloured by an admixture of saffron; but at Naples, where its preparation is best understood, nothing is used except flour and water; the best being made of the flour of hard wheat, and the inferior sorts of the flour of soft wheat. When properly prepared and boiled to a nicety, Neapolitan maccaroni assumes a greenish tinge. It is then taken out of the caldron, drained of the water, and being saturated with concentrated meat gravy, and sprinkled with finely grated cheese, it forms a dish of which all classes from the prince to the beggar are passionately fond. But the maccaroni used by the poor is merely boiled in plain water, and is rarely eaten with any condiment whatever. The maccaroni usually served up in England, is said, by those familiar with that of Naples, to be a positive disgrace to the name it bears. When properly prepared, maccaroni is nutritious and easy of digestion. The lazzaroni pique themselves on the dexterity with which they swallow long strings of maccaroni and vermicelli without breaking them! (We have derived these details from an excellent article on maccaroni in the *Penny Magazine* for the 10th of August, 1833.)

VERMILLION. See CINNABAR.

VINEGAR (Ger. *Essig*; Du. *Azyn*; Fr. *Vinaigre*; It. *Aceto*; Sp. and Port. *Vinagre*; Rus. *Ukzus*; Lat. *Acetum*).—(See ACID (ACETIC), for a description of vinegar.) A duty being imposed on vinegar of 2*d.* the gallon, its manufacture is placed under the control of the excise. A licence, costing 5*l.*, and renewable annually, has to be taken out by every maker of vinegar, or acetous acid.

All places for manufacturing or keeping vinegar must be entered, under a penalty of 50*l.* No vinegar maker is to receive any vinegar, or acetous acid, or sugar wash, or any preparation for vinegar, without giving 12 hours' notice to the excise, under penalty of 100*l.* Any person sending out or receiving vinegar shall, unless the duty on it be paid, and it be accompanied by a permit, forfeit 200*l.* All vinegar makers are to make entries at the next Excise-office of the quantity made within each month, and are bound to clear off the duties within a month of such entry, on pain of double duties.—(See 58 *Geo.* 3, c. 65, and *Burn's Justice of the Peace*, Marriott's ed.)

Account of the Quantity of Vinegar, charged with Duty in the United Kingdom, in each Year from 1820, with the Nett Revenue accruing thereon.

Years.	Gallons.	Nett Revenue.	Years.	Gallons.	Nett Revenue.	Years.	Gallons.	Nett Revenue.
	Gallons.	*L.*		*Gallons.*	*L.*		*Gallons.*	*L.*
1820	2,497,466	40,586	1825	2,340,812	45,518	1830	2,097,404	17,862
1821	2,754,004	43,802	1826	3,028,691	25,136	1831	2,559,058	19,318
1822	2,604,630	45,638	1827	2 967,984	24,746	1832	2,911,755	22,968
1823	2,406,583	47,124	1828	2 882,967	24,475	1833	2,900,801	
1824	2,360,436	46,341	1829	2,558,798	22,541			

Rate of duty previously to 1826, 4*d.* per gallon; since then, 2*d.* The manufacture is almost wholly confined to England; the quantity produced in Scotland and Ireland not amounting to 100,000 gallons

VITRIOL. See COPPERAS.

VITRIOL, OIL OF. See ACID (SULPHURIC).

ULTRAMARINE (Ger. *Ultramarin*; Fr. *Bleu d'outremer*; It. *Oltramarino*; Sp. *Ultramar*; Rus. *Ultra-marin*), a very fine blue powder made from the blue parts of *lapis lazuli*. It has the valuable property of neither fading, nor becoming tarnished, on exposure to the air, or a moderate heat; and on this account is highly prized by painters. Owing to its great price, it is very apt to be adulterated. It was introduced about the end of the fifteenth century.

USANCE, a period of *one*, *two*, or *three* months, or of so many days, after the date of a bill of exchange, according to the custom of different places, before the bill becomes due. Double or treble usance, is double or treble the usual time; and ½ usance is ½ the time. When a month is divided, the ½ usance, notwithstanding the differences in the lengths of

the months, is uniformly 15 days. Usances are calculated exclusively of the date of the bill. Bills of exchange drawn at usance are allowed the usual days of grace, and on the last of the 3 days the bill should be presented for payment.—(See EXCHANGE.)

USURY. See INTEREST AND ANNUITIES.

W.

WALNUTS, the fruit of the *Juglans*, or walnut-tree, of which there are several varieties. The walnut is a large, handsome tree, with strong spreading branches. The fruit is a pretty large, smooth, ovate nut, containing an oily kernel, divided into four lobes. The nut has been always held in high estimation; it was called by the Romans *Jovis glans*, the acorn or mast of Jove, and hence the name of the tree. The walnut tree is indigenous to Persia and the countries bordering on the Caspian Sea. It has long been introduced into Great Britain; but the fruit seldom ripens in the more northerly parts of the island. Previously to the very general introduction of mahogany, the wood of the walnut tree was extensively used amongst us in making of furniture; and it continues to be largely employed for that purpose in many parts of the Continent. It is much used by turners; and is superior to every other sort of wood for the mounting of guns; a circumstance which caused great devastation among our walnut plantations during the latter years of the war. Great numbers of walnut trees are annually consumed in the Haute Vienne and other departments of France, in the manufacture of the wooden shoes or clogs used by the peasantry. The nuts are either gathered when ripe, being served up as desserts without any preparation; or they are plucked green, and pickled.—(*Poiret, Historie Philosophique des Plantes*, tome vii. p. 213.; *Rees's Cyclopædia*, &c.)

Account of Walnuts imported, exported, and retained for Home Use, during 1831 and 1832, with the Nett Duty thereon, and the Rate of Duty.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Retained for Home Use.	Duty.	Rate of Duty.
	Bush.	*Bush.*	*Bush.*	*L.*	*Per Bush.*
1831	23,578	160	24,347	2,458	2*s.*
1832	16,913	531	15,299	1,518	2*s.*

WANGHEES, sometimes called JAPAN CANES, a species of cane imported from China. They should be chosen pliable, tough, round, and taper; the knots at regular distances from each other; and the heavier the better. Such as are dark-coloured, badly glazed, and light, should be rejected.—(*Millburn's Orient. Com.*)

WAREHOUSING SYSTEM. By this system is meant the provisions made for lodging imported articles in public warehouses, at a reasonable rent, without payment of the duties on importation till they be withdrawn for home consumption. If re-exported, no duty is ever paid.

1. *Expediency and Origin of the Warehousing System.*—It is laid down by Dr. Smith, in one of his justly celebrated maxims on the subject of taxation, that "Every tax ought to be levied at the time and in the manner that is most likely to be convenient for the contributor to pay it."—(*Wealth of Nations*, vol. iii. p. 368.) No one can doubt the soundness of this maxim; and yet it was very strangely neglected, down to 1803, in the management of the customs. Previously to this period, the duties on most goods imported had either to be paid at the moment of their importation, or a *bond*, with sufficient security for their future payment, had to be given to the revenue officers. The hardship and inconvenience of such a system is obvious. It was often very difficult to find sureties; and the merchant, in order to raise funds to pay the duties, was frequently reduced to the ruinous necessity of selling his goods immediately on their arrival, when, perhaps, the market was already glutted. Neither was this the only inconvenience that grew out of this system; for the duties having to be paid all at once, and not by degrees as the goods were sold for consumption, their price was raised by the amount of the profit on the capital advanced in payment of the duties; competition, too, was diminished in consequence of the greater command of funds required to carry on trade under such disadvantages; and a few rich individuals were enabled to monopolise the importation of those commodities on which heavy duties were payable. The system had, besides, an obvious tendency to discourage the carrying trade. It prevented this country from becoming an *entrepôt* for foreign products, by hindering the importation of such as were not immediately wanted for home consumption; and thus tended to lessen the resort of foreigners to our markets, inasmuch as it rendered it difficult, or rather impossible, for them to complete an assorted cargo. And in addition to all these circumstances, the difficulty of granting a really equivalent drawback to the exporters of such commodities as had paid duty, opened a door for the commission of every species of fraud.

But these disadvantages and drawbacks, obvious as they may now appear, did not attract the public attention till a comparatively late period. Sir Robert Walpole seems to have been

one of the first who had a clear perception of their injurious influence; and it was the principal object of the famous *Excise Scheme*, proposed by him in 1733, to oblige the importers of tobacco and wine to deposit them in public warehouses; relieving them, however, from the necessity of paying the duties chargeable on them till they were withdrawn for home consumption.

No doubt can now remain in the mind of any one, that the adoption of this scheme would have been of the greatest advantage to the commerce and industry of the country. But so powerful was the delusion generated in the public mind with respect to it, that its proposal well nigh caused a rebellion. Most of the merchants of the day had availed themselves of the facilities which the existing system afforded of defrauding the revenue; and they dexterously endeavoured to thwart the success of a scheme which would have given a serious check to such practices, by making the public believe that it would be fatal to the commercial prosperity of the country. The efforts of the merchants were powerfully seconded by the spirit of party, which then ran very high. The political opponents of the ministry, anxious for an opportunity to prejudice them in the public estimation, contended that the scheme was only the first step towards the introduction of such a universal system of excise as would inevitably prove alike subversive of the comfort and liberty of the people. In consequence of these artful misrepresentations, the most violent clamours were everywhere excited against the scheme. On one occasion Sir Robert Walpole narrowly escaped falling a sacrifice to the ungovernable fury of the mob, which beset all the avenues to the House of Commons; and, after many violent and lengthened debates, the scheme was ultimately abandoned.

The disadvantages of the old plan, and the benefits to be derived from the establishment of a voluntary warehousing system, were most ably pointed out by Dean Tucker, in his "Essay on the Comparative Advantages and Disadvantages of Great Britain and France with respect to Trade," published in 1750. But so powerful was the impression made by the violent opposition to Sir Robert Walpole's scheme, and such is the force of prejudice, that it was not till 1803 that this obvious and signal improvement—the greatest, perhaps, that has been made in our commercial and financial system—could be safely adopted.

2. *Regulations as to Warehousing.*—The statute of 43 Geo. 3. c. 132. laid the foundation of this system; but it was much improved and extended by subsequent statutes, the regulations of which have been embodied in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 57., which took effect on the 1st of September, 1833.

This act empowers the commissioners of the customs, under the authority and direction of the Lords of the Treasury, to nominate the ports at which goods may be warehoused without payment of duty, and the warehouses in which particular descriptions of goods may be deposited. It also fixes the time during which goods are allowed to remain in the warehouse; and prescribes the regulations as to their removal from port to port, their sale and stowage in the warehouse, the remission of the duties in case of loss by accident, the allowances for waste, &c. But as this statute is of much importance, we subjoin a full abstract of it.

Abstract of the Act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 57. for the Warehousing of Goods.

Commencement of Act.—Act to commence the 1st day of September, 1833, except where any other commencement is particularly directed.—§ 1.

Treasury to appoint warehousing Ports.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of the treasury to appoint the ports in the U. K. which shall be warehousing ports for the purposes of this act; and it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs, subject to the directions of the commissioners of the treasury, to appoint in what warehouses or places of special security, or of ordinary security, as the case may require, in such ports, and in what different parts or divisions of such warehouses or places, and in what manner any goods, and what sorts of goods, may be warehoused and secured without payment of any duty upon the first entry thereof, or for exportation only, in cases wherein the same may be prohibited to be imported for home use; and also to direct in what cases (if any) security by bond shall be required in respect of any warehouse so appointed by them.—§ 2.

Warehouses of special Security by Appointment.—Whenever any warehouse shall have been approved by the said commissioners, as being a warehouse of special security, it shall be stated in their order of appointment that it is appointed as a warehouse of special security: provided, that all warehouses connected with wharfs for the landing of the goods to be lodged therein, and enclosed together with such wharfs within walls, such as are or shall be required by any act for the constructing of such warehouses and wharfs, and being appointed to be legal quays, shall, without any order of the commissioners of the customs, be warehouses for the purposes of this act, for all goods landed at such wharfs or quays at any port appointed by the commissioners of the treasury to be a warehousing port, and all such warehouses shall be warehouses of special security.—§ 3.

Bonds given previous to Act to continue in force.—All appointments of warehouses made under the authority of any other act in force at the commencement of this act shall continue in force as if the same had been made under the authority of this act, and all bonds given in respect to any goods warehoused under any act in force at the commencement of this act shall continue in force for the purposes of this act.—§ 4.

Commissioners to provide Warehouses for Tobacco.—The commissioners of customs shall, out of the monies arising from the duties of customs, provide from time to time warehouses for the warehousing of tobacco at the ports into which tobacco may be legally imported: provided, that for every hogshead, chest, or case of tobacco so warehoused the importer or proprietor thereof shall pay, for warehouse rent, such sum or sums, not exceeding any sum payable under any act in force at the commencement of this act, and at such periods and in such manner as the commissioners of the treasury shall direct; and all such sums shall be paid and appropriated as duties of customs.—§ 5.

Power to revoke or alter an Appointment.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of the treasury by their warrant, and for the commissioners of the customs by their order, to revoke any former warrant

or any former order, or to make any alteration in or addition to any former warrant or any former order made by them respectively.—§ 6.

Publication of Appointment in Gazette.—Every order made by the commissioners of customs in respect of warehouses of special security, as well those of original appointment as those of revocation, alteration, or addition, shall be published in the London Gazette, for those appointed in Great Britain, and in the Dublin Gazette for those appointed in Ireland.—§ 7.

Warehouse-keeper may give general Bond.—Before any goods be entered to be warehoused in any warehouse in respect of which security by bond is required, the proprietor or occupier of such warehouse, if he be willing, shall give general security by bond, with 2 sufficient sureties, for the payment of the full duties of importation on all such goods as shall at any time be warehoused therein, or for the due exportation thereof; and if such proprietor or occupier be not willing to give such general security, the different importers of the separate quantities of goods shall, upon each importation, give such security in respect of the particular goods imported by them respectively, before such goods be entered to be warehoused.—§ 8.

Sale of Goods in Warehouse by Proprietor to be valid.—If any goods lodged in any warehouse be the property of its occupier, and be bonâ fide sold by him, and upon such sale there shall have been a written agreement, signed by the parties, or a written contract of sale made, executed, and delivered by a broker or other person legally authorised on behalf of the parties respectively, and the amount of the price stipulated in the said agreement or contract shall have been actually paid or secured to be paid by the purchaser, every such sale shall be valid, although such goods shall remain in such warehouse; provided a transfer of such goods, according to such sale, shall have been entered in a book to be kept for that purpose by the officer of the customs having the charge of such warehouse, who is hereby required to keep such book, and to enter such transfers, with the dates thereof, upon application of the owners of the goods, and to produce such book upon demand made.—§ 9.

Stowage in Warehouse to afford easy Access.—All goods warehoused shall be stowed in such manner as that easy access may be had to every package and parcel of the same; and if the occupier shall omit so to stow the same, he shall for every such omission forfeit the sum of 5*l.*; and if any goods be taken out of the warehouse without due entry of the same with the proper officers of the customs, the occupier of the warehouse shall be liable to the payment of the duties due thereon.—§ 10.

Goods fraudulently concealed or removed, forfeited, &c.—If any goods warehoused be fraudulently concealed in or removed from the warehouse, the same shall be forfeited; and if any importer or proprietor of any goods warehoused, or any person in his employ, shall by any contrivance fraudulently open the warehouse or gain access to the goods, except in the presence of the proper officer acting in the execution of his duty, such importer or proprietor shall forfeit and pay for every such offence the sum of 500*l.*—§ 11.

Examination on entry and landing.—Within 1 month after any tobacco shall have been warehoused, and upon the entry and landing of any goods to be warehoused, the proper officer of the customs shall take a particular account of the same, and shall mark the contents on each package, and shall mark the word "prohibited" on such packages as contain goods prohibited to be imported for home use; and all goods shall be warehoused and kept in the packages in which they have been imported, and no alteration shall be made in the packages or the packing of any goods in the warehouse, except in the cases herein provided.—§ 12.

Goods to be carried to Warehouse under authority of Officers of Customs.—All goods entered to be warehoused, or to be re-warehoused, shall be carried to the warehouse under the care or with the authority or permission of the proper officer of customs, and in such manner, and by such persons, and by such roads or ways, and within such spaces of time, as the said officer shall authorise, permit, or direct; and all such goods not so carried shall be forfeited.—§ 13.

Goods to be cleared in 3 Years, and Ship's Stores, in 1 Year.—All goods which have been warehoused shall be duly cleared, either for exportation or for home use, within 3 years, and all surplus stores of ships within 1 year from the day of the first entry thereof (unless further time be given by the commissioners of the treasury); and if any such goods be not so cleared, it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to cause them to be sold, and the produce shall be applied to the payment of warehouse rent and other charges, and the overplus, if any, paid to the proprietor; and such goods, when sold, shall be held subject to all the conditions to which they were subject previous to such sale, except that a further time of 3 months from the date of the sale shall be allowed to the purchaser for clearing such goods from the warehouse; and if the goods so sold shall not be duly cleared within such 3 months, the same shall be forfeited: provided, that if the goods so to be disposed of shall have been imported by the East India Company, or be of the description called "piece goods," imported from places within the limits of their charter into the port of London, the same shall, at the requisition of the commissioners of customs, be duly exposed to sale by the said company at their next ensuing sale, and shall be sold for the highest price then publicly offered for them.—§ 14.

In case of Accident, Duty to be remitted.—If any goods entered to be warehoused, or entered to be delivered from the warehouse, be lost or destroyed by any unavoidable accident, either on shipboard or in the landing or shipping of the same, or in the receiving into or delivering from the warehouse, the commissioners of customs shall remit or return the duties payable or paid on the goods so lost or destroyed.—§ 15.

Entry for Exportation or Home Use.—No goods which have been warehoused shall be taken or delivered from the warehouse except upon due entry, and under care of the proper officers for exportation, or upon due entry and payment of the full duties payable thereon for home use; except goods delivered into the charge of the searchers to be shipped as stores, and which shall and may be so shipped without entry or payment of any duty for any ship of the burden of 70 tons at least, bound upon a voyage to foreign parts, the probable duration of which out and home will not be less than 40 days: provided that such stores shall be duly borne upon the ship's victualling bill, and shall be shipped in such quantities and subject to such directions and regulations as the commissioners of customs shall direct and appoint.—§ 16.

Rum for Stores and surplus Stores may be shipped without Entry.—Any rum of the British plantations may be delivered into the charge of the searcher, to be shipped as stores for any ship without entry or payment of any duty, and any surplus stores of any ship may be delivered into the charge of the searcher, to be reshipped as stores for the same ship, or for the same master in another ship, without entry or payment of duty, such rum and such surplus stores being duly borne upon the victualling bills of such ships respectively; and if the ship for the future use of which any surplus stores have been warehoused shall have been broken up or sold, such stores may be so delivered for the use of any other ship belonging to the same owners, or may be entered for payment of duty, and delivered for the private use of such owners, or any of them, or of the master or purser of such ship.—§ 17.

Duties to be paid on original Quantities, except in certain Cases.—Upon the entry of any goods to be cleared from the warehouse, if the same be for home use, the person entering such goods inward shall deliver a bill of the entry, and duplicates thereof, in like manner as is directed in the case of goods entered to be landed, as far as the same is applicable, and at the same time shall pay down to the proper officer of the customs the full duties of customs payable thereon, and not being less in amount than according to the account of the quantity first taken of the respective packages or parcels of the

goods in such entry at the examination thereof at the time of the first entry and landing of the same, without any abatement on account of any deficiency, except as by this act is otherwise provided; and if the entry be for exportation or for removal to any other warehouse, and any of the packages or parcels of the goods be deficient of their respective quantities, according to the account first taken, a like entry inwards shall also be passed in respect of the quantities so deficient, and the full duties shall be paid on the amount thereof before such packages or parcels of goods shall be delivered or taken for exportation or removal, except as by this act is otherwise provided; and if any goods so deficient in quantity shall be such as are charged to pay duty according to the value thereof, such value shall be estimated at the price for which the like sorts of goods of the best quality have been last or lately sold, either at any sale of the East India Company, or in any other manner, as the case may be.—§ 18.

Duties on Tobacco, Sugar, and Spirits to be charged on Quantities delivered, except in certain Cases.—The duties payable upon tobacco, sugar, and spirits respectively, when taken out of warehouse for home use, shall be charged upon the quantities ascertained by the weight, measure, or strength of the same actually delivered, except that if the sugar shall not be in a warehouse of special security no greater abatement on account of deficiency of the quantity first ascertained as aforesaid shall be made than shall be after the rate of 3 per cent. of such quantity for the first 3 months, and 1 per cent. for every subsequent month during which such sugar shall have been warehoused; and except, that if the spirits (being any other spirits than rum of the British plantations) shall not be in a warehouse of special security, no greater abatement on account of deficiency of the quantity or strength first ascertained as aforesaid shall be made than shall be after the several rates of allowances following, viz.

For every 100 gallons, hydrometer proof; viz.	
For any time not exceeding 6 months	1 gallon
For any time exceeding 6 months and not exceeding 12 months	2 gallons
For any time exceeding 12 months and not exceeding 18 months	3 gallons
For any time exceeding 18 months and not exceeding 2 years	4 gallons
For any time exceeding 2 years	6 gallons

Provided that no abatement shall be made in respect of any deficiency in quantity of any spirits occasioned either by leakage or accident, and not by natural evaporation, in whatever warehouse the same may be, except as by this act is otherwise specially provided.—§ 19.

Importer may enter Goods for Home Use, &c., although not actually warehoused.—If after any goods have been duly entered and landed to be warehoused, and before the same have been deposited in the warehouse, the importer shall further enter the same or any part thereof for home use or for exportation as from the warehouse, the goods so entered shall be considered as virtually and constructively warehoused, although not actually deposited in the warehouse, and may be delivered and taken for home use or for exportation, as the case may be.—§ 20.

Goods may be removed to other Ports to be rewarehoused.—Any goods which have been warehoused at some port in the U. K. may be removed by sea or inland carriage to any other port in the same, in which the like goods may be warehoused upon importation, to be rewarehoused at such other port, and again as often as may be required to any other such port, to be there rewarehoused, subject to the regulations hereinafter mentioned; viz. 12 hours notice in writing of the intention to remove such goods shall be given to the warehouse officer, specifying the particular goods intended to be removed, and the marks, numbers, and descriptions of the packages in which the same are contained, in what ship imported, when and by whom entered inwards to be warehoused, and, if subsequently rewarehoused, when and by whom rewarehoused, and to what port the same are to be removed; and thereupon the warehouse officer shall take a particular account of such goods, and shall mark the contents on every package in preparation for the delivering of the same for the purposes of such removal, and previous to the delivery thereof may cause the proper seals of office to be affixed thereto; provided that tobacco, the produce of the British possessions in America or of the United States of America, and purchased for the use of his Majesty's navy, may be removed by the purser of any ship of war in actual service to the ports of Rochester, Portsmouth, or Plymouth, to be there rewarehoused, in name of such purser, in a warehouse approved for that purpose by the commissioners of customs.—§ 21.

Entry of Goods for Removal.—Before such goods be delivered to be removed, due entry of the same shall be made, and a proper bill of such entry, with duplicates thereof, be delivered to the collector or comptroller, containing the before-mentioned particulars, and an exact account of the quantities of the different sorts of goods; and such bill of entry, signed by the collector and comptroller, shall be the warrant for the removal of such goods; and an account of the same, containing all such particulars, shall be transmitted by the officers of the port of removal to the officers of the port of destination; and upon the arrival of such goods at the port of destination due entry of the same to be rewarehoused shall in like manner be made with the collector and comptroller at such port, containing all the particulars and accounts before mentioned, together with the name of the port from which such goods have been removed, and the description and situation of the warehouse in which they are to be warehoused; and the bill of such entry, signed by such collector and comptroller, shall be the warrant to the landing officer and the warehouse officer to admit such goods to be there rewarehoused, under such examination as is made of the like goods when first warehoused upon importation from parts beyond the seas; and the particulars to be contained in such notice and in such entries shall be written and arranged in such form and manner as the collector and comptroller shall require; and the officers at the port of arrival shall transmit to the officers at the port of removal an account of the goods so arrived, according as they shall upon examination prove to be, and the warehouse officers at the port of removal shall notify such arrival in their books.—§ 22.

Bond to rewarehouse, which may be given at either Port.—The persons removing such goods shall at the time of entering the same give bond, with 1 sufficient surety, for the due arrival and rewarehousing of such goods within a reasonable time, (with reference to the distance between the respective ports, to be fixed by the commissioners of customs), which bond may be taken by the collector and comptroller either of the port of removal or of the port of destination, as shall best suit the residence or convenience of the persons interested in the removal of such goods; and if such bond be given at the port of destination, a certificate thereof, under the hands of the collector and comptroller of such port shall, at the time of entering the goods, be produced to the collector or comptroller of the port of removal.—§ 23.

Bond how to be discharged.—Such bond shall not be discharged unless such goods shall have been duly rewarehoused at the port of destination within the time allowed for such removal, or shall have been otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the said commissioners, nor until the full duties due upon any deficiency of such goods shall have been paid, nor until fresh security have been given in respect of such goods as herein-after provided, unless such goods shall be lodged in some warehouse in respect of which general security has been given by the proprietor or occupier, or in some warehouse in respect of which no security is required.—§ 24.

Goods rewarehoused held on Terms of the first Warehousing.—Such goods when so rewarehoused may be entered and shipped for exportation, or entered and delivered for home use, as the like goods may be when first warehoused upon importation, and the time when such goods shall be allowed to remain rewarehoused at such port shall be reckoned from the day when the same were first entered to be warehoused.—§ 25.

On Arrival, after Forms of rewarehousing, Parties may enter to export, &c.—If upon the arrival of such goods at the port of destination the parties shall be desirous forthwith to export the same, or to pay duty thereon for home use, without lodging the same in the warehouse for which they have been entered and examined to be rewarehoused, it shall be lawful for the officers of the customs at such port, after all the formalities of entering and examining such goods for rewarehousing have been duly performed (except the actual labour of carrying and lodging the same in the warehouse), to consider the same as virtually or constructively rewarehoused, and to permit them to be entered and shipped for exportation, or to be entered and delivered for home use, upon payment of the duties due thereon; and the account taken for the rewarehousing of such goods may serve as the account for delivering the same as if from the warehouse, either for shipment or for payment of duties, as the case may be; and all goods so exported, or for which the duties have been so paid, shall be deemed to have been duly cleared from the warehouse.—§ 26.

Removal in the same Port.—Any goods which have been warehoused in some warehouse in the port of London may, with the permission of the commissioners of customs first obtained, be removed to any other warehouse in the said port in which the like goods may be warehoused; and any goods which have been warehoused in any other port, may with the permission of the collector and comptroller of such port first obtained, be removed to any other warehouse in the same port in which like goods may be warehoused, under such regulations as the commissioners of customs shall direct.—§ 27.

Goods and Parties subject to original Conditions.—All goods which shall have been removed from one warehouse to another, whether in the same or in a different port, and all proprietors of such goods, shall be subject to all the conditions to which they would have been subject had such goods remained in the warehouse where they were originally warehoused.—§ 28.

Goods sold, new Owner may give Bond.—If any goods have been warehoused in respect of which general security by bond shall not have been given by the proprietor or occupier, and particular security, as in such case is required, shall have been given by the importer of such goods, and the goods shall have been sold or disposed of, so that the original bonder shall be no longer interested in or have control over such goods, it shall be lawful to admit fresh security to be given by the bond of the new proprietor of such goods, or persons having the control over the same, with his sufficient surety, and to cancel the bond given by the original bonder, or to exonerate him and his surety to the extent of the fresh security so given.—§ 29.

Bond of Remover to be in force until Bond be given by new Owner.—If the person removing any goods from 1 port to another, and who shall have given bond in respect of such removal and rewarehousing, shall continue to be interested in such goods after the same have been duly rewarehoused, and such goods shall have been so rewarehoused in some warehouse, in respect of which security is required, and the proprietor or occupier of the same shall not have given general security, the bond in respect of such removal and rewarehousing shall be conditioned and continue in force, for the rewarehousing of such goods, until fresh bond be given by some new proprietor or other person in manner herein-before provided.—§ 30.

To sort, separate, and repack in some or equal Packages.—It shall be lawful in the warehouse to sort, separate, pack, and repack any goods, and to make such lawful alterations therein, or arrangements thereof, as may be necessary either for the preservation of such goods, or in order to the sale, shipment, or legal disposal of the same; provided that such goods be repacked in the same packages in which the same goods, or some part of the whole quantity of the same parcel of goods, were imported, or in packages of entire quantity equal thereto, or in such other packages as the commissioners of customs shall permit (not being less in any case, if the goods be to be exported or to be removed to another warehouse, than may be required by law for the importation of such goods); and also in the warehouse to draw off any wine, or any rum of the British plantations into reputed quart bottles or reputed pint bottles, for the purpose only of being exported from the warehouse; and also to draw off any such rum into casks containing not less than 20 gallons each, for the purpose only of being disposed of as stores for ships; and also to draw off any other spirits into reputed quart bottles, under such regulations as the commissioners of customs shall from time to time direct, for the purpose only of being exported from the warehouse; and also to draw off and mix with any wine any brandy secured in the same warehouse, not exceeding the proportion of 10 gallons of brandy to 100 gallons of wine; and also to fill up any casks of wine or spirits from any other casks of the same, respectively secured in the same warehouse; and also in any warehouse of special security to rack off any wine from the lees, and to mix any wines of the same sort, erasing from the casks all import brands; and also to take such moderate samples of goods as may be allowed by the commissioners of customs, without entry and without payment of duty, except as the same may eventually become payable, on a deficiency of the original quantity.—§ 31.

No Alteration in Goods or Package but according as the Commissioners direct.—No alteration shall be made in any goods or packages, nor shall any wine, rum, brandy, or spirits be bottled, drawn off, mixed, or filled up, nor shall any samples be taken except after such notices given by the respective importers or proprietors, and at such times and in such manner, and under such regulations and restrictions, as the commissioners of customs shall require and direct.—§ 32.

Repacking in proper Packages.—Whereas it may happen, that after the repacking into proper packages of any parcel of goods which have been unpacked and separated or drawn off from the original package in any of cases herein-before provided for, there may remain some surplus quantities of the respective parcels of such goods, which may not be sufficient to make or fill up any 1 of such proper packages, or it may happen that some part of such goods, when separated from other parts, may be such refuse, or in so damaged a state as to be worthless, or that the total quantity of such parcel of goods may be reduced by the separation of dirt or sediment, or by the dispersion of dust or otherwise: and whereas the duties payable on such goods may have been levied at a rate having regard to a just allowance for the state in which such goods are imported, and it is not proper that any manufacturing process should be performed in such warehouse to the detriment of the revenue; it is therefore enacted, that after such goods have been repacked in proper packages, the commissioners of customs, at the request of the importer or proprietor of such goods, may permit any of such refuse, damaged, or surplus goods not contained in any of such packages, to be destroyed; and if the goods be such as may be delivered for home use, the duties shall be immediately paid upon any part of such surplus as may remain, and the same shall be delivered for home use accordingly; and if they be such as may not be so delivered, such surplus as may so remain shall be disposed of for the purpose of exportation in such manner as the commissioners shall direct; and thereupon the quantity contained in each of such packages shall be ascertained and marked upon the same, and the deficiency shall be ascertained by a comparison of the total quantity in such packages with the total quantity first warehoused, and the proportion which such deficiency may bear to the quantity in each package shall also be marked on the same, and added to such quantity, and the total shall be deemed to be the imported contents of such package, and be held subject to the full duties of importation, except as otherwise provided by this act: provided that it shall be lawful for the commissioners of customs to accept the abandonment, for the duties, of any quantity of tobacco, coffee, pepper, cocoa, lees of wine, and also of any whole packages of other goods, and to cause or permit the same to be destroyed, and to deduct such quantity of tobacco or coffee, or pepper, or cocoa, or the contents of such whole packages, from the total quantity of the same importation, in computing the amount of the deficiency of such total quantity.—§ 33.

No Foreign Casks, &c. to be used for repacking.—No foreign casks, bottles, corks, packages, or materials whatever, except any in which some goods shall have been imported and warehoused, shall be used in the repacking of any goods in the warehouse, unless the full duties have been *first* paid thereon.—§ 34.

Silks, Linens, &c. to be delivered out of Warehouse, to be cleaned.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of the customs to permit any stuffs or fabrics of silk, linen, cotton, or wool, or of any mixture of them with any other material, to be taken out of warehouse to be cleaned, refreshed, dyed, stained, or calendered, or to be bleached or printed, without payment of duty of customs, under security, nevertheless, by bond to their satisfaction, that such goods shall be returned to the warehouse within the time that they shall appoint; and it shall be lawful for the said commissioners, in like manner and under like security, to permit any rice, the produce of places within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, to be delivered out of warehouse to be cleaned, making such allowance for waste as to the said commissioners shall appear to be reasonable.—§ 35.

Copper Ore may be taken out of Warehouse to be smelted.—It shall be lawful for the importer or proprietor of any copper ore warehoused to give notice to the proper officers of his intention to take such ore out of warehouse to be smelted, stating in such notice the quantity of copper computed to be contained in such ore, and delivering to such officers sufficient samples or specimens for ascertaining by proper assays, at the expense of the proprietor, such quantity of copper, and giving sufficient security by bond for returning such quantity of copper into the warehouse; and if such officers shall be satisfied of the fairness of the samples or specimens of such ore, and of the assays made of the same, and of the security given, they shall deliver such ore for the purpose of being smelted: provided that if any copper ore intended to be so smelted shall be imported into any port where such ore or where copper cannot be warehoused, the same may be entered as being to be warehoused at the port at which the copper after smelting is to be warehoused, and such ore shall thereupon be taken account of and delivered for the purposes aforesaid, in like manner as if the same had been warehoused: provided also, that all copper so produced by smelting shall be deemed to be copper imported, and shall be warehoused as such.—§ 36.

Goods in bulk delivered.—No parcels of goods so warehoused which were imported in bulk shall be delivered, except in the whole quantity of each parcel, or in a quantity not less than 1 ton weight, unless by special leave of the proper officers.—§ 37.

Packages to be marked before delivery.—No goods so warehoused shall be delivered, unless the same or the packages containing the same shall have been marked in such distinguishing manner as the commissioners of customs shall from time to time direct.—§ 38.

Decrease and Increase may be allowed, under Regulations of the Treasury.—It shall be lawful for the commissioners of the treasury to make regulations for ascertaining the amount of the decrease or increase of the quantity of any particular sorts of goods, and to direct in what proportion any abatement of duty payable under this act for deficiencies shall, upon the exportation of any such goods, be made on account of such decrease: provided, that if such goods be lodged in warehouses of special security, no duty shall be charged for any amount whatever of deficiency of any of such goods on the exportation thereof, except in cases where [illegible] shall arise that part of such goods has been clandestinely conveyed away, nor shall any such goods (unless they be wine or spirits) be measured, counted, weighed, or gauged for exportation except in such cases of suspicion.—§ 39.

Allowances for Waste of Wine, &c. in Warehouses not of special Security.—For any wine, spirits, coffee, cocoa nuts, or pepper lodged in warehouses not of special security, the following allowances for natural waste, in proportion to the time during which such goods have remained in warehouse, shall be made upon the exportation thereof; viz.

Wine, upon every cask; viz.	
For any time not exceeding 1 year	1 gallon
For any time exceeding 1 year, and not exceeding 2 years	2 gallons
For any time exceeding 2 years	3 gallons
Spirits, upon every 100 gallons hydrometer proof; viz.	
For any time not exceeding 6 months	1 gallon
For any time exceeding 6 months, and not exceeding 12 months	2 gallons
Spirits, upon every 100 gallons hydrometer proof; viz.	
For any time exceeding 12 months, and not exceeding 18 months	3 gallons
For any time exceeding 18 months, and not exceeding 2 years	4 gallons
For any time exceeding 2 years	5 gallons
Coffee, cocoa nuts, pepper, for every 100 lbs., and so in proportion for any less quantity	2 lbs.

—§ 40.

Embezzlement and Waste by Officers to be made good to Proprietor.—In case any embezzlement, waste, spoil, or destruction, shall be made of any goods or merchandise warehoused in warehouses under the authority of this act, through any wilful misconduct of any officer of customs or excise, such officer shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall upon conviction suffer such punishment as may be inflicted by law in cases of misdemeanor; and if such officer shall be so prosecuted to conviction by the importer, consignee, or proprietor of the goods or merchandise so embezzled, wasted, spoiled, or destroyed, no duty of customs or excise shall be payable for such goods or merchandise so embezzled, &c., and no forfeiture or seizure shall take place of any goods and merchandise so warehoused in respect of any deficiency caused by such embezzlement, waste, spoil, or destruction, and the damage occasioned by such embezzlement, &c. of such goods or merchandise shall be repaid and made good to such importer, consignee, or proprietor by the commissioners of customs or excise, under such orders as shall be given by the commissioners of the treasury, or any 3 of them.—§ 41.

On Entry outwards Bond for due shipping and landing shall be given.—Upon the entry outwards of any goods to be exported from the warehouse to parts beyond the seas, and before cocket be granted, the person in whose name the same be entered shall give security by bond in double the value of such goods, with 1 sufficient surety, that such goods shall be duly shipped and exported, and shall be landed at the place for which they be entered outwards, or otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of the commissioners of customs.—§ 42.

Bond for Beef and Pork exported from Warehouse.—Upon the entry outwards of any salted beef or salted pork to be exported from the warehouse to parts beyond seas, and before cocket be granted, the person in whose name the same be entered shall give security by bond in treble the value of the goods, with 2 sufficient sureties, of whom the master of the exporting ship shall be 1, that such beef or pork shall be duly shipped and exported, and that no part thereof shall be consumed on board such ship, and that the same shall be landed at the place for which it be entered outwards; and that a certificate of such landing shall be produced within a reasonable time, according to the voyage, to be fixed by the commissioners of customs, and mentioned in the bond, such certificate to be signed by the officers of the customs or other British officer, if the goods be landed at a place in the British dominions, or by the British consul, if the goods be landed at a place not in the British dominions, or such goods shall be otherwise accounted for to the satisfaction of said commissioners; and such master shall make and sign a declaration that such beef or pork is to be laden on board such ship as merchandise, to be carried to and landed at parts beyond the seas, and not as stores for the said ship; and if such ship shall not have on board at the time of clearance outwards a reasonable supply or stock of beef or pork, according to the intended voyage, borne upon the victualling bill, the master of such ship shall forfeit the sum of 100*l.*—§ 43.

Restrictions as to the Isle of Man.—No goods shall be exported from the warehouse to the Isle of Man, except such goods as may be imported into the said island with licence of the commissioners of customs, and in virtue of any such licence first obtained.—§ 44.

Goods removed from Warehouse under Care of Customs' Officers.—All goods taken from the warehouse for removal or for exportation shall be removed or carried to be shipped under the care or with the authority or permission of the proper officer of customs, and in such manner, and by such persons, and within such spaces of time, and by such roads or ways, as he shall authorise or direct; and all such goods not so removed or carried shall be forfeited.—§ 45.

Ships to be not less than 70 Tons for exporting warehoused Goods.—It shall not be lawful for any person to export any goods so warehoused, nor to enter for exportation to parts beyond the seas any goods so warehoused, in any ship not of the burden of 70 tons or upwards.—§ 36.

Goods landed in Docks liable to Claims for Freight as before landing.—All goods or merchandise which shall be landed in docks, and lodged in the custody of their proprietors, under this act, not being goods seized as forfeited, shall be subject or liable to the same claim for freight in favour of the master and owner or owners of the respective ships or vessels, or of any other person or persons interested in the freight of the same, as they were subject and liable to before landing; and the directors and proprietors of such docks are empowered and required, upon due notice in that behalf given to them, to detain and keep such goods and merchandise, not being seized as forfeited, in the warehouses belonging to the said docks, until the respective freights to which the same are subject and liable be duly paid, together with the rates and charges to which the same shall have been subject and liable, or until a deposit be made by the owners or consignees of such goods or merchandise, equal in amount to the demands made by the master, owner or owners of the ships or vessels, or other persons, on account of freight; which deposit the directors or proprietors of such docks, or their agents, are directed to receive and hold in trust, until the claim or demand for freight upon such goods shall be satisfied; upon proof of which, and demand made by the persons, their executors, &c. by whom the said deposit has been made, and the rates and charges due upon the said goods being paid, the deposit shall be returned to them by the said directors or proprietors.—§ 47.

Quantities of the Principal Articles of Foreign Merchandise remaining in Warehouse under the Locks of the Crown, in the Ports of London, Liverpool, Bristol, and Hull, on or about the 5th of January, 1832 and 1833.—(*Papers published by Board of Trade*, vol. ii. p. 66.)

Articles.		January, 1832.	January, 1833.
Alkanet root	lbs.	183,506	665,905
Annatto	—	886,175	88,529
Ashes	cwt.	14,005	15,982
	casks	1,606	135
Barilla	cwt.	147,820	33,563
Borax	lbs.	12,788	27,776
	chests	108	14
Bristles	lbs.	86,311	452,085
	casks	426	248
Cassia lignea	lbs.	82,234	264,942
	packages	2,367	1,611
buds	lbs.	28,055	1,154
	packages	1,250	5,611
Camphor	lbs.	12,257	12,113
	chests	1,147	320
Cinnamon	lbs.	998,099	404,854
Cloves	—	775,962	330,940
Cochineal	—	325,981	355,227
	serons, &c.	77	136
Cocoa	casks	3,603	1,168
	bags	15,486	2,772
	lbs.	454,187	401,527
Coffee	tierces	17,087	17,440
	barrels	1,195	1,893
	bags	77,788	132,429
	bales	13,207	2,069
	lbs.	4,692,098	5,087,989
Currants	cwt.	57,618	27,648
	carotels and bale	630	2,604
Figs	cwt	5,614	2,148
	drums	24,463	77,548
	packages	5,830	12,431
Fustic	tons	5,891	999
Galls	cwt.	926	917
	bags	1,676	1,112
Ginger	cwt.	2,391	809
	casks and bags	4,516	299
Hemp	cwt.	127,660	92,479
	bundles	1,267	548
Hides	cwt.	25,412	11,440
	number	28,401	28,881
India rubber	lbs.	129,083	156,381
Indigo	—	544,245	814,423
	chests	26,554	29,270
Iron bar	tons	5,274	4,201
	bars	26,750	19,411
	cwt.	1,635	
Log dye	lbs.	545,068	697,736
	chests	7,230	5,913
Lead	cwt.	5,336	5,084
Logwood	tons	5,891	7,924
Mace	lbs.	77,786	2,761
Madder	cwt.	9,018	26,938
	casks	247	117
roots	cwt.	2,524	5,081
	casks	24	210
Molasses	cwt.	24,644	7,673
	casks	1,634	1,708
Nicaragua wood	tons	446	803
Nutmegs	lbs.	274,496	226,546
Oil, castor	—	118,177	85,710
	packages	3,488	225
olive	tons	9,960	1,132
	casks	895	172
palm	cwt.	2,211	2,295
	casks	868	1,811
Opium	chests		21
	lbs.	10,674	21,517
Pepper	—	254,479	478,740
	bags	60,429	73,951
Piece goods of India, calicoes,	pieces	599,540	493,039
silks	—	133,695	181,736
nankeens	—	1,319,240	846,085
Pimento	casks and bags	21,561	18,174
	lbs.	240,788	486,280
Quicksilver	—	107,536	84,199
Raisins	cwt.	14,204	34,291

Articles.		January, 1832.	January, 1833.
Raisins	packages	41,695	35,228
Rhubarb	lbs.	16,149	17,588
	chests	462	462
Rice	cwt.	42,257	45,207
	bags	12,255	14,480
Sago	cwt.	20,096	18,600
	chests	2,248	1,589
Saltpetre	cwt.	85,381	69,982
Sarsaparilla	lbs.	91,257	123,791
	bundles	519	748
Shellac	cwt.	1,055	2,101
	chests	311	344
Shumac	cwt.	7,093	11,132
	bags	3,122	4,377
Silk, raw	lbs.	2,087,194	2,086,330
thrown	—	755,788	89,575
Sculls	—	194,172	294,092
Spirits, brandy	gallons	612,220	729,257
	puncheons	772	1,149
	hhds.	2,263	5,864
geneva	gallons	18,036	27,550
	casks	92	99
	cases	35	178
rum	puncheons	58,236	51,967
	hhds.	10,585	5,281
	gallons	1,903,181	694,618
Steel	cwt.	11,456	9,852
	bags	1,628	316
Sugar	hhds.	66,942	65,388
	tierces	4,436	3,018
	barrels	2,060	1,888
	bags	126,272	93,055
	chests	10,378	7,521
	boxes	15,600	47,228
	cwt.	281,513	263,708
Tallow	—	38,261	51,375
	casks	12,566	6,250
Tea, black	lbs.	43,264,451	48,027,140
green	—	11,264,692	11,278,163
Tin	cwt.	3,800	2,197
	casks	40	4,226
Tobacco	cwt.	146,544	268,178
	hhds.	6,780	7,418
	packages	270	23
Turpentine	cwt.	41,062	42,265
	casks	3,050	3,571
Turmeric	cwt.	6,124	8,468
	bags	11,477	10,844
Valonia	cwt.	17,507	9,430
Wine, Cape	gallons	488,011	221,195
	pipes	412	285
	hhds.	1,498	568
French	gallons	940,981	852,569
	hhds.	598	866
	cases	1,498	1,630
Madeira	gallons	805,548	861,694
	pipes	300	354
	hhds.	316	443
Port	gallons	2,246,904	1,975,437
	pipes	925	490
	hhds.	1,498	1,000
Rhenish	gallons	68,559	47,537
	casks	168	43
Spanish	gallons	2,966,214	2,241,559
	butts	795	1,138
	hhds.	2,259	3,298
unrated	gallons	172,559	132,978
	pipes	243	143
	hhds	553	397
Wool, cotton	bales	10,081	8,123
	cwt.	84,708	108,110
sheep's	lbs.	2,078,248	211,174
	bags	2,506	5,751
Zinc	cwt.	37,163	26,685
	plates	8,098	5,963
	casks	12	25

Warehousing Ports, &c.—Certain ports only are warehousing ports; nor may all sorts of goods be warehoused in every warehousing port. We subjoin a list of the warehousing ports in Great Britain and Ireland, and a specification of the goods that may be warehoused in each, classed in tables.

England.

Arundel—Goods in Table C.
Barnstaple—All goods except tobacco, East India goods, and goods in Table F, other than sugar.
Bideford—Goods in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, and goods in Table C.
Bristol—Wine and spirits in Table B.
Bridgewater—Wine and spirits in Table B, and wood and tar in Table C, rum, and tallow.
Bridport—Rum, brandy, wine, hemp, iron in bars, timber, barilla, alum, tallow, ashes, hides and skins, sugar, currants, and other fruit.
Bristol—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C, D, E and F.
Chepstow—Timber, deals, hemp, linseed, staves, tallow, and tar.
Chester—Rum in Table A, and wines and spirits in Table B.
Chichester—Wood, pitch, tar, and iron in Table C, and wool in Table E.
Colchester—Rum in Table A, and wine and spirits in Table B.
Cowes—Goods in Table A, B, and D; and timber and deals in Table C.
Dartmouth—Goods in Table A, B, C, and D (except tobacco.)
Dover—Goods in Table B (except tobacco), and timber and wood in Table C.
Exeter—All goods except tobacco, East India goods, and goods enumerated in Table F, other than sugar.
Falmouth—Goods in Table A, B, C, and D.
Gloucester—Spirits in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, tallow in Table C, and barilla in Table E; sugar not East India, and all other goods not East India produce, and not in Table F.
Gosport, near Hull—All articles, except tobacco and snuff.
Grimsby, ditto—Goods in Tables A, B, C, D, and E (except tobacco).
Hull—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C, D, and E.
Ipswich—Wine and spirits in Tables A and B, and barilla.
Lancaster—Goods in Tables A, B, C, and E.
Liverpool—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C, D, E, and F.
London—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C, D, E, and F.
Lynn—Rum in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, and timber and wood in Table C.
Maldon—Wood goods.
Milford—Goods in Tables C and D.
Newcastle—Goods in Tables A, B, C, D, and E.
Newhaven—Rum in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, and timber and wood in Table C.
Plymouth—Goods in Tables A, B, C, D, and E.
Poole—Goods in Tables A, B, C, D, and E (except tobacco).
Portsmouth—Goods in Tables A, B, C, and E (except tobacco), and hides in Table D.
Rochester—Rum in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, and timber and wood goods in Table C.
Rye—Wine in Table B, wood in Table C, and clover seed in Table E.
Scarborough—Wine and spirits in Table B, and goods in Table C.
Southampton—Spirits in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, goods in Tables C, D, and E, and East India goods removed for exportation to Guernsey and Jersey.
Southend—Rum in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, timber and pots in Table C, clover seed and green fruit in Table E, potashes, sugar, coffee, hides, &c.
Sunderland—Goods in Tables A, B, C, D, and E (except tobacco).
Swansea—Goods in Table C.
Weymouth—Rum in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, wood in Table C, almonds of all sorts, barilla, clover seed, currants, figs, oil of olives, salad oil, prunes, raisins of all sorts, and liquorice juice in Table E.
Whitby—Goods in Tables C and D.
Whitehaven—Goods in Tables A, B, C, and E.
Wisbech—Wood goods.
Yarmouth—Rum in Table A, wine and spirits in Table B, hemp and iron in Table C, and goods in Table E.

Scotland.

Aberdeen—East India and all other goods.
Burntisland—Timber and wood in Table C.
Dumfries—Wine in Table B.
Dundee—Wine and spirits in Tables A and B; iron, pitch, tar, timber, and wood, in Table C.
Glasgow—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C, D, and E.
Greenock—Rustic, hemp, iron, logwood, mahogany, pitch, rosin, shumac, tar, tallow, tow, turpentine, timber, and wood, in Table C, and sumac in Table E.
Greenock—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C, D, and E.
Leith—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C, D, and E.
Montrose—Wine, spirits, and sugar; and goods in Tables C and D; ashes, butter, cheese, coffee, feathers, hams, hides, honey, spruce beer, wax, vinegar, and yarn.
Port Glasgow—East India goods, and goods in Tables A, B, C, and E.

Ireland.

Dublin } East India and all other goods, including sugar in Table
Belfast } F, and excepting the other articles enumerated in that
Cork } Table.
Cove—All goods, except East India goods and tobacco.

Drogheda
Dundalk
Galway
Limerick
Londonderry
Newry
Sligo
Waterford
} All goods (except East India goods, and the articles enumerated in Table F, with the exception of sugar).

Wexford—Wine, sugar, hemp, iron, tallow, foreign spirits, and vinegar, coffee, cocoa, rice, pepper, ginger, and pimento.

Table A.

Annatto or roucou	Cocoa nuts	Sugar
Cassia fistula	Coffee	

Not being the produce of, nor imported from, any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter.

Angustura bark	Indigo	Pimento
Cotton wool	Mahogany	Rum
Ginger	Molasses	Wine

Imported from the West Indies.

Cocoa nuts	Indigo	Pimento
Coffee	Mahogany	Rum
Cotton wool	Molasses	Sugar
Ginger		

The growth and produce of, and imported direct from, any of the territories or dominions of the crown of Portugal.

Table B.

Brandy	Rice	Tobacco
Geneva, & other spirits	Shrub	Wine

Not being the produce of, nor imported from, any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter (spirits and wine excepted), or not being imported from the West Indies.

Cocoa nuts	Indigo	Pimento
Coffee	Mahogany	Rum
Cotton wool	Molasses	Sugar
Ginger		

Being the growth or produce of, and imported direct from, any of the territories or dominions of the crown of Portugal.

Spirits and wine

Being the produce of any place within the limits of the East India Company's charter, and imported otherwise than by the said Company.

Table C.

Brimstone	Kelp	Staves
Cork	Linseed	Tallow
Hemp, undressed	Mahogany	Tar
Iron, in bars or slit, or hammered into rods, and iron drawn or hammered less than 3-4 of an inch square.	Marble blocks	Timber
	Oil of turpentine	Tow
	Pitch	Turpentine
	Rapeseed	Wood
	Rosin	Zaffre or cobalt

Not being the produce of, nor imported from within the limits of, the East India Company's charter, nor imported from the West Indies.

Table D.

Hides	Blubber of British fishing	dressed or shaved, and skins and furs of all sorts, not tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed
Oil of British fishing		
Oil of spermaceti, or head matter	Whale fins of British fishing	
Train oil, and all other fish oil	Indian deer skins, half	

Not being the produce of, nor imported from within the limits of, the East India Company's charter, and not being imported from the West Indies.

Table E.

Alkermes	Hams	Oil of turpentine and walnut
Almonds	Harp-strings	
Anchovies	Hones	Oils, chemical and perfumed, not otherwise enumerated
Angustura bark	Jalap	
Aniseed	Jesuits' bark	
Annatto or roucou	Jet	Opium
Arrowroot	India rubber	Orange flower water
Ashes	Indigo	Ointment
Balsam of all sorts	Isinglass	Otter of roses
Barilla	Juice of lemons	Pearl barley
Beads of amber and of coral	Limes and oranges	Pictures
Bees' wax	Lamp-black	Pimento
Black or Dantzic beer	Plain linen (except sail cloth)	Pitch, Burgundy
		Platting of straw chip
Bristles, undressed	Linseed cakes	Pots, melting
Buck wheat	Liquorice powder	Prunes
Cantharides	Mace	Quicksilver
Carpets, Turkey	Madder, ground	Radix serpentaria
Cassia fistula	Mahogany	Rags
Cattlins or lute-strings	Manna	Raisins of all sorts
	Mercury	Rape cakes
Cheese	Mohair yarn	Rhinehurst
Chip hats	Molasses	Rhubarb
Citrats of lime	Oil of almonds	Rum
Citron in salt and water		Saccharum saturn
Clover seed	Oil of capers	Saffron
Cochineal and cochineal dust	Oil of carraway	Sal ammoniacus
Cocoa nuts	cassia	gum
Coffee	castor	limonum, or aceto-sella
Copal	cinnamon	prunella
Cotton wool and cotton yarn	cloves	succini
	jessamine	Saphora
Currants	juniper	Sarsaparilla
Elephants' teeth	lavender	Senna
Essence of Bergamot and of lemon	linseed	Silk, raw, thrown, or waste
Essence of British America spruce, imported from thence	marjoram	Smalts
	nutmegs	Straw hats
	olives	Succus liquoritiæ
	oranges	Sugar
Euphorbium	palm	Tapioca
Feathers for beds	pine	Tar, Barbadoes
Figs	rock	Tortoal
Flax	rosemary and rosewood	Toys
German sausages	salad	Verdigris
Ginger	sassafras	Vermicelli
Ginseng	spike	Vermillion
Granilla	thyme	Vanellines, and all other goods unmanufactured
Gum Arabic		
Guaiacum and Senegal		

Not being the produce of, nor imported from within, the East India Company's charter, and not being imported from the West Indies

Table F.

Agates, rough and polished	Cocculus Indicus	Ink, and all other precious stones, except diamonds
Almond paste	Coloquintida	Jakie, wrought
Aloes	Columbo root	Lace of all kinds
Ambra liquida	Coral of all sorts	Lapis lazuli
Ambergris	Corks, ready made	Mace, imported by licence
Balsams of all sorts	Cuttle shells	Manna
Beads of all kinds	Dice	Mercury
Beer	Eau de Cologne	Metheglin
Benjamin	Enamel	Mercia
Bottles	Essences of all sorts	Musical boxes
Bugles of all kinds	Extracts of all sorts	Musk
Cambric	Feathers, ostrich and others, not otherwise enumerated, dressed or undressed	Myrrh
Camphor		Nutmegs, imported by licence
Candles		Nux vomica
Cantharides	Flowers, artificial	Opium
Cardamoms	Garnets	Or molu
Cards	Gauze of all kinds	Otar of roses
Carmine	Ginger, preserved	Paper
Cassia buds, ligneæ, fistulæ	Glass of all kinds	Pearls
Castor	Grains of Paradise and of Guinea	Pictures
China ware and porcelain		Pipes
Cider	Gum opoponax	Platina
Cinnamon, imported under licence	Hair, human	Platting of all sorts
Citron water	powder	Powder of bronze and brass
Civet	Hats and bonnets of all sorts	Powder, not otherwise enumerated, which will serve for the same use as starch
Cloves, imported under licence	Jalap	
Clocks	Jet	
Cochineal	Jewels, emeralds, ru-	

Quicksilver	Snuff	Soap
Radix ipecacuanhæ and rhatania	Spikenard	Starch
Resina jalapæ	Stones, bezoar	
Rhubarb	Storax of all kinds	Vanilloes
Saffron	Succades	Vellum
Sal limoseum and succini	Sugar	Verdigris
Scammony	Threads of all kind	Vinegar
Silk, raw and organsined	Tobacco	Watches of all sorts
	Tortoiseshell	Watch glasses
	Treacle of Venice	Waters, mineral and strong, of all sorts
	Truffles	Wires
	Turbith	Yarn, mohair

And also all goods and merchandise of every description, which, under the provisions of the warehousing act, may be imported for the purpose of exportation only; all which goods may be deposited only in warehouses enclosed by and surrounded with walls, or in other warehouses, or in places of special security, especially to be approved by the commissioners of the treasury.

Warehouse Rent.

Rates for warehouse rent on goods deposited in the king's warehouses in the several outports, viz.—

On large cases and vats containing toys or other merchandise, and packages of wine and other liquids, per week, 6*d.* each.

Packages of baggage, small packages of presents; viz. boxes, kegs, jars, &c., per week, 2*d.* each. All other packages not before described (except tobacco), per week, 4*d.* each.

For every hogshead of tobacco deposited in the king's warehouse at London, 2*s.*; and for every hogshead taken out of the same, 2*s.* For every hogshead of tobacco warehoused in the king's warehouse at the outports, 1 1-2*d.* per week.—(*Treasury Orders*, Nov. 27, 1824, and March 19, 1830.)

(The act 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 89. § 20. has the following proviso:—

The commissioners of customs shall remit or return the duties payable or paid, on the whole or any portion of wine, spirits, or other fluid, which shall be lost by any unavoidable accident in the warehouse in which it was deposited according to the provisions in the act 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 57., or any other act to be passed for the warehousing of goods; and the duties upon the following articles, *deposited in warehouses of special security*, viz. wine, currants, raisins, figs, hams, cheese, and mahogany, when taken out of warehouse for home use, shall be charged upon *the quantities actually delivered*.

Loss by Fire in Warehouses.—The 5 & 6 Will. 4. c. 66. enacts, that the clause in the general warehousing act, 3 & 4 Will. 4. c. 56. § 41. (*antè*, vol. ii. p. 713.), providing for the indemnification of the merchants for damage occasioned to merchandise in warehouses by embezzlement, waste, or spoil, or by the wilful misconduct of the officers, shall not extend, or be taken to extend, to any damage or loss occasioned by fire.—§ 4.—*Sup.*)

WATCHES (Ger. *Uhren, Taschenuhren*; Fr. *Montres*; It. *Orivoli da tasca, o da saccoccia*; Sp. *Relojes de faltriquera*; Rus. *Karmannüe tschasü*), portable machines, generally of a small size and round flat shape, that measure and indicate the successive portions of time; having, for the most part, their motions regulated by a spiral spring. When constructed on the most approved principles, and executed in the best manner, a watch is not only an exceedingly useful, but a most admirable piece of mechanism. It has exercised the genius and invention of the most skilful mechanics, as well as some of the ablest mathematicians, for nearly 3 centuries. And, considering the smallness of its size, its capacity of being carried about uninjured in every variety of position, the number and complexity of its movements, and the extraordinary accuracy with which it represents the successive portions of time as determined by the rotation of the earth on its axis, we need not wonder at Dr. Paley having referred to it as a striking specimen of human ingenuity.

Spring watches are constructed nearly on the same principle as pendulum clocks. Instead of the pendulum in the latter, a spring is used in the former, the isochronism of the vibrations of which corrects the unequal motions of the balance.

Historical Notice.—The invention of spring watches dates from about the middle of the 16th century, and has been warmly contested for Huygens and Hooke. The English writers generally incline in favour of the latter. Dr. Hutton says—(*Mathematical Dictionary*, art. *Watch*), that the words "Rob. Hooke invenit, 1658," were inscribed on the dial plate of a watch presented to Charles II. in 1675. But Montucla affirms (*Histoire des Mathématiques*, tom. ii. p. 513. ed. 1800), that Huygens made this "*belle découverte*" in 1656, and presented a spring watch to the States of Holland in 1657. Comparing these statements, it certainly appears that the claim of Huygens to the priority of the discovery is the better established of the two. We do not, however, believe that either of those distinguished persons owed, in this respect, any thing to the other. The probability seems to be, that the happy idea of employing a spring to regulate the motion of watches occurred to them both nearly at the same time.

Improvement of Watches.—Owing to the facility with which the longitude may be determined by the aid of accurately going watches, it is of great importance to have them made as perfect as possible. In this view liberal premiums have been given to the makers of the best marine watches, or chronometers, by the governments of England, France, Spain, &c. In the reign of Queen Anne, parliament offered a reward of 20,000*l.* to any one who should make a watch, or other instrument, capable of determining the longitude at sea, within certain limits. This magnificent premium was awarded, in 1764, to the celebrated John Harrison, for a marine watch, which, being tried in a voyage to Barbadoes, determined its longitude with even more than the required accuracy. Other premiums, though of inferior amount, were subsequently given to Messrs. Mudge, Arnold, Earnshaw, &c. Since 1822, 2 prizes, one of 300*l.* and one of 200*l.*, have been annually given to the makers of the 2 chronometers adjudged to be the best, after having been submitted to a twelvemonth's trial at the Royal Observatory at Greenwich. And to such perfection has the manufacture attained, that some of the chronometers employed by navigators, though carried into the most opposite climates, have not varied to the extent of 2 seconds in their mean rate of going throughout the year.

Watch Manufacture.—The watch-making business is carried on to a great extent in London; the artists of which have attained to an unrivalled degree of excellence in this department. There are about 14,000 gold and 85,000 silver watches annually assayed at Goldsmith's Hall, London—(*Jacob on the Precious Metals*, vol. ii. p. 413.)—the aggregate value of which is, probably, not much under 600,000*l.* The manufacture is also carried on to a considerable extent at Liverpool, Coventry, Edinburgh, &c. Watch movements used to be extensively manufactured at Prescot in Lancashire; but latterly, we believe, the manufacturers have been withdrawing to Liverpool.

On the Continent, watches are principally manufactured at Paris, Geneva, and in Neufchâtel.

bane of the French and Swiss watches are excellent; but, generally speaking, they are slight, and inferior to those made in London. Paris and Geneva watches are largely exported to foreign countries; and are every where in high estimation, particularly among the ladies.

Watches impressed with any mark or stamp, appearing to be or to represent any legal British assay mark or stamp, or purporting by any mark or appearance to be of the manufacture of the United Kingdom, or not having the name and place of abode of some foreign maker abroad visible on the frame and also on the face, or not being in a complete state, with all the parts properly fixed in the case, may not be imported into the United Kingdom, even for the purpose of being warehoused.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 52. § 58. See *ante*, p. 10.

Watches in China.—Pretty considerable numbers of European watches are imported into China; and we anticipate, now that the monopoly is put down, a large increase of the trade. It may be worth mentioning, that those among the Chinese, as well as among some other Eastern nations, who can afford it, uniformly *wear watches in pairs!* This sort of extravagance is not, however, confined to watches, but extends to a variety of other articles. Shawls, for example, are invariably worn in India in pairs of exactly the same pattern; and it is hardly possible, indeed, to find a native dealer who will sell a single shawl.

In 1829, there were exported from Great Britain 18,678 watches of British manufacture; of these, 13,370 were silver, 4,187 metal, 435 gold, 671 being without cases. The duty on foreign watches and clocks is an *ad valorem* one of 25 per cent., and no account is kept of the numbers of each imported. In 1829, their aggregate value amounted to 25,333*l.*; the total value of the foreign clocks and watches exported during the same year being 1,054*l.*—(*Parl. Paper*, No. 490. 833.)

WATER. It may be thought unnecessary, perhaps, to say anything in a work of this sort with respect to a fluid so well known and so abundant. Besides being an indispensable necessary of life, water is, in most large cities, an *important commercial article.* It is in the latter point of view, principally, that we mean to consider it.—Inasmuch, however, as the mode of supplying different places with water, and its price, necessarily vary in every possible way, we shall limit our remarks on these subjects to the metropolis only. The few remarks we intend to offer of a general nature will apply indifferently to any populous place, the supply of which with water occasions a considerable expense.

1. *Quality of Water.*—Dr. Ure has made the following statements with respect to the quality of water:—"Water," says he, "is a very transparent fluid, possessing a moderate degree of activity with regard to organised substances, which renders it friendly to animal and vegetable life, for both which it is, indeed, indispensably necessary. Hence it acts but slightly on the organs of sense, and is therefore said to have neither taste nor smell. It appears to possess considerable elasticity, and yields in a perceptible degree to the pressure of air in the condensing machine.

"Native water is seldom, if ever, found perfectly pure. The waters that flow within or upon the surface of the earth contain various earthy, saline, metallic, vegetable, or animal particles, according to the substances over or through which they pass. Rain and snow waters are much purer than these, although they also contain whatever floats in the air, or has been exhaled along with the watery vapours.

"The purity of water may be known by the following marks or properties of pure water:—

"1. Pure water is lighter than water that is not pure.

"2. Pure water is more fluid than water that is not pure.

"3. It has no colour, smell, or taste.

"4. It wets more easily than the waters containing metallic and earthy salts, called hard waters, and feels softer when touched.

"5. Soap, or a solution of soap in alcohol, mixes easily and perfectly with it.

"6. It is not rendered turbid by adding to it a solution of gold in aqua regia; or a solution of silver, or of lead, or of mercury, in nitric acid; or a solution of acetate of lead in water.

"Water was, till modern times, considered as an elementary or simple substance; but it is now ascertained to be a compound of oxygen and hydrogen."

2. *Supply of Water.*—London was very ill supplied with water previously to the early part of the 17th century, when the New River water was introduced into the city. This exceedingly useful work was planned and carried into effect by the famous Sir Hugh Middleton, who expended his whole fortune on the project; having, like many other public benefactors, entailed poverty on himself and his posterity by embarking in an undertaking productive of vast wealth to others, and of great public utility. The New River has its principal source near Chadwell, between Hertford and Ware, about 20 miles from London; but the artificial channel in which the water is conveyed is about forty miles in length. Sir Hugh Middleton encountered innumerable difficulties during the progress of the undertaking, which it is probable would have been abandoned, at least for a time, but for the aid afforded by James I. The New River Company was incorporated in 1619, 6 years after the water had been brought to the reservoir at Islington. The undertaking yielded very little profit for a considerable number of years; but it has since become extremely profitable; so much so, that an original 500*l.* share has been sold for 13,000*l.*!

The Chelsea Water-Works Company was formed in 1723, and (with the aid of 3 smaller companies, none of which are now in existence) it, and the New River, supplied all that part of the metropolis north of the Thames with water, down to the year 1810. In that year, however, 3 new companies, the East London, West Middlesex, and Grand Junction, were established, under the authority of different acts of parliament. At this moment the metropolis is supplied with water by the following companies:—

New River,	Grand Junction,
Chelsea,	Lambeth,
East London,	Vauxhall, or South London, and
West Middlesex,	Southwark Water Works.

The following statements with respect to these companies are taken from Mr. Wade's valuable treatise on the police of the metropolis. The Report of the commissioners appointed by government in 1827, to inquire into the state of the supply of water in the metropolis is the principal authority on which they are founded.

"*The New River Company* get their supply from the spring at Chadwell, between Hertford and Ware. It comes in an open channel, of about 40 miles in length, to reservoirs at Clerkenwell. There are 2 reservoirs, having between them a surface of about 5 acres, and an average depth of 10 feet. These reservoirs are 84½ feet above low water mark in the Thames; and, by means of steam engines and a stand-pipe, an additional height of 60 feet can be given to the water, so that all the mains belonging to this Company are kept full by a considerable pressure of water. The highest service given by the New River is the cistern on the top of Covent Garden Theatre. The aqueduct by which the water is brought has only a fall of 2 inches per mile; thus it wastes, by evaporation, during the drought of summer, and is impeded by frost in the winter. At these times the Company pump an additional supply from the Thames, at Broken Wharf, between Blackfriars and Southwark Bridges. To this, however, they seldom have recourse; and their engine, erected since the works at London Bridge were broken down, has worked only 176 hours in the year. The New River Company supply 86,600 houses with water, at an annual average of about 1,160 hogsheads each, or, in all, about 75,000,000 hogsheads annually.

"*The East London Water Works* are situated at Old Ford, on the river Lea, about 3 miles from the Thames, and a little below the point to which the tide flows up the Lea. By the act of parliament, this Company must take its water when the tide runs up and the mills below have ceased working. The water is pumped into reservoirs and allowed to settle; and a supply of 6,000,000 gallons is daily distributed to about 42,000 houses. This Company supply no water at a greater elevation than 30 feet, and the usual height at which the delivery is made to the tenants is 6 feet above the pavement; they have 300 miles of iron pipes, which, in some places, cost them 7 guineas a yard. This and the New River are the only companies which do not draw their supply of water entirely from the Thames.

"*The West Middlesex* derive their supply of water from the Thames, at the upper end of Hammersmith, about 9½ miles above London Bridge, and where the bed of the Thames is gravel. The water is forced by engines to a reservoir at Kensington, 300 feet long, 123 wide, and 20 deep, paved and lined with bricks, and elevated about 120 feet above low water in the Thames. They have another reservoir on Little Primrose Hill, about 70 feet higher, and containing 98,000 hogsheads of water, under the pressure of which the drains are kept charged, in case of fires. They serve about 15,000 tenants, and the average daily supply is about 2,250,000 gallons.

"*The Chelsea Water Works* derive their supply from the Thames, about ¼ of a mile east of Chelsea Hospital; and they have 2 reservoirs—one in the Green Park and another in Hyde Park—the former having an elevation of 44 feet, and the latter of 70. These reservoirs, till within these few months, had never been cleaned, nor had there been any preparation made for that purpose in their construction. About ¼ of the water served out by this Company is allowed to settle in these reservoirs, and the remaining ¾ are sent directly from the Thames. Latterly, the Company have been making preparations for filtering the water; and also for allowing it to settle in reservoirs, at Chelsea, before it is delivered into the mains. The Chelsea Company serve about 12,400 houses, and the average daily supply is 1,760,000 gallons.

"*The Grand Junction Company* derive the whole of their supply from the Thames, immediately adjoining Chelsea Hospital; thence it is pumped, without any filtration or settling, into 3 reservoirs at Paddington. These reservoirs are about 71, 86, and 92 feet above high water mark in the Thames; their united contents are 19,355,840 gallons; and by means of a stand-pipe, the water is forced to the height of 147 feet, or about 61 feet above the average height in the reservoir. The number of houses supplied by the Grand Junction Company is 7,700, and the average daily supply is about 2,800,000 gallons.

"*The Lambeth Company* take their supply from the Thames, between Westminster and Waterloo Bridges. It is drawn from the bed of the river by a suction pipe, and delivered to the tenants without being allowed to subside; there being only a cistern of 400 barrels at the works, as a temporary supply, until the engines can be started. The greatest height to which the Company force water is about 40 feet; the number of houses that they supply is 16,000, and the average service is 1,344,000 gallons daily.

"*The South London*, or *Vauxhall Company*, take their supply from the river Thames by a tunnel, which is laid 6 feet below low water mark, and as far into the river as the third arch of Vauxhall Bridge. At that particular place, the bed of the Thames is described as being always clean, and without any of those depositions of mud and more offensive substances that are found in many other places. Besides the greater purity of the bed of the Thames here than where any other Company on the south side take their supply, the Company allow the water to settle in reservoirs. The Vauxhall Company supply about 10,000 houses with about 1,000,000 gallons of water daily.

"*The Southwark Water Works* (the property of an individual) are supplied from the middle of the Thames, below Southwark and London Bridges; and the water thus taken is sent out to the tenants without standing to settle, or any filtration further than it receives from passing through wire grates and small holes in metallic plates. The number of houses supplied by these works is about 7,000, and the average daily supply about 720,000 gallons."

The results may be collected into a Table, as follows:—

Companies.	Services.	Average per Day, Gallons.	Gallons Annually.	Average per House, Gallons.
1. New River	67,000	13,000,000	4,056,000,000	194
2. East London	42,000	6,000,000	1,872,000,000	143
3. West Middlesex	14,000	2,250,000	702,000,000	160
4. Chelsea	12,400	1,760,000	549,120,000	142
5. Grand Junction	7,700	2,800,000	873,600,000	363
6. Lambeth	16,000	1,344,000	388,128,000	77
7. South London	10,000	1,000,000	312,000,000	100
8. Southwark	7,000	720,000	224,540,000	102
Total	183,100	28,774,000	8,977,388,000	157

Average per house north of the river . . . 196 gallons.
Average per house south of the river . . . 88 ditto.

It would appear from this Table, as if the supply of water were either excessive on the Middlesex side of the river, or very deficient on the Surrey side. But this discrepancy is more apparent than real. The inhabitants in the northern district are, speaking generally, decidedly richer than those in the southern district; they have, particularly in the west end of the town, larger families, and a much greater number of horses. There is also a much larger expenditure of water upon the roads in Middlesex than in Surrey. Still, however, we believe that there is a more liberal supply in the former than in the latter.

Monopoly of the Water Companies.—The sanction of parliament was given to the 3 new companies formed in 1810, not so much in the view of increasing the actual supply of water, as of checking monopoly, and reducing the rates by their competition. But these expectations have not been realised. For a while, indeed, the competition of the several companies was exceedingly injurious to their in-

…ments, and occasioned the total destruction of some of the inferior ones: but no sooner had this happened, than the others discovered that their interests were in reality the same, and that the true way to promote them was to concert measures together. In furtherance of this object, the 5 companies for the supply of that part of the metropolis north of the river proceeded to divide the town into as many districts, binding themselves, under heavy penalties, *not to encroach on each other's estates*: and having in this way gone far to secure themselves against any new competitors, their next measure was to add *five and twenty* per cent. to the rates established in 1810; and these have, in several instances, been still further augmented! The benefits that were expected to result from their multiplication have, therefore, proved quite imaginary; and though the supply of water has been increased, it is neither so cheap nor so good as it might have been under a different system.

The following statement of the rates and profits of the 5 principal Water Companies in 1820 and 1827, is extracted from the *Report* of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on the supply of water in 1828:—

Comparative Returns of 1820 with 1827.

Years.	Houses.	Av. rate per House.	Gross Annual Income.	Gross Expenditure.	Nett Profit.	Remarks.
		s.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	
			West Middlesex.			
1820	16,260	47	24,332 6 10	9,000 0 0	15,332 6 10	
1827	14,500	61	27,000 0 0	13,000 0 0	24,000 0 0	
			Grand Junction.			
1820	7,130	57	20,155 11 7	8,816 6 5	11,337 5 7	
1827	7,939	61	24,702 5 0	10,674 5 4	14,027 16 8	
			Chelsea.			
1820	8,631	26	15,150 7 11	12,955 11 0	2,294 16 11	
1827	12,408	20	18,589 16 1	12,532 2 9	6,057 13 4	
			East London.			
1820	32,071	22	35,358 14 9	16,336 1 0	19,022 13 9	
1827	42,000	21	45,442 19 5	14,060 6 3	31,382 13 2	There was also a non-permanent expenditure in 1827, amounting to 23,317l. 18s. 2d.
			New River.			
1820	62,702	25	67,275 2 4	49,109 18 4	18,165 4 0	
1827	68,800	28	89,657 15 10	59,204 18 3	30,452 17 7	
			South London.			
1820	5,200	18	4,708 3 4	. . .	. . .	Incomplete.
1827	10,000	16	8,283 2 7	7,991 13 7	291 9 0	
			Lambeth.			
1820	11,487	16	9,355 0 0	8,582 0 0	783 0 0	
1827	15,987	16	12,370 0 0	9,500 0 0	2,870 0 0	
			Southwark.			
1820	. . .	.	. . .	. . .	. . .	Returns incomplete.
1827	6,900	.	. . .	. . .	. . .	

Total North of the Thames.

Years.	Houses.	Gross Annual Income.	Gross Expenditure.	Nett Profit.
		£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
1820	110,314	162,190 3 5	94,617 16 4	67,572 7 1
1827	143,318	221,392 16 4	109,461 10 7	111,931 5 9

Total South of the Thames.—Returns not complete.

The truth is, as we endeavoured to show in the article COMPANIES, that certain restrictions ought, in almost all cases, to be imposed on companies for the supply of water to a large city. These are not undertakings that can be safely trusted to the free principles that may generally be relied upon. If there be only one set of springs adjacent to a town, or if there be certain springs more conveniently situated for supplying it with water than any other, a company acquiring a right to such springs, and incorporated for the purpose of conveying the water to town, would thereby gain an *exclusive advantage*; and if no limits were set to its dividends, its partners might make an enormous profit at the expense of the public, and without its being possible materially to reduce them by means of competition. What has happened in the case of the New River Company sufficiently evinces the truth of what has now been stated. Had its dividends been limited to any thing like a reasonable profit, the water that is at present supplied by its means might have been furnished for a small part of what it actually costs. But in cases of this sort, priority of occupation, even without any other peculiar advantage, goes far to exclude all regular and wholesome competition. A company that has got pipes laid down in the streets may, if threatened by the competition of another company, lower its rates so as to make the latter withdraw from the field; and as soon as this is done, it may revert to its old, or even to higher charges. It is not, in fact, possible, in cumbrous concerns of this sort, to have any thing like competition, in the ordinary sense of the term; and experience shows that whenever it is attempted, it only continues for a limited period, and is sure to be in the end effectually suppressed. We are, therefore, clearly of opinion, that no company ought ever to be formed for the conveyance of water into a large city, without a maximum being set both to the rates and the dividends; giving the company an option, in the event of the maximum rate yielding more than the maximum dividend, either to reduce the rate, or to apply the surplus to the purchase of the company's stock; so that ultimately the charge on account of the dividends may be got rid of.

We are glad to have to add, that we are supported in what is now stated by the *Report* of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on the supply of water for the metropolis, printed in 1821. It is there said—"The public is at present without any protection even against a further indefinite extension of demand. In cases of dispute, there is no tribunal but the Boards of the companies themselves, to which individuals can appeal; there are no regulations but such as the companies may have voluntarily imposed upon themselves, and may therefore at any time revoke, for the continuance of the supply in its present state, or for defining the cases in which it may be withdrawn from the householder. All these points, and some others of the same nature, indispensably require legislative regulation, where the subject matter is an article of the first necessity, and the supply has, from peculiar circumstances, got into such a course that it is not under the operation of those principles which govern supply and demand in other cases.

"The principle of the acts under which these companies were instituted, was to encourage competition; and certainly in this, as in other cases, it is only from competition, or the expectation of competition, that a perfect security can be had for a good supply. But your committee are satisfied, that, from the peculiar nature of these undertakings, the principle of competition requires to be guarded by particular checks and limits in its application to them, in order to render it effectual, without the risk of destruction to the competing parties, and thereby, ultimately, of a serious injury to the public." And the committee proceeds to remark—"The submission of their accounts annually to parliament for a few years, would necessarily throw light on this part of the question."

We think that it would be highly expedient to adopt the suggestion of the committee, by calling upon the companies to lay annually detailed statements of their affairs before parliament. They should be obliged in these statements to give an account of the rates charged by them, and to make a special report as to every case in which they have withdrawn water from a householder. It is to no purpose to repeat, in opposition to this proposal, the common-places about competition securing for the citizens a sufficient supply of water at the lowest prices, in the same way that the competition of bakers and butchers secures them supplies of beef and bread! The statements already made show that there is no analogy whatever in the circumstances under which these articles are supplied. If a man be dissatisfied with any particular butcher or baker, he may go to another; but *it is not possible for him to change his water merchant*, unless he also change the place of his residence. No water company will encroach upon the district assigned to another; and supposing an individual unlucky enough to quarrel with those who have the absolute *monopoly* of the supply of the district in which he resides, he must either migrate to another, or be without water, unless he can get a supply upon his own premises! Such being the actual state of things, it is quite ludicrous to talk about competition affording any real security against extortion and abuse. Even the publication of the proceedings of the companies would be a very inadequate check on their conduct; but such as it is, it is perhaps the only one that can now be resorted to; and as it would have considerable influence, it ought not, certainly, to be neglected.

3. *Quality of the London Water.*—All the companies, with the exception of the New River and East London Companies, derive their supplies of water from the Thames; and in consequence of their taking it up within the limits to which the tide flows, it is necessarily, in the first instance, loaded with many impurities. But the reports that were recently so very prevalent, with respect to the deleterious quality of the water taken from the river, have been shown to be very greatly exaggerated. The statement of Dr. Bostock, given in the *Report* of the commissioners, shows that by far the greater part of the impurities in the Thames water are mechanically suspended in, and not chemically combined with it; and that they may be separated from it by filtration, or by merely allowing it to stand at rest. Most of the companies have recently made considerable efforts to improve their water; and though they have not done in this respect as much as they might and ought to have done a considerable improvement has, on the whole, been effected: and notwithstanding all that has been said to the contrary, we have been assured, by those best qualified to form an opinion on such a subject, that, though not nearly so pure as a little pains would render it, there is not the slightest foundation for the notion that its impurities have been such as to affect, in any degree, the health of the inhabitants.

4. *Water for Ships.*—Various improvements have been made in the art of preserving water on board ships. Of these, the principal are the charring the inside of the casks in which the water is kept, and the substitution of iron tanks for casks. The latter, being made of the required shape, may be conveniently stowed into any part of the ship. In men-of-war, the iron tanks serve as ballast; the water being brought up by a forcing pump. Water is found to preserve better in them than in any other sort of vessel. Drip-stones may be employed with much advantage in the purification of water. When water is taken on board from a river into which the tide flows, it should, of course, be raised at low ebb.

WAX (Ger. *Wachs*; Fr. *Cire*; It. and Sp. *Cera*; Rus. *Wosk*), a vegetable product. Several plants contain wax in such abundance, as to make it worth while to extract it from them. But bees' wax is by far the most generally known. The honey is first pressed from the comb, and the wax is then melted into cakes. It has a slight odour of honey, is insipid, and of a bright yellow hue. It is brittle, yet soft, and somewhat unctuous to the touch. It is often adulterated with earth, pea-meal, resin, &c. The presence of the former may be suspected when the cake is very brittle, or when its colour inclines more to gray than to yellow; and the presence of resin may be suspected when the fracture appears smooth and shining, instead of being granulated. Wax, when bleached, or purified, is white, perfectly insipid, inodorous, and somewhat translucent; it is harder, less unctuous to the touch, heavier, and less fusible, than yellow wax. It is sometimes adulterated with the white oxide of lead to increase its weight, with white tallow, and with potato starch. The first is detected by melting the wax in water, when the oxide falls to the bottom; the presence of tallow is indicated by the wax being of a dull opaque white, and wanting the transparency which distinguishes pure wax; and starch may be detected by applying sulphuric acid to the suspected wax, as the acid carbonises the starch, without acting on the wax.—(*Thomson's Chemistry*, and *Dr. A. T. Thomson's Dispensatory*.)

Notwithstanding the large supply of wax produced at home, a considerable quantity is imported from abroad; and there can be no doubt that the import would be much greater, were it not for the magnitude of the duty, which, notwithstanding its late reduction, still amounts to 1*l.* 10*s.* per cwt. The total quantity imported, in 1831, amounted to 7,203 cwt., of which 3,892 cwt. came from Western Africa, 1,551 cwt. from Tripoli, Barbary, &c., 910 cwt. from the United States, and the rest from Russia, Germany, &c.

Account of the Imports and Exports of Wax, the Quantities retained for Home Use, the Rates of Duty thereon, and the Nett Produce of the Duty, in 1831 and 1832.—(*Papers published by the Board of Trade*, vol. ii. p. 29.)

	Imports. 1831.	Imports. 1832.	Exports. 1831.	Exports. 1832.	Retained for Home Consumption. 1831.	Retained for Home Consumption. 1832.	Rate of Duty.	Produce of Duty.
	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.
Wax, unbleached	7,005	4,349	1,578	2 526	10,002	392	1 10 0	10,203 0 0
Bleached	186		604		94		3 0 0	823 0 0

The price of wax varies (duty included) from 5*l.* to 10*l.* a cwt.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES. Weights are used to ascertain the gravity of bodies,—a quality depending partly on their magnitude, and partly on their density. Measures are used to determine the magnitude of bodies, or the space which they occupy.

(For an account of the weights and measures used in foreign countries, and their equivalents in English weights and measures, see the notices of the great sea-port towns dispersed

throughout this work. Thus, for the Russian weights and measures, see PETERSBURGH; for those of China, see CANTON, &c.)

Neither the magnitude nor the weight of any one body can be determined, unless by comparing it with some other body selected as a standard. It is impossible, indeed, to form any idea in respect of magnitude or weight, except in relation to some definite space or weight with which we are acquainted. We say that one article weighs 1 pound, another 2 pounds, a third 3, and so on; meaning not only that these weights are to each other as 1, 2, 3, &c., but also that the weight or specific gravity of the first is equal to the known and determinate weight denominated a pound, that the second is equal to 2 pounds, and so on.

Standards of Weight and Measure.—Standards of lineal measure must have been fixed upon at the earliest period, and appear to have consisted principally of parts of the human body—as the cubit, or length of the arm from the elbow to the tip of the middle finger: the foot; the *ulna*, arm, or yard; the span; the digit, or finger; the fathom, or space from the extremity of one hand to that of the other, when they are both extended in opposite directions; the pace, &c. Large spaces were estimated by measures formed out of multiples of the smaller ones; and sometimes in day's journeys, or by the space which it was supposed an ordinary man might travel in a day, using a reasonable degree of diligence.

But lineal measures can only be used to determine the magnitude of solid bodies; the magnitude of bodies in a liquid or fluid state has to be determined by what are called measures of capacity. It is probable that, in the infancy of society, shells, or other hollow instruments afforded by nature, were used as standards. But the inaccuracy of the conclusions drawn from referring to them must soon have become obvious; and it early occurred, that to obtain an accurate measure of liquids nothing more was necessary than to constitute an artificial one, the dimensions, and consequently the capacity, of which should be determined by the lineal measures previously adopted.

The determination of the gravity or weight of different bodies supposes the invention of the balance. Nothing is known of the steps which led to its introduction; but it was used in the remotest antiquity. It seems probable that, at first, cubes of some common lineal measure, as a foot, or the fraction of a foot, formed of copper, iron, or some other metal, were used as standards of weight. When the standard was selected, if it was desired to ascertain the specific gravity or weight of any given article, all that was necessary was to put it into one of the scales of the balance; and as many cubes, or parts of cubes, on the other, as might be necessary to counterpoise it.

Weights have, however, been frequently derived from grains of corn. Hence, in this, and in some other European countries, the lowest denomination of weight is a *grain*; and 32 of these grains are directed, by the ancient statute called *Compositio Mensurarum*, to compose a pennyweight, whereof 20 make an ounce, 12 ounces a pound, and so upwards.

In every country in which commercial transactions are extensively carried on, the importance of having weights and measures determined by some fixed standard becomes obvious to every one. But as the size of different parts of the human body differ in different individuals, it is necessary to select some durable article,—a metallic rod, for example,—of the length of an ordinary cubit, foot, &c., and to make it a standard with which all the other cubits, feet, &c. used in mensuration shall correspond. These standards have always been preserved with the greatest care: at Rome, they were kept in the temple of Jupiter; and among the Jews, their custody was intrusted to the family of Aaron.—(*Paucton, Métrologie*, p. 223.)

The principal standards used in the ancient world, were, the cubit of the Jews, from which their other measures of length, capacity, and weight were derived; and the foot of the Greeks and Romans.

In England, our ancient historians tell us that a new, or rather a revived, standard of lineal measures was introduced by Henry I., who ordered that the ulna, or ancient ell, which corresponds to the modern yard, should be made of the exact length of his own arm, and that the other measures of length should be raised upon it. This standard has been maintained, without any sensible variation. In 1742, the Royal Society had a yard made, from a very careful comparison of the standard ells or yards of the reigns of Henry VII. and Elizabeth kept at the Exchequer. In 1758, an exact copy was made of the Royal Society's yard; and this copy having been examined by a committee of the House of Commons, and reported by them to be equal to the standard yard, it was marked as such; and this identical yard is declared, by the act 5 Geo. 4. c. 74., to be the standard of lineal measure in Great Britain. The clause in the act is as follows:—

"From and after the 1st day of May, 1825 (subsequently extended to the 1st of January, 1826), the straight line or distance between the centres of the 2 points in the gold studs in the straight brass rod now in the custody of the clerk of the House of Commons, whereon the words and figures 'STANDARD YARD, 1760,' are engraved, shall be the original and genuine standard of that measure of length or lineal extension called a yard; and the same straight line or distance between the centres of the said 2 points in the said gold studs in the said brass rod, the brass being at the temperature of 62° by Fahrenheit's thermometer, shall be and is hereby denominated the 'IMPERIAL STANDARD YARD,' and shall be and is hereby declared to be the unit or only standard measure of extension, wherefrom or whereby all other measures of extension whatsoever, whether the same be lineal, superficial, or solid, shall be derived, computed, and ascertained; and that all measures of length shall be taken in parts

or multiples or certain proportions of the said standard yard; and that 1-3d part of the said standard yard shall be a foot, and the 12th part of such foot shall be an inch; and that the pole or perch in length shall contain 5½ such yards, the furlong 220 such yards, and the mile 1,760 such yards."—§ 1.

The superficial measures are formed on the basis of the square of this standard; it being enacted, that

"The rood of land shall contain 1,210 square yards, according to the said standard yard; and that the acre of land shall contain 4,840 such square yards, being 160 square perches, poles, or rods."—§ 2.

Uniformity of Weights and Measures.—The confusion and inconvenience attending the use of weights and measures of the same denomination, but of different magnitudes, was early remarked; and there is hardly a country in which efforts have not been made to reduce them to the same uniform system. Numerous acts of parliament have been passed, having this object in view, and enjoining the use of the same weights and measures, under very severe penalties. But, owing to the inveteracy of ancient customs, and the difficulty of enforcing new regulations, these statutes have always had a very limited influence, and the greatest diversity has continued to prevail, except in lineal measures. But the statute of 5 Geo. 4, c. 74. seems to have, at length, effected what former statutes failed of accomplishing. It is, perhaps, indebted for its success in this respect to the moderate nature of the changes which it introduced. We have already seen that it made no alteration in the lineal measures previously in use. Neither did it affect the previously existing system of weights: both the Troy and the Avoirdupois weights having been preserved.

"The Troy weight," says Mr. Davies Gilbert, President of the Royal Society, "appeared to us (the commissioners of weights and measures) to be the ancient weight of this kingdom, having, as we have reason to suppose, existed in the same state from the time of St. Edward the Confessor; and there are reasons, moreover, to believe, that the word Troy has no reference to any town in France, but rather to the monkish name given to London, of Troy Novant, founded on the legend of Brute. Troy weight, therefore, according to this etymology, is, in fact, London weight. We were induced, moreover, to preserve the Troy weight, because all the coinage has been uniformly regulated by it; and all medical prescriptions or formulæ now are, and always have been, estimated by Troy weight, under a peculiar subdivision, which the College of Physicians have expressed themselves most anxious to preserve."

It was resolved, therefore, to continue the use of Troy weight; and also, on account of the accuracy of the Troy standard, to raise the Avoirdupois weight from this basis.

"We found," said Mr. Davies Gilbert, "the Avoirdupois weight, by which all heavy goods have been for a long time weighed (probably derived from Avoirs (Averia), the ancient name for goods or chattels, and Poids, weight), to be universally used throughout the kingdom. This weight, however, seems not to have been preserved with such scrupulous accuracy as Troy weight, by which more precious articles have been weighed; but we had reason to believe that the pound cannot differ by more than 1, 2, or 3 grains, from 7,000 grains Troy; some being in excess, and others, though in a less degree, in defect, but in no case amounting to above 1, 2, or 3 grains. It therefore occurred to us, that we should be offering no violence to this system of weights, if we declared that 7,000 grains Troy should be hereafter considered as the pound Avoirdupois."

In accordance with these views, it was enacted,—"that from and after the 1st day of May, 1825, the standard brass weight of 1 pound Troy weight, made in the year 1758, now in the custody of the clerk of the House of Commons, shall be, and the same is hereby declared to be, the original and genuine standard measure of weight, and that such brass weight shall be, and is hereby denominated, the Imperial Standard Troy pound, and shall be, and the same is hereby declared to be, the unit or only standard measure of weight, from which all other weights shall be derived, computed, and ascertained; and that 1-12th part of the said Troy pound shall be an ounce; and that the 1-20th part of such ounce shall be a pennyweight; and that 1-24th part of such pennyweight shall be a grain; so that 5,760 such grains shall be a Troy pound; and that 7,000 such grains shall be, and they are hereby declared to be, a pound Avoirdupois, and that 1-16th part of the said pound Avoirdupois shall be an ounce Avoirdupois, and that 1-16th part of such ounce shall be a dram."

The measures of capacity were found to be, at the period of passing the late statute, in the greatest confusion; and a considerable change has consequently been made in them. The wine gallon formerly amounted to 231 cubic inches, the corn gallon to 268·8, and the ale gallon to 282. But these are superseded by the Imperial gallon, which contains 277·274 cubic inches, or 277¼ very nearly. It is deduced as follows:—

"The standard measure of capacity, as well for liquids as for dry goods not measured by heaped measure, shall be THE GALLON, containing 10 lbs. avoirdupois weight of distilled water weighed in air, at the temperature of 62° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, the barometer being at 30 inches; and a measure shall be forthwith made of brass, of such contents as aforesaid, under the directions of the Lord High Treasurer, or the commissioners of his Majesty's treasury; and such brass measure shall be, and is hereby declared to be, the Imperial standard gallon, and shall be, and is hereby declared to be, the unit and only standard measure of capacity, from which all other measures of capacity to be used, as well for wine, beer, ale, spirits, and all sorts of liquids, as for dry goods not measured by heap measure, shall be derived, computed, and ascertained; and all measures shall be taken in parts or multiples or certain proportions of the said Imperial standard gallon: and the quart shall be ¼th part of such standard gallon, and the pint shall be ½ of such standard gallon, and 2 such gallons shall be a peck, and 8 such gallons shall be a bushel, and 8 such bushels a quarter of corn or other dry goods, not measured by heaped measure."—§ 6.

We subjoin a Table showing the contents of the different gallons, both in measure and weight.

	Cubic Inches.	Avoirdupois Weight.			Troy Weight.			
		Lbs.	*oz.*	*dr.*	*Lbs.*	*oz.*	*dwt.*	*grs.*
Imperial gallon	277·274	10	0	0	12	1	16	16
Corn gallon	268·8	9	10	1¼	11	9	7	12
Wine gallon	231	8	5	0¼	10	1	9	22
Ale gallon	282	10	2	11¼	12	4	6	8

Heaped Measures.—The greatest blemish, by far, in the new act, is the continuance and legitimation of the practice of selling by heaped measure. We are astonished at the toleration of such a barbarous custom. All articles that may be sold by heaped measure *ought* to be sold by weight. In Scotland, indeed, the use of heaped measure was legally abolished above 200 years since; and the present ill-advised attempt to revive a practice productive of nothing but fraud has been universally rejected in that country. The clauses in the act as to heaped measure are as follow:—

The standard measure of capacity for *coals, culm, lime, fish, potatoes*, or *fruit, and all other goods and things commonly sold by heaped measure*, shall be the aforesaid bushel, containing 80 lbs. avoirdupois of water as aforesaid, the same being made round, with a plain and even bottom, and being 19½ inches from outside to outside of such standard measure as aforesaid.—§ 7.

In making use of such bushel, all coals and other goods and things commonly sold by heaped measure, shall be duly heaped up in such bushel, in the form of a cone, such cone to be of the height of at least 6 inches, and the outside of the bushel to be the extremity of the base of such cone; and 3 bushels shall be a sack, and 12 such sacks shall be a chaldron.—§ 8. It was further enacted, by stat. 6 Geo. 4. c. 12., that from and after the 1st of January, 1826, all such heaped measures shall be made cylindrical, and the diameter of such measures shall be at the least double the depth thereof, and the height of the cone or heap shall be equal to ⅓ths of the depth of the said measure, the outside of the measure being the extremity of or base of such cone.—§ 2.

Measure of Weight, or Heaped Measure, to be used for Wheat.—Provided always, that any contracts, bargains, sales, and dealings, made or had for or with respect to any coals, culm, lime, fish, potatoes, or fruit, and all other goods and things commonly sold by heaped measure, sold, delivered, done, or agreed for, or to be sold, delivered, done, or agreed for, by weight or measure, shall and may be either according to the said standard of weight, or the said standard for heaped measure; but all contracts, bargains, sales, and dealings, made or had for any other goods, wares, or merchandise, or other thing done or agreed for, or to be sold, delivered, done, or agreed for, by weight or measure, shall be made and had according to the said standard of weight, or to the said gallon, or the parts, multiples, or proportions thereof; and in using the same the measures shall not be heaped, but shall be stricken with a round stick or roller, straight, and of the same diameter from end to end.—(5 *Geo.* 4. c. 74. § 9.)

Models.—The 12th section of the act directs models of the standard weights and measures to be kept in the different counties, cities, burghs, &c. for the verification of the weights and measures in use in such places.

Contracts for Sale, &c. by Weight or Measure.—All contracts, bargains, sales, and dealings, which shall be made or had within any part of the United Kingdom, for any work to be done, or for any goods, wares, merchandise, or other thing to be sold, delivered, done, or agreed for, by weight or measure, where no special agreement shall be made to the contrary, shall be deemed to be made and had according to the standard weights and measures ascertained by this act; and in all cases where any special agreement shall be made, with reference to any weight or measure established by local custom, the ratio or proportion which every such local weight or measure shall bear to any of the said standard weights or measures shall be expressed, declared, and specified in such agreement, or otherwise such agreement shall be null and void.—§ 15.

Existing Weights and Measures may be used, being marked.—And as it is expedient that persons should be allowed to use the several weights and measures which they may have in their possession, although such weights and measures may not be in conformity with the standard weights and measures established by this act; it is therefore enacted, that it shall be lawful for any person or persons to buy and sell goods and merchandise by any weights or measures established either by local custom, or founded on special agreement: provided that, in order that the ratio or proportion which all such measures and weights shall bear to the standard weights and measures established by this act shall be and become a matter of common notoriety, the ratio or proportion which all such customary measures and weights shall bear to the said standard weights and measures shall be painted or marked upon all such customary weights and measures respectively; but nothing herein contained shall extend to permit any maker of weights or measures, or any person or persons whomsoever, to make any weight or measure, at any time after the 1st of May, 1825, except in conformity with the standard weights and measures established under this act.—§ 16.

False or deficient Weights, &c.—The 21st section declares that all the powers, rules, and regulations in force by former acts for preventing the use of false and deficient measures are to be applied and put in execution, except such as are expressly repealed or altered by this act.

Invariable or Natural Standards.—As the standards adopted in most countries have been in a great degree arbitrary, it has long been the opinion of scientific men, that, to construct a more perfect system of weights and measures, some natural and unchangeable basis should be adopted. It has indeed been contended by Paucton and Bailly, that the measures of the ancients were deduced from a basis of this sort: and that the *stadium* always formed an aliquot part of the earth's circumference, that part differing amongst different nations and authors. But no learning or ingenuity can induce any one to believe what is so obviously incredible. The ancients had no means of determining the earth's circumference with any thing like the accuracy required to render it the great unit of a system of measures; and, what is equally decisive, no ancient author ever makes the slightest allusion to any such standard.

In more modern times, however, the idea of seeking for a unit of weight and measure in some unchanging natural object has been practically carried into effect. The standards that have been usually proposed for this object, have been some aliquot part of the quadrant of the meridian, or the length of a pendulum vibrating seconds in some given latitude. The latter has been in so far adopted into the existing system of weights and measures established by the act of 1823, that the length of the standard yard, as compared with that of a pendulum vibrating seconds in the latitude of London, is specified in the act as follows:—

"Whereas it has been ascertained by the commissioners appointed by his Majesty to inquire into the subject of weights and measures, that the said yard hereby declared to be the Imperial standard yard, when compared with a pendulum vibrating seconds of mean time in the latitude of London, in a vacuum at the level of the sea, is in the proportion of 36 inches to 39 inches and 1,393 ten-thousandth parts of an inch: be it therefore enacted and declared, that if at any time hereafter the said Imperial standard yard shall be lost, or shall be in any manner destroyed, defaced, or otherwise injured, it shall

and may be restored by making, under the direction of the Lord High Treasurer, or the commissioners of his Majesty's treasury of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or any 3 of them for the time being, a new standard yard, bearing the same proportion to such pendulum as aforesaid, as the said Imperial standard yard bears to such pendulum."

TABLES OF ENGLISH WEIGHTS AND MEASURES, ACCORDING TO THE NEW OR IMPERIAL STANDARD.

IMPERIAL TROY WEIGHT.

The standard pound containing 5,760 grs.

			French Grammes.
		1 Grain	= 0·0648
24 Grains	-	1 Pennyweight	= 1·5552
20 Pennyweights	-	1 Ounce	= 31·1027
12 Ounces	-	1 Pound	= 373·2330

Troy weight is used in the weighing of gold, silver, jewels, &c. It is also used in ascertaining the strength of spirituous liquors; in philosophical experiments; and in comparing different weights with each other.

APOTHECARIES' WEIGHT.

			Fr. Gram.
		1 Grain - -	= 0·0648
20 Grains	-	1 Scruple - -	= 1·296
3 Scruples	-	1 Dram - -	= 3·888
8 Drams	-	1 Ounce - -	= 31·102
12 Ounce	-	1 Pound - -	= 373·232

This weight is essentially the same as Troy weight, but differently divided. It is chiefly used for medical prescriptions; but drugs are mostly bought and sold by avoirdupois weight.

DIAMOND WEIGHT.—Diamonds and other precious stones are weighed by carats, the carat being divided into 4 grains, and the grain into 16 parts. The diamond carat weighs 3 1-5 grains Troy: thus,

Diamond Weight.		Troy Weight.	Decigrammes.
16 Parts	- 1 Grain -	0 8-10 Grains -	= 51½
4 Grains	- 1 Carat -	3 1-5 — -	= 205½

IMPERIAL AVOIRDUPOIS WEIGHT.

			Fr. Gram.
		1 Dram -	= 1·771
16 Drams	-	1 Ounce -	= 28·346
16 Ounces	-	1 Pound -	= 453·544
28 Pounds	-	1 Quarter -	= 12·699 kil.
4 Quarters	-	1 Hundred wt.	= 50·796 —
20 Hundred wt.		1 Ton -	= 1015·920 —

The dram is subdivided into 3 scruples, and each scruple into 10 grains; the pound, or 7,680 grains avoirdupois, equals 7,000 grains Troy, and hence 1 grain Troy equals 1·097 grains avoirdupois.

Hence also 144 lbs. avoirdupois = 175 lbs. Troy.
and - 192 oz. ditto = 175 oz. ditto.

The stone is generally 14 lbs. avoirdupois weight, but for butcher's meat or fish it is 8 lbs. Hence the hundred weight (cwt.) equals 8 stone of 14 lbs. or 14 stone of 8 lbs.

A stone of glass is 5 lbs. A seam of glass 24 stone, or 120 lbs.

Hay and straw are sold by the load of 36 trusses. The truss of hay weighs 56 lbs. and of straw 36 lbs. The truss of new hay is 60 lbs. until the 1st of September.

The custom of allowing more than 16 ounces to the pound of butter used to be very general in several parts of the country.

WOOL WEIGHT.

Like all other bulky articles, wool is weighed by avoirdupois weight, but the divisions differ; thus,

7 Pounds -	= 1 Clove.	6½ Tods	= 1 Wey.
2 Cloves -	= 1 Stone.	2 Weys	= 1 Sack.
2 Stone -	= 1 Todd.	12 Sacks	= 1 Last.

A pack of wool contains 240 lbs.

CHEESE AND BUTTER.

8 Pounds	-	= 1 Clove.
32 Cloves	-	= 1 Wey in Essex.
42 do.	-	= 1 do. in Suffolk.
56 Pounds	-	= 1 Firkin of Butter.

IMPERIAL LONG MEASURE.

				Fr. Metres.
12	Inches	- 1 Foot	- =	0·3048
3	Feet	- 1 Yard	- =	0·9144
5½	Yards	- 1 Pole or Rod	=	5·0291
40	Poles	- 1 Furlong	- =	201·1628
8	Furlongs	- 1 Mile	- =	1609·3059
3	Miles	- 1 League	- =	4827.9179
60	Geographical, or 69½ Eng. Miles	1 Degree	- =	111307448

Besides the above, there are the palm, which equals 3 inches; the hand, 4 inches; the span, 9 inches; and the fathom, 6 feet.

IMPERIAL SUPERFICIAL MEASURE.

			Fr. & Metres.
144	Inches	- 1 Square foot	= 0·0929
9	Square feet	- 1 Square yard	= 0·8361
30¼	Square yards	- 1 Square pole	= 25·2916
40	Square poles	- 1 Rood	= 1011·6662
4	Roods	- 1 Acre	= 4046·6648

The inch is generally divided, on scales, into 10ths, or decimal parts; but in squaring the dimensions of artificers' work, the duodecimal system is adopted; the inch being divided into 12 parts or lines, each part into 12 seconds, and each second into 12 thirds.

Land is usually measured by a chain of 4 poles, or 22 yards, which is divided into 100 links. Ten chains in length and 1 in breadth make an acre, which equals 160 square perches, or 4,840 square yards.

CUBIC OR SOLID MEASURE.

			Fr. Cubic Metres.
1,728	Cubic inches	- 1 Cubic foot	- = ·0282
27	Cubic feet	- 1 Cubic yard	- = ·7645
40 Feet of rough timber, or 50 Feet hewn do.		1 Load or ton	= 1·1326 to 1·4157
42	Cubic feet	- 1 Ton of shipping	= 1·1892

By cubic measure, marble, stone, timber, masonry, and all artificers' works of length, breadth, and thickness, are measured, and also the contents of all measures of capacity, both liquid and dry.

IMPERIAL LIQUID AND DRY MEASURE,

Deduced from the Standard Gallon, containing 10 lbs. weight of distilled water, temperature 62° barometer 30 inches.

Weight of Water.	Cubic Feet.	Cubic Inches.	Gills.	Pints.	Quarts.	Pottles.	Gallons.	Pecks.	Bushels.	Coombs.	Quarters.
5 oz.		8·665	1	—							
lbs. 1¼		34·659	4	1	—						
2½		69·318	8	2	—	—					
5		138·637	16	4	2	1	—				
10		277·274	32	8	4	2	1	—			
20		554·548	64	16	8	4	2	1	—		
80	1·2837	2219·191	256	64	32	16	8	4	1	—	
320	5·1347	8873·763	1,024	256	128	64	32	16	4	1	—
640	10·2694	17745·526	2,048	512	256	128	64	32	8	2	1

The dimensions of the Imperial standard bushel are as follows:—The outer diameter 19½ inches, and the inner diameter 18½. The depth is 8½, and the height of the cone, for heaped measure, is 6 inches. The contents of the Imperial heaped bushel are 2815·4887 cubic inches. The subdivisions and multiples are in the same proportion.

OLD MEASURES SUPERSEDED BY THE IMPERIAL SYSTEM.

OLD WINE MEASURE.

			Cub. In.	Fr. Litres
	1 Pint	-	28·875 -	= 0·4731
2 Pints	1 Quart	-	57·75 -	= 0·9463
4 Quarts	1 Gallon	-	231 -	= 3·7853
42 Gallons	1 Tierce	-	5·614 ..et	= 158·9072
2 Tierces	1 Puncheon	-	11·228 —	= 317·8145
63 Gallons	1 Hogshead	-	8·421 —	= 238·4509
2 Hogshds.	1 Pipe or Butt		16·842 —	= 476·9018
2 Pipes	1 Tun	-	33·684 —	= 953·8036

The pint is subdivided into halves and quarters; the latter is called a gill. A rundlet is 18 gallons, and an anker 9.

Conversion of Old Wine Measure into Imperial Measure.—The old wine gallon contains 231 cubic inches, and the Imperial gallon 277·274 ditto. Hence, to convert wine gallons into Imperial gallons, multiply by $\frac{231}{277\cdot274}$, or by ·83311; and to convert Imperial gallons into wine gallons, multiply by the reciprocal fraction $\frac{277\cdot274}{231}$, or by 1·20032. But for most practical purposes, wine measure multiplied by 5 and divided by 6 will give Imperial measure with sufficient accuracy, and conversely.

N. B.—The multipliers and divisors employed to reduce old wine, ale, &c. measures to Imperial measure, serve also to reduce prices by the former to the latter.

We subjoin, from the very complete and valuable work of Mr. Buchanan, of Edinburgh, on Weights and Measures, a

Table of English Wine Gallons, from 1 to 100, with their Equivalents in Imperial Gallons.

Wine Gallons.	Equivalents in Imperial Gallons.	Wine Gallons.	Equivalents in Imperial Gallons.	Wine Gallons.	Equivalents in Imperial Gallons.	Wine Gallons.	Equivalents in Imperial Gallons.
1	0·83311	26	21·66058	51	42·48806	76	63·31613
2	1·66622	27	22·49369	52	43·32177	77	64·14984
3	2·49933	28	23·32711	53	44·15488	78	64·98295
4	3·33244	29	24·16022	54	44·98799	79	65·81576
5	4·16555	30	24·99 333	55	45·82110	80	66·64887
6	4·99867	31	25·82644	56	46·65421	81	67·48198
7	5·83178	32	26·65955	57	47·48732	82	68·31509
8	6·66488	33	27·49266	58	48·32043	83	69·14820
9	7·49800	34	28·32577	59	49·16354	84	69·98132
10	8·33111	35	29·15888	60	49·9865	85	70·81443
11	9·16432	36	29·99199	61	50·81976	86	71·64754
12	9·99733	37	30·82510	62	51·65288	87	72·48065
13	10·83044	38	31·65821	63	52·48599	88	73·31376
14	11·66355	39	32·49133	64	53·31910	89	74·14687
15	12·49666	40	33·32444	65	54·15221	90	74·97998
16	13·32977	41	34·15755	66	54·98532	91	75·81309
17	14·16289	42	34·99066	67	55·81843	92	76·64620
18	14·99600	43	35·82377	68	56·65154	93	77·47931
19	15·82910	44	36·65688	69	57·48465	94	78·31243
20	16·66222	45	37·48999	70	58·31776	95	79·14554
21	17·49533	46	38·32310	71	59·15087	96	79·97865
22	18·32844	47	39·15620	72	59·98398	97	80·81176
23	19·16155	48	39·98932	73	60·81710	98	81·64487
24	19·99466	49	40·82243	74	61·65021	99	82·47798
25	20·82777	50	41·65555	75	62·48332	100	83·31109

Hence, supposing the former denominations to be preserved, a tierce of wine = 35 Imperial gallons very nearly; a puncheon = 70 ditto very nearly; a hogshead = 52½ ditto very nearly; a pipe or butt = 105 ditto very nearly; and a tun = 210 ditto very nearly.

OLD ALE AND BEER MEASURE.

		Cub. In.		Fr. Litres.
	1 Pint - -	35·25	=	0·5776
2	Pints 1 Quart -	70·5	=	1 1552
4	Quarts 1 Gallon	282	=	4·6208
8	Gallons 1 Firkin ale	1·305 feet	=	36·9669
9	Gallons 1 ditto beer	1·468 —	=	41·5872
2	Firkins 1 Kilderkin	2·937 —	=	83·1744
2	Kilderkins 1 Barrel -	5·875 —	=	166·3488
1½	Barrel 1 Hogshead	8·812 —	=	249·5232
2	Barrels 1 Puncheon	10·750 —	=	332·6976
1½	Hogsheads 1 Butt -	17·624 —	=	499·0464
2	Butts 1 Tun -	35·248 —	=	998·0928

Conversion of Old Ale and Beer Measure into Imperial Measure.—The old ale gallon contains 282 cubic inches, and the Imperial standard gallon 277·274 ditto. Hence, to convert ale gallons into Imperial gallons, multiply by $\frac{282}{277\cdot274}$, or by 1·0170145: and to convert Imperial gallons into ale gallons, multiply by the reciprocal fraction $\frac{277\cdot274}{282}$ or by ·9832411. Unless extreme accuracy be required, the first 3 decimals need only be used. And for most practical purposes, ale measure multiplied by 59 and divided by 60 will give Imperial measure with sufficient accuracy, and conversely.

Table of English Ale Gallons, from 1 to 100, with their Equivalents in Imperial Gallons.

Ale Gallons.	Equivalents in Imperial Gallons.	Ale Gallons.	Equivalents in Imperial Gallons.	Ale Gallons.	Equivalent in Imperial Gallons.	Ale Gallons.	Equivalents in Imperial Gallons.
1	1·01704	26	26·44316	51	51·86927	76	77·29538
2	2·03409	27	27·46020	52	52·88 31	77	78 31243
3	3·05113	28	28·47725	53	53·90336	78	79·32947
4	4·06818	29	29·49429	54	54 92040	79	80·34652
5	5·08522	30	30·51134	55	55·93745	80	81·36356
6	6·10227	31	31·52838	56	56·95449	81	82·.·060
7	7·11931	32	32·54542	57	57·97154	82	83 39765
8	8·13636	33	33·56247	58	58 98858	83	84·41469
9	9·15340	34	34 57951	59	60 00·563	84	85 43174
10	10·17045	35	35·59656	60	61·02267	85	86·44878
11	11·18749	36	3··61360	61	62·03971	86	87·46583
12	12·20453	37	37·63065	62	63 0·676	87	88·48287
13	13·22158	38	38·64769	63	64·07380	88	89·49992
14	14·23862	39	39·66474	64	65·09085	89	90·51696
15	15·25567	40	40·68178	65	66·10789	90	91·53401
16	16·27271	41	41·69882	66	67·12494	91	92·55105
17	17·28976	43	42·71587	67	68 14198	93	93·56809
18	18·30680	43	43·73291	68	69·15903	93	94·58514
19	19·32385	44	44·74996	69	70·17607	94	95 60·18
20	20·34089	45	45 76700	70	71·19312	95	96·61923
21	21·35793	46	46·78407	71	72·21016	96	97·63627
22	22·37498	47	47·80109	72	73·22721	97	98·65332
23	23·39202	48	48·81814	73	74·24425	98	99·67 36
24	24·40907	49	49·83518	74	75·26129	99	1·0 68741
25	25·42611	50	50·85223	75	76·27834	100	101·70445

COAL MEASURE.

Coals were formerly sold by the chaldron, which bears a certain proportion to Winchester measure.

4	Pecks	- -	=	1 Bushel.
3	Bushels	- -	=	1 Sack.
3	Sacks	- -	=	1 Vat.
4	Vats	- -	=	1 Chaldron.
21	Chaldrons	- -	=	1 Score.

The coal bushel holds 1 Winchester quart more than the Winchester bushel; its contents being 2217·62 cubic inches. It is 19½ inches wide from outside to outside, and 8 inches deep. In measuring coals it was heaped up in the form of a cone, to the height of at least 6 inches above the brim (according to a regulation passed at Guildhall in 1806), the outside of the bushel being the extremity of the cone, so that the bushel should contain at least 2814·9 cubic inches, nearly equal to the Imperial heaped bushel. Hence the chaldron should measure 58·64 cubic feet.

But the sale of coals by measure has, in consequence of the frauds to which it led—(see vol. i p. 361.),—been abolished; and they are now sold by weight.

Of Wood Fuel, English Measure.—Wood fuel is assized into shids, billets, faggots, fall wood, and cord wood. A shid is to be 4 feet long, and according as they are marked and notched, their proportion must be in the girth; viz. if they have but 1 notch, they must be 16 inches in the girth; if 2 notches, 23 inches; if 3 notches, 28 inches; if 4 notches, 33 inches; and if 5 notches, 38 inches about. Billets are to be 3 feet long, of which there should be 3 sorts; viz. a single cask, and a cask of 2; the 1st is 7 inches, the 2d 10 inches, and the 3d 14 inches, about: they are sold by the 100 of 5 score. Faggots are to be 3 feet long, and at the band 24 inches about, besides the knot of such faggots; 50 go to the load. Bavins and spray wood are sold by the 100, which are accounted a load. Cord wood is the bigger sort of fire wood, and it is measured by a cord, or line, whereof there are 2 measures; that of 14 feet in length, 3 feet in breadth, and 3 feet in height. The other is 8 feet in length, 4 feet in height, and 4 feet in breadth.

MEASURES OF WOOD.

1,000	Billets of wood -	=	1 Cord.
10	cwt. of ditto - -	=	1 Cord.
1	Cord of wood - -	=	¼ Chaldron of coals.
100	lbs. of wood - -	=	1 Quintal of wood

OLD DRY OR WINCHESTER MEASURE.

			Cub. In.		Fr. Litres.
4 Gills	1 Pint	-	33·6	=	0·55053
2 Pints	1 Quart	-	67·2	=	1·10107
2 Quarts	1 Pottle	-	134·4	=	2·20214
2 Pottles	1 Gallon	-	268·8	=	4·40428
2 Gallons	1 Peck	-	537·6	=	8·80856
4 Pecks	1 Bushel	-	2150·42	=	35·23430
4 Bushels	1 Coom	-	4·977 ft.	=	140·93721
2 Cooms	1 Quarter	-	9·954	=	281·87443
5 Quarters	1 Wey or Load		49·770	=	1409·37216
2 Weys	1 Last	-	99·540	=	2818·74432

The Winchester bushel is 18½ inches wide, and 8 inches deep. Corn and seeds are measured by striking the bushel from the brim, with a round piece of light wood, about 2 inches in diameter, and of equal thickness from one end to the other. All other dry goods are heaped.

Conversion of Winchester Bushels into Imperial Bushels.—The Winchester bushel contains 2150·42 cubic inches, and the Imperial standard bushel 2218·192 ditto. Hence, to convert Winchester bushels into Imperial bushels, multiply by $\frac{2150{\cdot}42}{2218{\cdot}192}$, or by ·969447; and to convert Imperial bushels into Winchester bushels, multiply by the reciprocal fraction $\frac{2218{\cdot}192}{2150{\cdot}42}$, or 1·0315157. For practical purposes, multiply Winchester measure by 31 and divide by 32 for Imperial measure, and the contrary.

In some markets, corn is sold by weight, which is the fairest mode of dealing, though not the most convenient in practice. Even where measures are used, it is customary to weigh certain quantities or proportions, and to regulate the prices accordingly. The average bushel of wheat is generally reckoned at 60 lbs.—of barley 47 lbs.—of oats 38 lbs.—peas 64, beans 63, clover 66, rye and canary 53, and rape 48 lbs. In some places, a load of corn, for a man, is reckoned 5 bushels, and a cart load 40 bushels.

Table of Winchester Quarters, from 1 to 100, with their Equivalents in Imperial Quarters.

Winchester Quarters.	Equivalents in Imp. Quarters.	Winchester Quarters.	Equivalents in Imp. Quarters.	Winchester Quarters.	Equivalents in Imp. Quarters.	Winchester Quarters.	Equivalents in Imp. Quarters.
1	0·96945	26	25·20562	51	49·44180	76	73·67797
2	1·93889	27	26·17507	52	50·41124	77	74·64742
3	2·90834	28	27·14452	53	51·38069	78	75·61687
4	3·87778	29	28·11396	54	52·35014	79	76·58631
5	4·84724	30	29·08341	55	53·31959	80	77·55576
6	5·81668	31	30·05286	56	54·28903	81	78·52521
7	6·78613	32	31·02230	57	55·25848	82	79·49465
8	7·75558	33	31·99175	58	56·22793	83	80·46410
9	8·72502	34	32·96120	59	57·19737	84	81·43355
10	9·69447	35	33·93065	60	58·16682	85	82·40300
11	10·66392	36	34·90009	61	59·13627	86	83·37244
12	11·63336	37	35·86954	62	60·10571	87	84·34189
13	12·60281	38	36·83899	63	61·07516	88	85·31134
14	13·57226	39	37·80843	64	62·04461	89	86·28078
15	14·54171	40	38·77788	65	63·01406	90	87·25023
16	15·51115	41	39·74733	66	63·98350	91	88·21968
17	16·48060	42	40·71677	67	64·95295	92	89·18912
18	17·45005	43	41·68622	68	65·92240	93	90·15857
19	18·41949	44	42·65567	69	66·89184	94	91·12802
20	19·38894	45	43·62512	70	67·86129	95	92·09747
21	20·35839	46	44·59456	71	68·83074	96	93·06691
22	21·32783	47	45·56401	72	69·80018	97	94·03637
23	22·29728	48	46·53346	73	70·76963	98	95·00581
24	23·26673	49	47·50290	74	71·73908	99	95·97525
25	24·23618	50	48·47235	75	72·70853	100	96·94470

French System of Weights and Measures.—The new metrical system established in France subsequently to the Revolution, is founded on the measurement of the quadrant of the meridian, or of the distance from the pole to the equator. This distance having been determined with the greatest care, the ten-millionth part of it was assumed as the *mètre*, or unit of length, all the other lineal measures being multiples, or submultiples of it in decimal proportion. The mètre corresponds pretty nearly to the ancient French *aune*, or yard, being equal to 3·07844 French feet, or 3·281 English feet, or 39·3708 English inches.

The unit of weight is the *gramme*, which is a cubic centimètre, or the 100th part of a mètre of distilled water of the temperature of melting ice; it weighs 15·434 English Troy grains.

In order to express the decimal proportion, the following vocabulary of names has been adopted, in which the terms for multiplying are Greek, and those for dividing are Latin.

For multipliers, the word

Deca prefixed means	-	10 times.
Hecto	-	100 —
Kilo	-	1,000 —
Myria	-	10,000 —

On the contrary, for divisors,

the word *Deci* expresses the		10th part.
Centi	-	100th —
Milli	-	1,000th —

Thus, *Decamètre* means 10 mètres.

Decimètre — the 10th part of a mètre.

Kilogramme — 1,000 grammes, &c.

The *are* is the element of square measure, being a square decamètre, equal to 3·955 English perches.

The *stère* is the element of cube measure, and contains 35·317 cubic feet English.

The *litre* is the element of all measures of capacity. It is a cubic decimètre, and equals 2·1135 English pints. 100 litres make the hectolitre, which equals 26·419 wine gallons, or 2·838 Winchester bushels.

SYSTEME USUEL, OR BINARY SYSTEM.—This new system has the metrical standards for its basis, but their divisions are binary, that is, by 2, 4, 8, &c.; and instead of the new vocabulary, the names of the ancient weights and measures are used, annexing the term *usuel* to each. Thus the half kilogramme is called the livre usuelle, and the double mètre, the toise usuelle.

The following Tables show the proportions between the new or metrical French system and the English system:—

Comparison of FRENCH and ENGLISH WEIGHTS and MEASURES, containing the New or Metrical Weights and measures of France, with their proportion to those of England, both according to the Decimal System and the Système usuel.

DECIMAL SYSTEM.

Long Measures.

French.		English.
Millimètre	=	0·03937 inches.
Centimètre	=	0·39371 —
Decimètre	=	3·93710 —
Mètre	=	39·37100 —
Decamètre	=	32·80916 feet
Hectomètre	=	328·09167 —
Kilomètre	=	1093·63890 yards.
Myriamètre	=	10936·38900 — or 6 miles 1 furlong 28 poles.

Measures of Capacity.

Millilitre	=	0·06103 cubic inches
Centilitre	=	0·61028 —
Décilitre	=	6·10280 —
Litre (a cubic decimètre)	=	61·02803 — or 2·1135 wine pints.
Décalitre	=	610·28028 cubic inches. or 2 612 wine gallons.
Hectolitre	=	3·5317 cubic feet, or 26·419 wine gallons, 22 Imperial gallons, or 2·839 Winchester bushels
Kilolitre	=	35·3171 cubic feet, or 1 tun and 12 wine gallons.
Myrialitre	=	353·17146 cubic feet.

Solid Measures.

Décistère	=	3·5317 cubic feet.
Stère (a cubic mètre)	=	35·3174
Décastere	=	353·1741

Superficial Measures.

Centiare	=	1·1960 sq. yards.
Are (a square decamètre)	=	119·6046 —
Décare	=	1196·0460 —
Hectare	=	11960·4604 —
		or 2 acres 1 rood 35 perches.

Weights.

Milligramme	=	0·0154 grains.
Centigramme	=	0·1543
Décigramme	=	1·5134
Gramme	=	15·4340
Décagramme	=	154·3102
		or 5 64 drams avoirdupois.
Hectogramme	=	3·2134 oz. Troy, or 3·527 oz. avoirdupois.
Kilogramme	=	2 lbs. 8 oz. 3 dwt. 2 grs. Troy, or 2 lbs. 3 oz. 4·428 drams avoirdupois.
Myriagramme	=	26·795 lbs. Troy, or 22·0485 lbs. avoirdupois.
Quintal	=	1 cwt. 3 qrs. 25 lbs. nearly.
Millier, or Bar	=	9 tons 11 cwt. 3 qrs. 12 lbs.

SYSTEME USUEL.

Comparison of Weight.

	Grammes.		Troy Weight. Lbs.	oz.	dwt.	gr.	Avoirdupois. Lbs.	oz.	dr.
Kilogramme	1,000	=	2	8	3	2	2	3	4½
Livre usuelle	500	=	1	4	1	13	1	1	10½
Half	250	=		8	0	18·5		8	13½
Quarter	125	=		4	0	9·25		4	6¾
Eighth	62·5	=		2	0	4·5		2	3¼
Once	31·2	=		1	0	2·25		1	1¾
Half	15·6	=			10	1·125			8⅞
Quarter	7·8	=			5	0·5			4½
Gros	3·9	=			2	12·25			2¼

Comparison of Linear Measures.

Mesures usuelles.			English Measure. Mètres.	Feet.	Inch.	Parts.
Toise usuelle	-	=	2	6	6	9
Pied, or foot	-	=	0⅓	1	1	1½
Inch	-	=	$0\frac{1}{36}$	0	1	1½
Aune	-	=	1⅛	3	11	3
Half	-	=	0½	1	11	7½
Quarter	-	=	$0\frac{3}{10}$	0	7	9½
Eighth	-	=	$0\frac{3}{20}$	0	5	10½
Sixteenth	-	=	$0\frac{3}{40}$	0	2	$11\frac{1}{18}$
One third of an aune	-	=	0⅔	1	3	9
Sixth	-	=	0⅓	0	7	10½
Twelfth	-	=	$0\frac{1}{10}$	0	3	11½

Comparison of Measures of Capacity.

	Litres.	Eng. Winch. Bush.
Boisseau usuel -	12·5	= 0·35474

With halves and quarters in proportion.

	Paris Pints.	English Pint.
Litron usuel - -	1·074	$2\frac{1}{0}$

With halves and quarters in proportion.

Ancient Weights and Measures.—This subject is involved in considerable difficulty; and to enter fully into it would be quite inconsistent with our object and limits. But the following details, abstracted from the best authorities, may be useful to such of our readers as have occasion to look into any of the ancient authors.

TABLE OF VARIOUS ANCIENT WEIGHTS (*according to different Authorities*).

	English Troy Grains.	
Attic obolus -	8·2	Christiani.
	9·1	Arbuthnot.
Attic drachma -	51·9	Chr.
	54·6	Arb.
	69	Paucton.
Lesser mina -	3,892	Chr.
Greater mina -	5,189	Chr.
	5,464	Arb.
	6,900	Pauc.
Medical mina -	6,994 gr.	Arb.
Talent = 60 mine =	1 cwt.	English.
Old Greek drachm -	146·5 Eng. Troy gr.	Arb.
	62·5 =	Rom. denarius, Arb.
Old Greek mina -	6,425	Do.
Egyptian mina -	8,326	Do.
Ptolemaic mina of Cleopatra -	8,985	Do.
Alexandrian mina of Dioscorides -	9,992	Do.
Roman denarius -	51·9 =	½ Rom. oz. Chr.
	62·5 =	½ Rom. oz. Arb.
Denarius of Nero -	54	Pauc.
Papyrius	61·7	Do.
Ounce - -	415·1	Chr.
	437·2	Arb.
	431·2	Pauc.
Pound of 10 oz. -	4,150	Chr.
	4,981	Chr.
12 oz. -	5,346	Arb.
	5,174·4	Pauc.

SCRIPTURE MEASURES OF LENGTH.—(*Arbuthnot and Hutton.*)

	Inches.
Digit - - - - -	0·7425
Palm - - - - -	2·97
Span - - - - -	8·91
	Eng. Feet.
Lesser cubit - - - -	1·483
Sacred cubit - - - -	1·7325
	Yards.
Fathom - - - - -	2·31
Ezekiel's reed - - - -	3·465
Arabian pole - - - -	4·62
Schœnus - - - - -	40·2
Stadium - - - -	231
Sabbath day's journey - -	1,155
	Miles.
Eastern mile - - - -	1·896
Parasang - - - -	4·158
Day's journey - - - -	33·264

GRECIAN MEASURES OF LENGTH.—(*Arbuthnot and Hutton.*)

	Inches.
Dactylos - - - - -	0·75546
Doron } - - - - -	3·02187
Dochme }	
Dichas - - - - -	7·55468
Orthodoron - - - -	8·31015
Spithame - - - - -	9·08562
Pous - - - - -	12·0875
	Eng. Feet.
Pous - - - - -	1·00729
Pygme - - - - -	1·13203
Pygon - - - - -	1·25911
Pechys - - - - -	1·51093
	Eng. Paces.
Orgya - - - - -	1·00729
Stadios } - - - -	100·72916
Dulos }	
Milion - - - - -	805·8333

ROMAN MEASURES OF LENGTH.—(*Arbuthnot and Hutton.*)

	Eng. Inches.
Digitus transversus - - -	0·72525
Uncia, the ounce - - - -	0·967
Palmus minor - - - -	2·901
Pes, the foot - - - -	11·604
	Eng. Feet.
Palmipes - - - - -	1·20875
Cubitus - - - - -	1·4505
Gradus - - - - -	2·4175
	Paces.
Passus - - - - -	0·967
Stadium - - - - -	120·875
Milliare - - - -	967

ROMAN DRY MEASURES.—(*Arbuthnot and Hutton.*)

	Eng. Pints.
Hemina - - - - -	0·5074
Sextarius - - - -	1·0146
	Eng. Peck.
Modius - - - - -	1·0141

ATTIC DRY MEASURES.

	Eng. Pints.
Xestes	0·9903
Chenix	1·486
	Winch. Bush.
Medimnus	1·0906

JEWISH DRY MEASURES (*according to Josephus*).

	Eng. Pints.
Gachal	0·1949
Cab	3·874
Gomer	7·0152
	Eng. Peck.
Seah	1·4615
	Winch. Bush.
Ephah	1·0961
Latech	5·4807
	Quarter.
Corom, Chomer	1·3702

ROMAN MEASURES FOR LIQUIDS.—(*Arbuthnot and Hutton.*)

	Eng. Pints.
Hemina	0·59750
Sextarius	1·19518
Congius	7·1712
Urna	3·5857
Amphora	7 1712
	Hhds.
Culeus	2·2766

ATTIC MEASURES FOR LIQUIDS.

	Eng. Pints.
Cotylus	0·5742
Xestes	1·1483
Chous	6·8900
	Wine Gall.
Meteotes	10·3350

JEWISH MEASURES FOR LIQUIDS.

	Eng. Pints.
Caph	0·8612
Log	1·1483
Cab	4·5933
	Wine Gall.
Hin	1·7225
Seah	3·4450
Bath	10·3350
	Hhds.
Coron	1·6405

(The act 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 49., passed in 1834, repealed some of the clauses in the acts 5 Geo. 4. c. 74., and 6 Geo. 4. c. 12., establishing the new system of weights and measures, and enacted others in their stead. But the act referred to has been itself repealed by the 5 & 6 Will. 4. c. 63. This new act contains several important provisions. It abolishes all local or customary measures, under a penalty of 40*s.* for every sale made by them; it prohibits the mischievous practice of selling by heaped measure; it enacts that coals shall in all cases be sold by weight; that, with the exception of gold, silver, platina, diamonds, and other precious stones (which may be sold by troy weight), and drugs (which may be sold in retail by apothecaries' weight), all other articles sold by weight shall be sold by avoirdupois weight only; and that a stone shall, in all cases, consist of 14 lbs. avoirdupois; a hundred weight of 8 such stones, &c. Lead and pewter weights are not to be stamped.

The act sets out with repealing the 4 & 5 of Will. 4. c. 49., and the provisions in the acts 5 Geo. 4. c. 74. and 6 Geo. 4. c. 12., which require that all weights and measures shall be exact models or copies in shape or form of the standards deposited in the exchequer; and those allowing the use of weights and measures, not in conformity with the Imperial standard, established by said acts; or that allow goods or merchandise to be bought or sold by weights or measures established by local custom, or founded on special agreement. It then goes on to enact as follows:—

Weights and Measures stamped at the Exchequer declared legal.—Weights and measures verified and stamped at the exchequer as copies of standard weights and measures, shall be taken to be legal weights and measures, to be used for comparison as copies of the Imperial standard weights and measures, although not similar in shape to those required under the provisions of the said acts; and the comptroller-general, or other duly authorised officer of the exchequer, may compare and verify, and stamp as correct, standard measures of a yard, standard weights, and standard measures of capacity, any weights and measures which correspond in length, weight, and capacity with the standards, or parts or multiples thereof, deposited in the exchequer, under the 5 Geo. 4. c. 74., although such weights and measures may not be models or copies in shape or form of the standards so deposited.—§ 4.

Copies of the Standard Weights and Measures worn to be re-verified.—All copies of the Imperial standard weights and measures which have become defective, or have been mended, in consequence of wear or accident, shall forthwith be sent to the exchequer, for the purpose of being again compared and verified, and shall be stamped as re-verified copies of such standard weights and measures, provided the comptroller-general, or other officer appointed for such verification, deem them fit for the purposes of standards; and every new comparison and verification shall be indorsed upon the original indenture of verification; and such weights and measures shall be stamped upon the payment of fees of verification only; and the comptroller-general, or other officer shall keep an account of all copies of the Imperial standard weights and measures verified at the exchequer.—§ 5.

Local and Customary Measures abolished.—From and after the passing of this act, the Winchester bushel, the Scotch ell, and all *local or customary* measures, shall be abolished; and every person who shall sell by any measure other than one of the Imperial measures, or some multiple or aliquot part thereof, shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 40*s.* for every such sale: but nothing herein shall prevent the sale of any articles in any vessel, where such vessel is not represented as containing any amount of Imperial measure, or of any fixed, local, or customary measure heretofore in use.—§ 6.

Heaped Measure abolished.—From and after the passing of this act, so much of the said acts as relates to heaped measure is hereby repealed, and the use of heaped measure shall be abolished, and all bargains, sales, and contracts made after the passing of this act, by heaped measure, shall be null and void; and every person who shall sell any articles by heaped measure shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding 40*s.* for every such sale.—§ 7.

Articles sold by Heaped Measure, how to be sold.—Whereas some articles heretofore sold by heaped measure are incapable of being stricken, and may not be conveniently sold by weight; it is enacted, that all such articles may henceforth be sold by a bushel measure, corresponding in shape with the bushel prescribed by the 5 Geo. 4. c. 74. for the sale of heaped measure, or by any multiple or aliquot part thereof, filled in all parts as nearly to the level of the brim as the size and shape of the articles will admit; but nothing herein shall prevent the sale by weight of any article heretofore sold by heaped measure.—§ 8.

Coals to be sold by Weight.—From and after the 1st of January, 1836, all coals, slack, culm, and cannel of every description shall be sold by weight, and not by measure, under a penalty of 40*s.* for every sale.—§ 9.

All Articles to be sold by Avoirdupois, except, &c.—From and after the passing of this act, all articles sold by weight shall be sold by avoirdupois weight, except gold, silver, platina, diamonds, or other precious stones, which may be sold by troy weight; and drugs, which, *when sold by retail*, may be sold by apothecaries' weight.—§ 10.

The Stone, Hundred Weight, &c.—From and after the passing of this act, the weight denominated a

stone shall, in all cases, consist of 14 standard pounds avoirdupois, the hundred weight of 8 such stones and the ton of 20 such hundred weights; but nothing herein shall prevent any bargain, sale, or contract being made by any multiple or aliquot part of the pound weight.—§ 11.

Contents of Weights and Measures to be stamped on them.—All weights made after the passing of this act of the weight of one pound avoirdupois, or more, shall have the number of pounds contained in them stamped or cast on the top or side thereof in legible figures and letters; and all measures of capacity made after the passing of this act, shall have their contents stamped or marked on the outside thereof in legible figures and letters.—§ 12.

Weights of Lead or Pewter not to be stamped.—The stamping of weights of lead or pewter, or of any mixture thereof, is prohibited after the 1st of January, 1836; but nothing herein shall prevent the use of lead or pewter, or any mixture thereof, in the manufacture of weights wholly and substantially cased with brass, copper, or iron, and legibly stamped or marked "cased," or prevent the insertion of such a plug of lead or pewter into weights as shall be *bonâ fide* necessary for adjusting them and affixing the stamp thereon.—§ 13.

Conversion of Rents, Tolls, &c.—Clauses 14. and 15. regulate the proceedings that are to take place in England, Ireland, and Scotland, for the conversion of rents, tolls, &c. payable in weights or measures now abolished into Imperial standard weights and measures.

Fiar Prices.—In Scotland, from and after the passing of this act, the fiar prices of all grain in every county shall be struck by the Imperial quarter, and all other returns of the prices of grain shall be set forth by the same, without any reference to any other measure whatsoever; and any sheriff clerk, clerk of a market, or other person offending against this provision shall forfeit not exceeding 5*l.*—§ 16.

Copies of Standards, Inspectors, &c.—Clauses 17, 18, 19, and 20. prescribe the mode in which copies of the standard weights and measures shall be provided in counties, cities, boroughs, &c., the appointment of inspectors of weights and measures, &c. Clause 22. orders, that the expense of providing copies of standard weights, with the remuneration to inspectors, be defrayed out of the county rate. Clause 23. prohibits any maker or seller of weights or measures from being appointed inspector, and orders all inspectors to enter into a bond of 200*l.* for the due performance of the duties of their office, and the safe custody of the stamps and standard weights and measures committed to their care. Clause 24. orders inspectors to attend at market towns when ordered by justices. The following clauses are of general importance.

Magistrates to procure Stamps for Inspectors for stamping all Weights, &c.—In England, the justices in general or quarter sessions assembled, and in Scotland the justices and magistrates at a meeting called by the sheriff, and in Ireland the grand juries, shall provide the inspectors with good and sufficient stamps for stamping or sealing weights and measures; and all weights and measures whatsoever, except as herein excepted, used for buying and selling, or for the collecting of any tolls or duties, or for the making of any charges on the conveyance of any goods or merchandise, shall be examined and compared with one or more copies of the Imperial standard weights and measures provided under authority of this act for such inspectors, who shall stamp, so as best to prevent fraud, such weights and measures, if they be found to correspond with the said copies; and the fees for such examination, comparison, and stamping, shall be those in the schedule at the end of this act; and every person using any weight or measure other than those authorised by this act, or some aliquot part thereof, or which has not been stamped as aforesaid, except as herein excepted, or which shall be found light or otherwise unjust, shall forfeit not exceeding 5*l.*; and any contract, bargain, or sale made by such weights or measures shall be wholly null and void; and every light or unjust weight and measure shall, on being discovered by any inspector, be seized, and, on conviction, forfeited; but nothing herein shall require any single weight above 56 lbs. to be inspected and stamped, nor any wooden or wicker measure used in the sale of lime, or other articles of the like nature, or any glass or earthenware jug or drinking cup, though represented as containing the amount of any Imperial measure, or of any multiple thereof; but any person buying by any vessel represented as containing the amount of an Imperial measure, or of any multiple thereof, is authorised to require the contents of such vessel to be ascertained by comparison with a stamped measure, such measure to be provided by the person using such wooden or wicker measure, glass jug, or drinking cup; and in case the person using such last-mentioned measure or vessel refuse to make such comparison, or if, upon comparison being made, it be found to be deficient in quantity, the person using the same shall be subject to the forfeitures and penalties imposed on those using light or unjust weights or measures.—§ 21.

Weights and Measures once stamped need not be re-stamped.—No weight or measure duly stamped by any inspector appointed under the 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 49., or this act, or by any person or persons authorised to examine and stamp weights or measures, shall be liable to be re-stamped, although the same be used in any other place than that at which it was originally stamped, but shall be considered as a legal weight or measure throughout the U. K., unless found to be defective or unjust.—§ 27.

Power to Justices, &c. to enter Shops and inspect Weights and Measures.—Justices, sheriffs, magistrates, and inspectors are authorised to examine weights and measures, and to order such as are light or otherwise unjust to be seized and forfeited; those using such weights and measures are subjected to a penalty of not more than 5*l.*; and a like penalty is imposed on those refusing to produce such weights and measures, or obstructing the magistrates.—§ 28.

Penalties on Inspectors counterfeiting Stamps, &c.—Inspectors or other persons authorised to inspect weights or measures, who shall stamp any weight or measure without verifying the same, or who shall otherwise misconduct themselves in their office, shall for every such offence forfeit not more than 5*l.*; persons forging or counterfeiting any stamp or mark used for stamping or marking weights or measures, forfeit for every offence not more than 50*l.* and not less than 10*l.*; and persons knowingly using weights or measures marked with such counterfeit stamps, forfeit for every offence not more than 10*l.* nor less than 2*l.*—§§ 29. 30.

Penalty on Price Lists, &c.—From and after the 1st of January, 1836, any person printing, or clerk of any market or other person making any return, price list, price current, or any journal or other paper containing price list or price current, in which the weights and measures quoted or referred to denote or imply a greater or less weight or measure than is denoted or implied by the same denomination of Imperial weights and measures under the provisions of this act, shall forfeit and pay not exceeding 10*s.* for *every copy* of every such return, price list, price current, journal, or other paper which they publish.—§ 31.

The remaining clauses relate to the recovery of penalties; and save the rights of the Founders' Company, and of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

Schedule of fees to be taken by all inspectors of weights and measures appointed under the authority of this act:—

For examining, comparing, and stamping all brass weights, within their respective jurisdictions,	£	d.
Each half hundred weight	0	2
Each quarter of a hundred weight	0	6
Each stone	0	4
Each weight under a stone to a pound inclusive	0	1
Each weight under a pound	0	0 1·2
Each set of weights of a pound and under	0	

For examining, comparing, and stamping all iron weights, or weights of other descriptions not made of brass, within their respective jurisdictions,—	d.
Each half hundred weight	0 3
Each quarter of a hundred weight	0 2
Each stone	0 1
Each weight under a stone	0 0 1·2
Each set of weights of a pound and under	0 2

For examining, comparing, and stamping all wooden measures, within their respective jurisdictions,—	s.	d.
Each bushel	0	3
Each half bushel	0	2
Each peck, and all under	0	1
Each yard	0	0 1-2

For examining, comparing, and stamping all measures of capacity of liquids, made of copper or other metal, within their respective jurisdictions,—	s.	d.
Each five gallon	1	0
Each four gallon	0	9
Each three gallon	0	6
Each two gallon	0	4
Each gallon	0	2
Each half gallon	0	1
Each quarter and under	0	0 1-2

Sup.)

["At the organization of the federal government, authority was conferred upon congress to establish a uniform system of weights and measures. But, surprising as it may appear, no laws have as yet been enacted by that body for the perfection of so important an object. Some measures have been taken to obtain information on the subject, and able reports have been made by Messrs. Jefferson Adams, and Hassler. By an order of congress, in June, 1836, a set of standard weights and measures, similar to those in use in England anterior to the passing of the 'Act of Uniformity' in May, 1834, have been prepared by Mr. Hassler for the use of each customhouse, and for each state. Hence, the old measures of England, superseded by the imperial system, with such modifications as local customs or state laws have ingrafted upon it, may be regarded as the general standard adopted in this country.

Most of the states of the Union have attempted to reduce their standards of weights and measures to a uniform system, and numerous laws have been enacted with that view; but so far from succeeding in their object, they have had, in most instances, an opposite effect. There are but few states in which the proportions of their measures are required by law to be the same—lineal, superficial, and cubic measures excepted—although they may bear the same names; and owing to the difficulty of enforcing new regulations, strong prejudices against any innovation, and a constant influx of settlers from one state into another, and from various countries of Europe, who bring their own accustomed weights and measures, uniformity cannot be said to exist in any state of the Union. In this country, as did England and France before their new systems were adopted, local consumers do not feel the whole disadvantage of this confusion; but merchants and others, who make large sales or purchases in distant parts of the country, often experience serious difficulties in converting to their own local standards the quantities expressed according to another rate. The proportion which one standard bears to another is not always easily obtained; and when it is, the calculations to be made are often long and difficult, and may not always give an accurate result."—*Hunt's Merchants' Magazine*, vol. iv., page 344.—*Am. Ed.*]

WELD, or DYER'S WEED (Ger. *Waus*; Du. *Wouw, Wouwe*; Fr. *Gaude*; It. *Guadarella*; Lat. *Luteola*), is an imperfect biennial, with small fusiform roots, and a leafy stem from 1 to 3 feet in height. It is a native of Britain, Italy, and various parts of Europe; and is cultivated for the sake of its stalk, flowers, and leaves, which are employed in the dyeing of yellow, whence its botanical name *Reseda luteola*. Weld requires the growth of nearly 2 summers before it comes to maturity; and the crop is liable to fail from so many causes, and is besides so exhausting, that its cultivation is by no means profitable, and is only carried on, in this country at least, to a small extent, principally in Essex. Weld is preferred to all other substances in giving the lively green lemon yellow. It is, however, expensive; and it is found, when employed in topical dying, to degrade and interfere with madder colours more than other yellows, and to stain the parts wanted to be kept white. Hence quercitron bark is now employed in calico printing, to the almost total exclusion of weld. It is still, however, employed, in dyeing silk a golden yellow, and in paper staining.—(*Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture*; *Bancroft on Colours*, vol. ii. pp. 95—100.; *Rees's Cyclopedia.*)

WHALEBONE, a substance of the nature of horn, adhering in thin parallel laminæ to the upper jaw of the whale. These vary in size from 3 to 12 feet in length; the breadth of the largest at the thick end, where they are attached to the jaw, is about a foot. They are extremely elastic. All above 6 feet in length is called *size bone*.

Whalebone bore anciently a very high price, when the rigid stays and the expanded hoops of our grandmothers produced an extensive demand for this commodity. The Dutch have occasionally obtained 700*l.* per ton, and were accustomed to draw 100,000*l.* annually from England for this one article. Even in 1763, it brought 500*l.*; but soon fell, and has never risen again to the same value. During the present century, the price has varied between 60*l.* and 300*l.*; seldom falling to the lowest rate, and rarely exceeding 150*l.* Mr. Scoresby reckons the price, in the 5 years ending with 1818, at 90*l.*; while at present (April, 1834), it is stated to be from 130*l.* to 145*l.* This is for what is called the *size bone*, or such pieces as measure 6 feet or upwards in length, those below this standard are usually sold at half price. It may appear singular that whalebone should rise, while oil has been so decidedly lowered; but the one change, it is obvious, causes the other. Oil, being the main product of the fishery, regulates its extent; which being diminished by the low price, the quantity of whalebone is lessened, while the demand for it continuing as great as before, the value consequently rises.—(*Polar Seas and Regions*, p. 321., *Edin. Cab. Lib.*)

It may be worth while to remark, as evincing the ignorance that at one time prevailed with respect to the whale, that, by an old feudal law, the *tail* of all whales belonged to the queen, as a perquisite, to furnish her Majesty's wardrobe with whalebone!—(*Blackstone*, vol. i. p. 233.)

WHALE (COMMON), the *Balæna mysticetus* of Linnæus, a marine animal of the cetaceous species, and the largest of all those with which men are acquainted. The whale has sometimes, it is affirmed, been found 160 feet in length; but this is most probably an exaggeration. In the Northern seas, it is at present seldom found above 60 feet long: being now, however, generally killed before it arrives at its full growth, this is no proof that the animal may not formerly have attained to a much larger size. The bodies of whales are covered, immediately under the skin, with a layer of fat or *blubber*, which, in a large fish, is

from 12 to 18 inches thick. In young whales, this fatty matter resembles hog's lard; but in old ones it is of a reddish colour. This is the valuable part of the whale; and the desire to possess it has prompted man to attempt the capture of this mighty animal. The blubber yields, by expression, nearly its own weight of a thick viscid oil (train oil). The common whale is now rarely found, except within the Arctic circle; but at a former period it was not unfrequently met with on our coasts. There is a good account of the common whale, and of the manner in which the fishery is carried on, in Mr. John Laing's "Voyage to Spitzbergen;" one of the shortest, cheapest, and best of the innumerable books published on this hacknied subject.

The *Physeter macrocephalus*, or black-headed spermaceti whale, is chiefly found in the Southern Ocean. It usually measures about 60 feet in length, and 30 in circumference at the thickest part. The valuable part of the fish is the spongy, oily mass dug from the cavity of the head; this is crude spermaceti; and of it an ordinary sized whale will yield about 12 large barrels.

WHALE FISHERY. We do not propose entering, in this article, into any details as to the mode in which the fishery is carried on; but mean to confine ourselves to a brief sketch of its history, and value in a commercial point of view.

It is probably true, as has been sometimes contended, that the Norwegians occasionally captured the whale before any other European nation engaged in so perilous an enterprise. But the early efforts of the Norwegians were not conducted on any systematic plan, and should be regarded only in the same point of view as the fishing expeditions of the Esquimaux. The Biscayans were certainly the first people who prosecuted the whale fishery as a regular commercial pursuit. They carried it on with great vigour and success in the 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries. In 1261, a tithe was laid upon the tongues of whales imported into Bayonne,—they being then a highly esteemed species of food. In 1388, Edward III. relinquished to Peter de Puayanne a duty of 6*l.* sterling a whale, laid on those brought into the port of Biarritz, to indemnify him for the extraordinary expenses he had incurred in fitting out a fleet for the service of his Majesty. This fact proves beyond dispute that the fishery carried on from Biarritz at the period referred to must have been very considerable indeed; and it was also prosecuted to a great extent from Cibourre, Vieux Boucan, and subsequently from Rochelle and other places.*

The whales captured by the Biscayans were not so large as those that are taken in the Polar seas, and are supposed to have been attracted southward in pursuit of herrings. They were not very productive of oil, but their flesh was used as an article of food, and the whalebone was applied to a variety of useful purposes, and brought a very high price.

This branch of industry ceased long since, and from the same cause that has occasioned the cessation of the whale fishery in many other places—the want of fish. Whether it were that the whales, from a sense of the dangers to which they exposed themselves in coming southwards, no longer left the Icy Sea, or that the breed had been nearly destroyed, certain it is, that they gradually became less numerous in the Bay of Biscay, and at length ceased almost entirely to frequent that sea; and the fishers being obliged to pursue their prey upon the banks of Newfoundland and the coasts of Iceland, the French fishery rapidly fell off.

The voyages of the Dutch and English to the Northern Ocean, in order, if possible, to discover a passage through it to India, though they failed of their main object, laid open the haunts of the whale. The companions of Barentz, who discovered Spitzbergen, in 1596, and of Hudson, who soon after explored the same seas, represented to their countrymen the amazing number of whales with which they were crowded. Vessels were in consequence fitted out for the Northern whale fishery by the English and Dutch, the harpooners and a part of the crew being Biscayans. They did not, however, confine their efforts to a fair competition with each other as fishers. The Muscovy Company obtained a royal charter, prohibiting the ships of all other nations from fishing in the seas round Spitzbergen, on pretext of its having been first discovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby. There can, however, be no doubt that Barentz, and not Sir Hugh, was its original discoverer; though, supposing that the fact had been otherwise, the attempt to exclude other nations from the surrounding seas, on such a ground, was not one that could be tolerated. The Dutch, who were at the time prompt to embark in every commercial pursuit that gave any hopes of success, eagerly entered on this new career, and sent out ships fitted equally for the purposes of fishing, and of defence against the attacks of others. The Muscovy Company having attempted to vindicate its pretensions by force, several encounters took place between their ships and those of the Dutch. The conviction at length became general, that there was room enough for all parties in the Northern seas; and in order to avoid the chance of coming into collision with each other, they parcelled Spitzbergen and the adjacent ocean into districts, which were respectively assigned to the English, Dutch, Hamburghers, French, Danes, &c.

The Dutch, being thus left to prosecute the fishery without having their attention diverted by hostile attacks, speedily acquired a decided superiority over all their competitors.

When the Europeans first began to prosecute the fishery on the coast of Spitzbergen

* See *Mémoire sur l'Antiquité de la Pêche de la Baleine, par Noel*, 12mo. Paris, 1795.

whales were every where found in vast numbers. Ignorant of the strength and stratagems of the formidable foe by whom they were now assailed, instead of betraying any symptoms of fear, they surrounded the ships and crowded all the bays. Their capture was in consequence a comparatively easy task, and many were killed which it was afterwards necessary to abandon, from the ships being already full.

While fish were thus easily obtained, it was the practice to boil the blubber on shore in the North, and to fetch home only the oil and whalebone. And, perhaps, nothing can give a more vivid idea of the extent and importance of the Dutch fishery, in the middle of the 17th century, than the fact, that they constructed a considerable village, the houses of which were all previously prepared in Holland, on the Isle of Amsterdam, on the northern shore of Spitzbergen, to which they gave the appropriate name of *Smeerenberg* (from *smeeren*, to melt, and *berg*, a mountain). This was the grand rendezvous of the Dutch whale ships, and was amply provided with boilers, tanks, and every sort of apparatus required for preparing the oil and the bone. But this was not all. The whale fleets were attended with a number of provision ships, the cargoes of which were landed at Smeerenberg; which abounded, during the busy season, with well-furnished shops, good inns, &c.; so that many of the conveniences and enjoyments of Amsterdam were found within about 11 degrees of the Pole! It is particularly mentioned, that the sailors and others were every morning supplied with what a Dutchman regards as a very great luxury—*hot rolls* for breakfast. Batavia and Smeerenberg were founded nearly at the same period, and it was for a considerable time doubted whether the latter was not the more important establishment.—(*De Reste, Histoire des Peches, &c.* tome i. p. 42.)

During the flourishing period of the Dutch fishery, the quantity of oil made in the North was so great that it could not be carried home by the whale ships; and every year vessels were sent out in ballast to assist in importing the produce of the fishery.

But the same cause that had destroyed the fishery of the Biscayans, ruined that which was carried on in the immediate neighbourhood of Spitzbergen. Whales became gradually less common, and more and more timid and difficult to catch. They retreated first to the open seas, and then to the great banks of ice on the eastern coast of Greenland. When the site of the fishery had been thus removed to a very great distance from Spitzbergen, it was found most economical to send the blubber direct to Holland. Smeerenberg was in consequence totally deserted, and its position is now with difficulty discoverable.

But though very extensive, the Dutch whale fishery was not, during the first 30 years of its existence, very profitable. This arose from the circumstance of the right to carry it on having been conceded, in 1614, to an exclusive company. The expense inseparable from such great associations, the wastefulness and unfaithfulness of their servants, who were much more intent upon advancing their own interests than those of the company, increased the outlays so much, that the returns, great as they were, proved little more than adequate to defray them, and the fishery was confined within far narrower limits than it would otherwise have reached. But after various prolongations of the charter of the first company, and the formation of some new ones, the trade was finally thrown open in 1642. The effects of this measure were most salutary, and afford one of the most striking examples to be met with of the advantages of free competition. Within a few years the fishery was vastly extended; and though it became progressively more and more difficult from the growing scarcity of fish, it proved, notwithstanding these disadvantages, more profitable to the private adventurers than it had ever been to the company; and continued for above a century to be prosecuted with equal energy and success. The famous John de Witt has alluded as follows to this change in the mode of conducting the trade:—

"In this respect," says he, "it is worthy of observation, that the authorised Greenland Company made heretofore little profit by their fishery, because of the great charge of setting out their ships; and that the train oil, blubber, and whale fins were not well made, handled, or cured; and being brought hither and put into warehouse, were not sold soon enough, nor to the Company's best advantage. Whereas now that every one equips their vessels at the cheapest rate, follow their fishing diligently, and manage all carefully, the blubber, train oil, and whale fins are employed for so many uses in several countries, that they can sell them with that conveniency, that though *there are now* 15 *ships for* 1 *that formerly sailed out of Holland on that account*, and consequently each of them could not take so many whales as heretofore, and notwithstanding the new prohibition of France and other countries to import these commodities, and though there is greater plenty of them imported by our fishers—yet those commodities are so much raised in the value above what they were whilst there was a company, that the common inhabitants do exercise that fishery with profit, to the much greater benefit of our country than when it was (under the management of a company) carried on but by a few."—(*True Interest of Holland*, p. 63, 8vo. ed. London, 1746.)

The private ships sent by the Dutch to the whale fishery were fitted out on a principle that secured the utmost economy and vigilance on the part of every one connected with them. The hull of the vessel was furnished by an individual, who commonly took upon himself the office of captain; a sail-maker supplied the sails, a cooper the casks, &c. The parties engaged as adventurers in the undertaking. The cargo being brought to Holland and disposed of, each person shared in the produce according to his proportion of the outfit. The crew was hired on the same principle; so that every one had a motive to exert himself, to see that all unnecessary expenses were avoided, and that those that were necessary were

confined within the narrowest limits. This practice has been imitated to some extent in this and some other countries, but in none has it been carried so far as in Holland. It appears to us that it might be advantageously introduced into other adventures.

When in its most flourishing state, towards the year 1680, the Dutch whale fishery employed about 260 ships, and 14,000 sailors.

The English whale fishery, like that of Holland, was originally carried on by an exclusive association. The Muscovy Company was, indeed, speedily driven from the field; but it was immediately succeeded by others, that did not prove more fortunate. In 1725, the South Sea Company embarked largely in the trade, and prosecuted it for 8 years; at the end of which, having lost a large sum, they gave it up. But the legislature, having resolved to support the trade, granted, in 1732, a bounty of 20*s.* a ton to every ship of more than 200 tons burden engaged in it; but this premium being insufficient, it was raised, in 1749, to 40*s.* a ton, when a number of ships were fitted out, as much certainly in the intention of catching the bounty as of catching fish. Deceived by the prosperous appearance of the fishery, parliament imagined that it was firmly established, and in 1775 the bounty was reduced to 30*s.* The effects of this reduction showed the factitious nature of the trade, the vessels engaged in it having fallen off in the course of the next 5 years from 105 to 39! To arrest this alarming decline, the bounty was raised to its old level in 1781, and of course the trade was soon restored to its previous state of apparent prosperity. The hostilities occasioned by the American war reduced the Dutch fishery to less than half its previous amount, and gave a proportional extension to that of England. The bounty, which had in consequence become very heavy, was reduced, in 1787, to 30*s.* a ton; in 1792 it was further reduced to 25*s.*, and in 1795 it was reduced to 20*s.*, at which sum it continued till 1824, when it ceased.

It appears from accounts given in Macpherson's *Annals of Commerce* (vol. iii. p. 511., vol. iv. p. 130.), that the total bounties paid for the encouragement of the whale fishery, in the interval between 1750 and 1788, amounted to no less than 1,577,935*l.* It will be seen from the official account which follows, that there are no means of furnishing any accurate account of the sums paid as bounties from the year 1789 to 1813 inclusive; but it is, notwithstanding, abundantly certain that the total bounties paid during the period from 1789 to 1824 considerably exceeded 1,000,000*l.* Here, then, we have a sum of upwards of TWO MILLIONS AND A HALF laid out since 1750 in promoting the whale fishery. Now we believe, that if we estimate the entire average value of the *gross* produce of the Northern whale fishery (and it is to it only that the preceding statements apply), during the last 3 or 4 years, at 375,000*l.* a year, we shall be about the mark. But had the 2,500,000*l.* expended in bolstering up this branch of industry been laid out as capital in any ordinary employment, it would have produced 125,000*l.* a year of *nett* profit; and deducting this sum from the above, there remains only 250,000*l.* to replace the capital wasted and ships lost in carrying on the fishery, and to afford *a clear national profit!* Whatever, therefore, may be the value of the whale fishery as a nursery for seamen, it is absurd to regard it as contributing any thing to the public wealth. The remark of Dr. Franklin, that he who draws a fish out of the sea draws out a piece of silver, is ever in the mouths of those who are clamouring for bounties and protection against competition. But we apprehend that even Franklin himself, sagacious as he was, would have found it rather difficult to show how the wealth of those is to be increased, who, in fishing up one piece of silver, are obliged to throw another of equal value into the sea. We subjoin

An account of the Number of Ships annually fitted out in Great Britain for the Northern Whale Fishery, of the Tonnage and Crews of such Ships, and of the Bounties paid on their Account, from 1789 to 1824.

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Bounties paid.
1789	161	46,599		
1790	116	33,232	4,482	
1791	116	33,906	4,520	
1792	93	26,983	4,667	
1793	82	23,487	3,210	
1794	60	16,386	2,250	
1795	44	11,748	1,601	
1796	51	13,833	1,910	
1797	60	16,371	2,265	
1798	66	18,754	2,633	The documents from which the amount of bounties paid in these years could be shown, were destroyed in the fire at the late Custom-house.
1799	67	19,360	2,683	
1800	61	17,729	2,459	
1801	64	18,668	2,544	
1802	79	23,539	3,129	
1803	95	28,608	3,806	
1804	92	28,034	3,597	
1805	91	27,570	3,636	
1806	91	27,697	3,715	

Years	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Bounties paid.		
				£	s.	d.
1807 to 1813	There are no documents in this office by which the accounts for these years can be rendered.					
1814	112	36,576	4,708	43,709	11	0
1815	134	43,320	5,783	41,487	14	0
1816	130	41,767	5,512	42,746	13	0
1817	135	43,518	5,708	43,161	6	0
1818	140	45,010	5,903	45,806	1	0
1819	140	45,093	6,291	43,051	8	0
1820	142	45,092	6,137	44,749	18	0
1821	140	44,864	6,074	42,194	0	0
1822	124	38,182	5,234	32,347	4	0
1823	120	37,625	4,984	32,980	2	0
1824	112	35,194	4,867	29,131	15	0

It is not even certain whether the expenditure of 2,500,000*l.* upon bounties would really have had the effect of establishing the whale fishery upon a solid foundation, but for the occupation of Holland by the French, and the consequent hostilities in which she was

involved with this country. These did more to promote and consolidate the British fishery than any thing else. The war entirely annihilated that of the Dutch: and our government having wisely offered to the fisheries of Holland all the immunities enjoyed by the citizens of Great Britain in the event of their settling amongst us, many availed themselves of the invitation, bringing with them their capital, industry, and skill. In consequence of this signal encouragement, the whale fishery of England was prosecuted with greater success than at any previous period: and at the termination of the late war, in 1815, there were 134 valuable ships and about 5,800 seamen engaged in the Northern fishery, and about 30 ships and 800 men in that to the South.

After peace was restored, the English capitalists and others became apprehensive lest the Dutch should engage anew with their ancient vigour and success in the whale fishery. But these apprehensions were without any real foundation. The Hollanders, during the 30 years they had been excluded from the sea, had lost all that practical acquaintance with the details of the fishery, for which they had long been so famous, and which is so essential to its success. The government attempted to rouse their dormant energies by the offer of considerable premiums and other advantages to those who embarked in the trade. Three companies were in consequence formed for carrying it on; 1 at Rotterdam, 1 at Harlingen, and 1 in South Holland. But their efforts have been very limited, and altogether unfortunate. In 1826, the company of South Holland was dissolved, while that of Harlingen despatched 4 ships, and that of Rotterdam 2. In 1827, Rotterdam sent only 1 ship, and Harlingen 2: and in 1828, 1 solitary ship sailed from Holland—a feeble and last effort of the company of Harlingen!

Such has been the fate of the Dutch whale fishery. The attempts to revive it failed, not because the ships sent out were ill calculated for the service, but because they were manned by unskilful seamen. In the early ages of the fishery, this difficulty would have been got over, because, owing to the fewness of competitors, and the scanty supply of oil and whalebone, even a small cargo brought a high price; but at present, when the fishery is prosecuted on a very large scale and at a very low rate of profit by the English, the Americans, he Hamburghers, &c., no new competitor coming into the field could expect to maintain himself unless he had nearly equal advantages. The Dutch have, therefore, done wisely in withdrawing from the trade. Any attempt to establish it by the aid of bounties and other artificial encouragements would be one of which the ultimate success must be very doubtful, and which could lead to no really useful result. During the 20 years preceding the late French war, the fishery of Holland was gradually declining, and had, in a great measure, ceased to be profitable. It would be folly to endeavour to raise anew, and at a great expense, a branch of industry that had become unproductive at a former period, when there is no ground for supposing that it would be more productive at this moment.

We have already noticed several changes of the localities in which the whale fishery has been carried on at different periods; within these few years another has taken place even more important. The seas between Spitzbergen and Greenland are now nearly abandoned by the whalers, who resort in preference to Davis's Straits and Baffin's Bay, or to the sea which washes the coast of West Greenland. The Dutch fishers first began to frequent Davis's Straits in 1719; and as the whales had not hitherto been pursued into this vast recess, they were found in greater numbers than in the seas round Spitzbergen. From about this period it was usually resorted to by about 3-10ths of the Dutch ships. It was not till a comparatively late period that Davis's Straits began to be frequented by English whalers; and even so late as 1820, when Captain Scoresby published his elaborate and valuable work on the whale fishery, that carried on in the Greenland seas was by far the most considerable. But within the last few years, the Greenland fishery has been almost entirely deserted. The various discoveries made by the expeditions recently fitted out by government for exploring the seas and inlets to the westward of Davis's Straits and Baffin's Bay, have made the fishers acquainted with several new and advantageous situations for the prosecution of their business. What further revolutions the fishery may be destined to undergo, it is impossible to foresee; but there can be little doubt that the same results that have happened elsewhere will happen in Davis's Straits, and that it will be necessary to pursue the whale to new and, perhaps, still more inaccessible haunts.

The sea in Davis's Straits is less incommoded with field ice than the Greenland and Spitzbergen seas, but it abounds with icebergs; and the fishery, when carried on in Baffin's Bay and Lancaster Sound, is more dangerous, perhaps, than any that has hitherto been attempted.

The following Table gives a view of the produce of the Northern whale fishery during the 3 years ending with 1827:—

Years.	No. of Ships despatched.	No. of Whales captured.	Quantity of Oil.	Quantity of Whalebone.
			Tons.	*Tons.*
1825	110	501	6,597	360
1826	94	510	7,087	390
1827	58	1,155	13,179	732

It appears from this and the previous Table, that the number of ships sent out has declined nearly one half since 1820. The bounty was repealed in 1824, and the ships fitted out have since fallen off in the ratio of 112 to 88 or 90. This is a sufficient proof of the insecure foundation on which the trade had previously rested.

The whale fishery has for a lengthened period partaken more of the nature of a gambling adventure than of a regular industrious pursuit. Sometimes the ships do not get half a cargo, and sometimes they come home *clean*. The risk of shipwreck is also very considerable. It appears from Mr. Scoresby's Tables (vol. ii. p. 131.), that of 586 ships sent to the North during the 4 years ending with 1817, *eight* were lost. This period was, however, uncommonly free from disaster. It would seem, too, that the risk of shipwreck is greater in Davis's Straits than in the seas to the east of Greenland. In 1819, of 63 ships sent to Davis's Straits, no fewer than 10 were lost; in 1821, out of 79 ships, 11 were lost; and in 1822, out of 60 ships, 7 were lost. But 1830 has in this respect been the most disastrous.—Of 87 ships that sailed for Davis's Straits, no less than 18, or 22 per cent. of the whole, were totally lost; 24 returned *clean*, or without having caught a single fish; and of the remainder, not 1 had a full cargo, only 1 or 2 being *half fished!* If we estimate the value of the ships cast away, including the outfit, at 7,000*l.* each, the loss from shipwreck only will be 126,000*l.* The following Table exhibits a detailed account of the fishery in 1832:—

Account of the Northern Whale Fishery in 1832; exhibiting the Number and Tonnage of the Ships sent out by each Port, with the Number of Fish taken, and the Quantity of Oil and Bone.

Ports.	No. of Ships.	Tonnage.	Fish.	Oil.	Bone.	
				Tuns.	*Tons.*	*Cwt.*
Hull - - -	30	9,988	539	4,603	251	11
Whitby - -	1	324	39	235	11	18
Newcastle - -	4	1,509	121	1,019	55	6
Berwick - -	1	309	22	185	9	10
London - -	3	1,151	44	265	12	14
Peterhead - -	11	3,076	159	1,244	63	8
Aberdeen - -	6	1,823	93	833	43	9
Dundee - -	9	2,929	240	1,902	104	10
Montrose - -	3	964	28	257	13	7
Kirkaldy - -	5	1,609	98	785	41	10
Leith - - -	8	2,761	190	1,282	68	17
Totals -	81	26,393	1,563	12,610	676	120

Estimated Value.—12,610 tuns of oil, at 20*l.*, 252,200*l.*; 676 tons of whalebone, at 125*l.*, 84,500*l.*; making in all, 336,700*l.*

There has been a somewhat singular change in the ports from which the fishery is chiefly carried on. In London were undertaken all the discoveries which led to its establishment; and for some time a complete monopoly was enjoyed by the great companies formed in that city. Even between the years 1780 and 1790, the metropolis sent out 4 times the number of vessels that sailed from any other port. It was observed, however, that her fishery was, on the whole, less fortunate than that of the new rivals which had sprung up; and her merchants were so much discouraged, that in Mr. Scoresby's time they equipped only 17 or 18 vessels. They have since almost entirely abandoned the trade, employing in 1832 not more than 3 ships.

Hull early became a rival to London, having sent out vessels at the very commencement of the fishery. Although checked at first by the monopoly of the great companies, as soon as the trade became free she prosecuted it with distinguished success. In the end of the last century, that town attained, and has ever since preserved, the character of the first whale-fishing port in Britain.

Whitby engaged in this pursuit in 1753, and carried it on for some time with more than common success; but her operations have since been much limited. Liverpool, after embarking in the undertaking with spirit, has now entirely relinquished it. Meantime the eastern ports of Scotland have steadily carried on, and even extended, their transactions, while those of the country at large were diminishing. The increase has been most remarkable at Peterhead; and indeed this town, as compared especially with London, must derive a great advantage from avoiding, both in the outward and homeward voyages, 600 miles of somewhat difficult navigation.

The following summary has been collected from Mr. Scoresby, as the average quantity of shipping fitted out in the different ports for 9 years, ending with 1818; and the comparison of it with the number sent out in 1832 will show the present state of the trade:—

	Average of 1810–18.	1832.
England—Berwick -	1 7/9	1
Grimsby -	1 1/9	0
Hull - -	53 1/9	30
Liverpool -	1 8/9	0
London -	17 3/9	3
Lynn - -	1 1/9	0
Newcastle -	4 4/9	4
Whitby -	8 8/9	1
	91 5/9	39
Scotland—Aberdeen -	10 8/9	6
Banff - -	1 1/9	0
Burntisland	0	0
Dundee -	7 5/9	9
Greenock -	1 1/9	0
Kirkcaldy -	4 4/9	5
Kirkwall -	1 1/9	0
Leith - -	8 7/9	8
Montrose -	2 1/9	3
Peterhead -	6 3/9	11
	40 1/9	42
Total - -	131 6/9	81

Hardly a ship now goes to Greenland.

We have already seen that, as a source of national wealth, the whale fishery is of exceedingly little importance. Neither does it seem to be of so much consequence as a nursery

for seamen as is commonly supposed. The number employed in the Northern fishery, does not exceed 4,500; and it may be doubted whether the casualties to which they are exposed, do not, in a public point of view, more than balance the increased skill and hardihood they acquire in so perilous an occupation.

There seems no reason to apprehend any deficiency in the supply of oil from a falling off in the fishery. We have seen from the foregoing statements, that the fish oil imported in 1832 amounted to 12,610 tuns. But at present nearly half this quantity of olive oil is annually imported; and as olive oil is loaded with a duty of 8*l.* 8*s.* a tun, it is obvious that if this duty were reduced, as it ought to be, to 2*l.* or 3*l.* a tun, the increased quantity imported would go far to balance any falling off in the supply of train oil. When a coarser species is required, rape and linseed oil may be advantageously substituted for that of the whale. Tallow may also be applied to several purposes, to the exclusion of train oil. Although, therefore, the whale fishery should decline, we need not fear that any material injury will thence arise to the industry of the country; and it would be most impolitic to attempt to bolster it up, either by resorting to the exploded system of bounties, or by laying heavy duties on oil or tallow imported from other countries.

The South Sea fishery was not prosecuted by the English till about the beginning of the American war: and as the Americans had already entered on it with vigour and success, 4 American harpooners were sent out in each vessel. In 1791, 75 whale ships were sent to the South Sea; but the number has not been so great since. In 1829, only 31 ships were sent out, of the burden of 10,997 tons, and carrying 937 men. The *Macrocephalus*, or spermaceti whale, is particularly abundant in the neighbourhood of the Spice Islands, and Mr. Crawfurd, in his valuable work on the *Eastern Archipelago*, (vol. iii. p. 447.), has entered into some details to show that the fishery carried on there is of greater importance than the spice trade. Unluckily, however, the statements on which Mr. Crawfurd founded his comparisons were entirely erroneous, neither the ships nor the men employed amounting to more than 1-5th or 1-6th part of what he has represented.

But errors of this sort abound in the works of those who had better means of coming at the truth. Mr. Barrow, in an article on the fisheries, in the *Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica*, states the number of ships fitted out for the Northern whale fishery in 1814 at 143, and their crews at 7,150; and he further states the number of ships fitted out for the Southern fishery in 1815 at 107, and their crews at 3,210. In point of fact, however, only 112 whale ships cleared out for the north in 1814, carrying 4,708 men; and in 1815, only 22 whale ships cleared out for the South, carrying 592 men! How Mr. Barrow, who has access to official documents, should have given the sanction of his authority to so erroneous an estimate, we know not. In the same article, Mr. Barrow estimates the entire annual value of the British fisheries of all sorts, at 8,300,000*l.* But it might be very easily shown that, in rating it at 3,500,000*l.*, we should certainly be up to the mark, or rather, perhaps, beyond it.—(See Fish.)

We annex a detailed account of the progress of the Southern whale fishery, since 1814.

An Account of the Number of Ships annually fitted out in Great Britain, with their Tonnage and Crews, for the Southern Whale Fishery, and of the Bounties on their Account, from 1814 to 1824, both inclusive.

Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Bounties paid.	Years.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Bounties paid.
				£					£
1814	30	8,999	791	5,000	1820	68	19,755	1,827	9,100
1815	22	6,985	592	8,000	1821	55	14,398	1,306	8,300
1816	34	10,332	852	4,500	1822	44	11,433	1,022	7,400
1817	42	14,785	1,201	10,000	1823	59	17,669	1,536	6,800
1818	58	18,214	1,643	6,600	1824	31	9,123	796	4,300
1819	47	14,668	1,345	9,100					

An Account of the Number of Ships fitted out in the different Ports of Great Britain (specifying the same) for the Southern Whale Fishery, their Tonnage, and the Number of Men on board, during the Three Years ending the 5th of January, 1830.

Ports.	Year ending 5th of January, 1828.			Year ending 5th of January, 1829.			Year ending 5th of January, 1830.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
London - -	31	10,158	874	31	7,000	604	31	10,997	937
Greenock - -	2	216	28		nil.			nil.	

Office of Registrar General of Shipping,
Custom-house, London, Dec. 16. 1830.

JOHN COVEY,
Reg. Gen. of Shipping.

American Whale Fishery.—For a lengthened period, the Americans have prosecuted the whale fishery with greater vigour and success than, perhaps, any other people. They commenced it in 1690, and for about 50 years found an ample supply of fish on their own shores. But the whale having abandoned them, the American navigators entered with extraordinary ardour into the fisheries carried on in the Northern and Southern Oceans. From 1778 to 1775, Massachusetts employed annually 183 vessels, carrying 13,820 tons, in the

former; and 121 vessels, carrying 14,026 tons, in the latter. Mr. Burke, in his famous speech on American affairs in 1774, adverted to this wonderful display of daring enterprise as follows:—

"As to the wealth," said he, "which the colonists have drawn from the sea by their fisheries, you had all that matter fully opened at your bar. You surely thought those acquisitions of value, for they seemed to excite your envy; and yet the spirit by which that enterprising employment has been exercised ought rather, in my opinion, to have raised esteem and admiration. And pray, Sir, what in the world is equal to it? Pass by the other parts, and look at the manner in which the New England people carry on the whale fishery. While we follow them among the trembling mountains of ice, and behold them penetrating into the deepest frozen recesses of Hudson's Bay and Davis's Straits; while we are looking for them beneath the Arctic circle, we hear that they have pierced into the opposite region of polar cold; that they are at the antipodes, and engaged under the frozen serpent of the South. Falkland Island, which seemed too remote and too romantic an object for the grasp of national ambition, is but a stage and resting-place for their victorious industry. Nor is the equinoctial heat more discouraging to them than the accumulated winter of both poles. We learn, that while some of them draw the line or strike the harpoon on the coast of Africa, others run the longitude and pursue their gigantic game along the coast of Brasil. No sea, but what is vexed with their fisheries. No climate that is not witness of their toils. Neither the perseverance of Holland, nor the activity of France, nor the dexterous and firm sagacity of English enterprise, ever carried this most perilous mode of hardy industry to the extent to which it has been pursued by this recent people; a people who are still in the gristle, and not hardened into manhood."

The unfortunate war that broke out soon after this speech was delivered, checked for a while the progress of the fishery; but it was resumed with renewed vigour as soon as peace was restored. The American fishery has been principally carried on from Nantucket and New Bedford in Massachusetts; and for a considerable time past the ships have mostly resorted to the Southern seas. "Although," says Mr. Pitkin, "Great Britain has, at various times, given large bounties to her ships employed in this fishery, yet the whalemen of Nantucket and New Bedford, unprotected and unsupported by any thing but their own industry and enterprise, have generally been able to meet their competitors in a foreign market."—(*Commerce of the United States*, 2d ed. p. 46.) The following statement may not be uninteresting.

Account of Vessels at Sea, from the United States, employed in the Southern, or Sperm Whale Fishery on the 1st of January, 1833.

Owned in Massachusetts.	Vessels.	Owned in other States.	Vessels.
At New Bedford and Fairhaven	90	At New London, Con.	18
Nantucket	67	Bristol, R. I.	10
Edgartown	5	Warren, ditto	6
Falmouth	5	Newport, ditto	4
Plymouth	2	Hudson, New York	4
Salem	2	Poughkeepsie	1
Fall River	1	New York	1
Rochester	1	Sag Harbour	1
Wareham	1	Portsmouth, N. H.	1
Dartmouth	1		
Holmes's Hole	1	Total	37
Total absent from Massachusetts	169	Owned in Massachusetts	169
		Total	206

The produce in oil, of the sperm whale fishery, in 1832, was as follows:—

Imported in ships from the Pacific Ocean,—	Barrels.		Barrels.
At New Bedford and Fairhaven	20,476	At Sag Harbour	1,000
Nantucket	30,450	Bristol	200
Newport	4,120	Warren	225
Plymouth	2,120	Sent home by various merchant ships	2,000
Imported in ships from the Brazils,—		Taken in the Atlantic by small vessels	1,500
At New Bedford	6,540	Total of sperm oil in 1832	78,749
New London	703		
Nantucket	407	Imported in 1831	107,752

French Whale Fishery.—France, which preceded the other nations of Europe in the whale fishery, can hardly be said, for many years past, to have had any share in it. In 1784, Louis XVI. endeavoured to revive it. With this view, he fitted out 6 ships at Dunkirk on his own account, which were furnished with harpooners and a number of experienced seamen brought at a great expense from Nantucket. The adventure was more successful than could have been reasonably expected, considering the auspices under which it was carried on. Several private individuals followed the example of his Majesty, and in 1790 France had about 40 ships employed in the fishery. The revolutionary war destroyed every vestige of this rising trade. Since the peace, the government has made great efforts for its renewal, but hitherto without much success. At present there are only from 12 to 15 ships engaged in the fishery.

(This article has been principally taken from the *Foreign Quarterly Review*, No. 14, to which publication it was contributed by the author of this work.)

(*Whale Fishery* (*Southern.*)—This consists of three distinct branches; viz.; 1st, the catch of the spermaceti whale; 2d, that of the common black whale of the southern seas; and, 3d, that of the sea elephant, or southern walrus.

The spermaceti whale (*Physeter macrocephalus*) is found in all tropical climates, and on the coasts of New Zealand and Japan. The ordinary duration of the voyage of a ship from England, employed in this department of the fishery, is about 3 years.

The common black whale of the southern seas (*Physeter microps*) is met with in various places, but principally on the coast of Brazil; in the bays on the west coast of Africa; and in some of the bays in New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, &c.

Sea elephants (intermediate between the walrus of the northern seas and the seal) are principally met with in the seas around the Islands of Desolation, South Georgia, and South Shetland, the coast of California, &c. Vast numbers of these animals are annually captured; vessels frequently load entirely with them; and they are believed to furnish more oil than the common South Sea whale. The oil of the black whale and that of the sea elephant, are both known in the market by the name of southern oil; and they are so very similar, that those most versed in the trade can with difficulty distinguish the one from the other. Hence ships commonly engage indifferently in either fishing as opportunity offers. The usual duration of the voyage of a ship from England in either of the last two departments, or in the two combined, varies from 12 to 18 months. We subjoin a

Statement of the Southern Whale Fishery carried on from Great Britain since 1800; exhibiting the Total Number of Ships annually absent from Great Britain on Whaling Expeditions; the Total Number of Ships that annually returned to Great Britain; the Annual Imports of Sperm and Common Oil, with the Prices of each; the Average Tonnage of the Ships at Sea; and the Average Number of Men to each Ship.

Years.	Ships at Sea.	Ships returned.	Sperm Oil imported.	Common Oil imported.	Price of Sperm Oil per Tun.	Price of Common Oil per Tun.	Total Value of Imports.	Average Tonnage of Ships.	Average Number of Men to a Ship.
			Tuns.	Tuns.	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*		
1800	64	29	1,241	2,834	70	30	179,650		
1801	78	26	555	5,586	84	40	188,140		
1802	90	36	1,108	5,948	80	32	220,972		
1803	92	32	1,770	4,496	80	35	238,980		
1804	99	37	1,042	4,810	78	32	236,976	242	28
1805	96	32	2,416	3,099	75	30	273,945		
1806	98	38	3,333	2,730	70	26	260,974		
1807	43	20	1,351	1,473	78	24	140,730		
1808	55	20	1,681	2,140	93	34	229,093		
1809	53	15	1,974	905	100	40	214,600		
1810	45	16	1,410	765	105	42	180,180		
1811	59	27	2,404	906	100	37	276,142		
1812	62	12	1,899	698	93	42	206,496		
1813	41	23	2,598	2,131	82	30	319,588		
1814	48	29	2,895	1,977	96	40	358,260		
1815	56	15	1,191	1,897	66	36	146,238	300	30
1816	54	31	3,305	2,923	53	28	287,749		
1817	76	24	1,960	3,009	66	30	218,255		
1818	91	33	3,398	4,267	75	35	408,482		
1819	112	40	3,678	4,885	85	33	473,835		
1820	127	39	2,717	5,061	71	25	319,432		
1821	123	58	3,606	4,570	60	19	303,180		
1822	118	41	6,011	1,970	54	22	366,954		
			British.	Colonial.	British.	Colonial.		340	32
1823*	114	57	6,891	286	1,722	668	45	21	283,626
1824	96	42	5,928	150	742	618	40	22	273,040
1825	85	32	4,831	65	1,104	412	48	30	256,488
1826†	78	38	5,696	268	454	289	55	34	359,827
1827	90	39	3,478‡	234	695	474	70	27	367,453
1828	85	20	3,316	116	196	338	79	25	276,078
1829	92	28	4,485	810	1 2	478	74	27	408,082
1830	104	25	4,157	498	419	904	72	43	392,049
1831	108	27	5,939	1,576	192	1,464	75	43	634,747
1832	106	20	5,576	1,589	402	1,785	61	24	498,301
1833	110	19	3,451	2,653	220	2,245	82	23	457,203
1834	99	27	4,021	2,710	149	2,394	65	23	486,004
1835	[illegible]	23	5,631	2,260	311	3,137	75	28	638,369
1836	[illegible]	26	4,295	2,716	90	4,180	80	32	697,006
1837	[illegible]	18	3,119	2,661	581	4,325	94	35	646,576	5591	
1838	54	21	2,801	2,484	90	7,004	94	25	721,940	57	
1839	77	32	4,250	1,323	170	6,316	95	25	691,380	43	

* The ships for this and the succeeding years, as for the previous ones, do not include colonial ships, but those from Britain only.
† From this year commenced the Imperial Measure.
‡ American sperm oil.

We are indebted for the above valuable table, the only one of its kind that has ever been published, to a gentleman connected with a house that has been largely engaged in the trade since its commencement. The details may, therefore, be safely depended upon.

The spermaceti and southern colonial oils are principally imported from New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land. There used also to be a very considerable importation from the Cape of Good Hope; but that is now much fallen off. The imports of whale and seal oil from our North American possessions have been greatly augmented of late years. That, however, is mostly the product of the northern seas.

Whale Fishery (Northern).—We regret to have to state that additional experience has served to confirm the unfavourable view we took in the *Dictionary* of this branch of industry. The subjoined account exhibits its condition in each year, from 1815 to 1834, both inclusive. It is seen from it that the ships and tonnage sent out have fallen off about a half since 1821! The years 1835 and 1836 were peculiarly disastrous: the trade has since, however, somewhat improved. But the fishery has, in fact, been for several years past more akin to a lottery than to any thing else; and, latterly, the blanks seem to have predominated very decidedly over the prizes. Considering the profitless nature of the business, and the hazards to which the seamen engaged in it are exposed, it would seem to be high time to put an end to the existing temptations to embark in it, by reducing the duties on vegetable oils. A reduction of this sort would, besides, be of much advantage to several of our most important manufactures; and would, in no small degree, contribute to promote the commerce of the country.

Abstract Account of the Northern Whale Fishery for the 20 Years ending with 1834.

Number of Ships to Greenland and Davis's Straits.			Total Ships.	Tonnage.	Ships Lost.	Number of Whales.	Tuns of Oil.	Tons of Bone.
Years.	G.	D. S.						
1815	98	48	146	47,148	1	733	10,682	528
1816	101	45	146	46,808	1	1,330	13,590	632
1817	97	53	150	48,084	5	828	10,871	539
1818	94	63	157	50,302	2	1,208	14,482	666
1819	96	63	159	51,062	12	988	11,401	517
1820	102	57	159	50,546	3	1,595	18,745	946
1821	80	79	159	50,709	14	1,405	16,853	923
1822	61	60	121	38,144	6	630	8,663	422
1823	55	62	117	36,759	3	2,018	17,074	921
1824	32	79	111	35,013	1	761	9,871	534
1825	21	89	110	34,751	5	500	6,370	350
1826	5	90	95	30,414	5	512	7,200	400
1827	16	72	88	28,273	1	1,162	13,186	733
1828	14	79	93	28,665	3	1,197	13,966	802
1829	1	88	89	28,812	4	671	10,672	608
1830	0	91	91	29,396	10	161	2,199	119
1831	8	80	82	28,608	3	451	5,104	273
1832	19	62	81	26,393	5	1,563	12,610	676
1833	3	74	77	25,294	1	1 695	14,508	802
1834	7	69	76	24,955	3	872	8,214	442
Yearly average		-	115¼	37,013¼	5	1,094	11,313	591¼

Whale Fishery (American Southern).—The Americans were among the first to begin, and have long outstripped every other people in the extent and success with which they have prosecuted, the southern whale fishery. It is principally carried on from New Bedford and other ports in the state of Massachusetts; and from Nantucket, a small island dependent on this state, celebrated for the bold adventurous character of its sailors, and for being the earliest seat of the fishery. We borrow from a Nantucket journal the following details with respect to this fishery in 1834:—

Spermaceti Whale Fishery.—The whole number of ships engaged in this valuable branch of the fisheries is 273, of which 257 are now absent; viz. from—

New Bedford	94	Falmouth	6
Nantucket	63	Newport	6
Fairhaven	14	Sagharbour	5
Bristol	13	Salem	3
New London	10	Newburyport	3
Hudson	9	Poughkeepsie	2
Warren	7	Portsmouth	2
Edgarton	6	Dartmouth	2

And one from each of the following ports, viz.—Boston, Plymouth, Wareham, Rochester, Portland, Wiscasset, Fall River, Providence, Stonington, Newbury, New York, and Wilmington, Delaware. Sixteen ships only are in port, belonging as follows: to New Bedford, 7; Nantucket, 5; Fairhaven, Plymouth, Sagharbour, and Edgartown, each 1.

The aggregate tonnage of the 257 absent ships is nearly 100,000 tons. Of these, only 61 had each at last dates obtained 1,000 bris. of oil and upwards; and about the same number are not yet reported with any oil. The number of seamen and navigators employed on board these vessels is not far from 9,000. The cost of the entire fleet, as fitted for these voyages of 3 years' duration, probably exceeds 4,000,000 dollars.

A document before us furnishes a very careful estimate of the spermaceti oil imported into the United States during the year 1834. Since Jan. 1. there have arrived from the Pacific Ocean 55 ships; viz. into this port, 11; New Bedford, 25; Plymouth, 2; Fairhaven, 6; New London, 2; Edgartown, 2; Sagharbour, 2; Warren, 3; Falmouth, Bristol, and Hudson, 1 each. The cargoes of these ships, including that of the Levant and Spartan (just arrived, and presumed to amount to 5,000 bbls.) average little more than 2,000 bris each; being in the whole, 111,881 bris. Add to this quantity 16,000 bris. estimated to have been brought from the South Atlantic Ocean, making about 128,000 bris, and we have the entire quantity of spermaceti oil imported in the course of the last year. Of this quantity, 70,577 bris. were received at New Bedford, and the residue at Nantucket and other ports.

Among the ships now abroad, there are 91 which sailed in 1831; 73 in 1832; 88 in 1833; and 65 in 1834. Should no unforeseen calamity take place, whereby this important branch of national industry may be injured or interrupted, the number of spermaceti whale ships expected to arrive within the year 1835, may be set down at 70. and their cargoes at 135,000 bris., valued at upwards of 3,000,000 dollars.

We deduce from this valuable document one fact which we repeat with some feeling of pride. It is, that more than half of the ships now engaged in the sperm whale fishery are commanded by Nantucket men: though less than one fourth of the whole fleet is owned in this place.

Whale Fishery.—Annexed is a statement of the whale fishery of the United States during the year 1838, together with the arrivals for the last seven years. It will be seen (as we predicted in our statement last year) that the arrivals of sperm oil have fallen considerably short of last year, being only 129,400 bris. against 182,569 bris. in 1837, showing a decrease of 53,169 bris.; to which may be attributed the present high prices, together with the great increase of consumption. It will also be seen that the imports of whale oil have been larger than the previous year, having amounted to 228,710 bris.: yet so great has been the increase of home consumption, that prices have ruled high during the year, and there is not at the present time any considerable quantity in the importers' hands. The quantity of whalebone has also increased pro rata.

Below is a Memorandum of arrivals at the different Ports in the United States during the Year 1838.

	Ships.	and Bqs.	Brigs.	Schs.	bris. Sperm.	bris. Whale.
N. Bedford and Fairhaven	81	10	1	77,600	84,100	
Nantucket	13	-	3	21,750	6,400	
Sagharbor	24	-	-	1,980	37,600	
New London	20	1	3	4,400	34,000	
N. York, including places in North River	7	-	1	6,250	7,000	
Bristol	6	-	-	1,900	5,900	
Salem	3	1	-	1,000	4,750	
Warren	7	-	-	2,500	9,700	
Boston	1	2	-	1,400	1,980	
Edgartown	1	-	-	470	2,400	
Newport	5	1	-	4,000	6,200	

	Ships.	and Bqs.	Brigs.	Schs.	bris. Sperm.	bris. Whale.
Other places	21	11	-		6,890	24,810
Total, 1838	189	28	8		129,400	228,710
—— 1837	215	19	6		182,569	215,120
					53,169	13,590
Arrived in 1836					151,921	134,050
Arrived in 1835					175,130	123,100
Arrived in 1834					129,824	122,292
Arrived in 1833					113,171	156,166
Arrived in 1832					79,067	179,241
Arrived in 1831					70,532	113,918
Arrived in 1830					116,829	86,294

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There are various circumstances that conspire to give the Americans advantages for the prosecution of the southern whale fishery that are not enjoyed by any European nation. It is difficult, however, to see why it should not be prosecuted with still greater advantage from the ports of New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, &c. It is supposed by many that Rio de Janeiro would be a good station for the fishing.

We believe, however, that the southern, as well as the northern, whale fishery has passed its zenith, and from the same cause—the decreasing supply of fish. The whales are gradually becoming scarcer and more difficult to catch. They have been entirely, or almost entirely, driven from some of their old haunts; and the fishery is now very frequently prosecuted in very high latitudes.—*Sup.*)

[See *Sup.* article Fish. *Am. Ed.*]

WHARF, a sort of quay, constructed of wood or stone, on the margin of a roadstead or harbour, alongside of which ships or lighters are brought for the sake of being conveniently loaded or unloaded.

There are 2 denominations of wharfs, viz. *legal quays* and *sufferance wharfs*. The former are certain wharfs in all sea-ports, at which all goods are required by the 1 Eliz. c. 11. to be landed and shipped, and they were set out for that purpose by commission from the Court of Exchequer, in the reign of Charles II. and subsequent sovereigns. Many others have been legalized by act of parliament. In some ports, as Chepstow, Gloucester, &c., certain wharfs are deemed legal quays by immemorial practice, though not set out by commission, or legalized by act of parliament.

Sufferance wharfs are places where certain goods may be landed and shipped; such as hemp, flax, coal, and other bulky goods; by special sufferance granted by the Crown for that purpose.

WHARFAGE, the fee paid for landing goods on a wharf, or for shipping them off. The stat. 22 Chas. 2. c. 11., after providing for the establishment of wharfs and quays, makes it lawful for any person to lade or unlade goods, on paying wharfage and cranage at the rates appointed by the king in council.

WHEAT (Ger. *Weitzen*; Du. *Tarw*; Da. *Hvede*; Sw. *Hvete*; Fr. *Froment, Bled, Blé*; It. *Grano, Formento*; Sp. and Port. *Trigo*; Rus. *Pschenïza*; Pol. *Pszenica*), a species of bread corn (*Triticum* Lin.), by far the most important of any cultivated in Europe. We are totally ignorant of the country whence this valuable grain was first derived; but it was very early cultivated in Sicily. It is raised in almost every part of the temperate zones, and in some places as high as 2,000 feet above the level of the sea.

The kinds of wheat sown are numerous, but they may be classed under 4 heads: viz. cone or bearded wheat, which, however, is now little cultivated; white wheat, of which there are innumerable varieties, the *white Dantzic* being considered one of the best; red wheat, which is seldom sown where the climate is good and early, and the land in proper condition; and spring wheat. A greater number of people are nourished by rice than by wheat; but owing to the greater quantity of gluten which the latter contains, it makes by far the best bread. Rye comes nearer to wheat in its bread-making qualities than any other sort of grain; still, however, it is very inferior to it. The finest samples of wheat are small in the berry, thin skinned, fresh, plump, and bright, slipping readily through the fingers.

Being very extensively cultivated on soils of very various qualities, and frequently with very imperfect preparation, the produce of wheat crops in Great Britain varies from about 12 to 56 bushels per acre.

The counties most distinguished for the quantity and quality of their wheat are, Kent, Essex, Suffolk, Rutland, Hertfordshire, Berkshire, Hampshire, and Herefordshire, in England; and Berwickshire, and the Lothians, in Scotland. In the northern counties it is, speaking generally, of an inferior quality; being cold to the feel, dark coloured, thick skinned, and yielding comparatively little flour. In the best wheat counties, and in good years, the weight of a Winchester bushel of wheat is from 60 to 62 lbs. In the Isle of Sheppey, in Kent (where, perhaps, the best samples of wheat sent to the London market are produced), this grain, in some favourable seasons, weighs 64 lbs. a bushel. Where the climate is colder, wetter, or more backward, or in bad seasons, the weight of the bushel of wheat is not more than 56 or 57 lbs. It is calculated that the average weight of the bushel of good English wheat is 58½ lbs.; and that the average yield of flour is 13 lbs. of flour to 14 lbs. of grain.—(See Mr. Stevenson's very valuable article on *England* in *Brewster's Encyclopædia*, vol. viii. p. 720.; *Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture*, &c.)

For a view of the regulations with respect to the importation and exportation of wheat, &c., see Corn Laws and Corn Trade. The price of wheat in 1833 was 52*s.* 11*d.* per quarter.

WHISKY, a spirit obtained by distillation from corn, sugar, or molasses, though generally from the former. Whisky is the *national spirit*, if we may so term it, of Scotland and Ireland; but that distilled in the former is generally reckoned superior to that of the latter.—See (Spirits.)

WINE (Ger. *Wein*; Fr. *Vin*; It. and Sp. *Vino*; Port. *Vinho*; Rus. *Wino, Winogradnoe winoe*; Lat. *Vinum*; Gr. Οινος; Arab. *Khumr*), the fermented juice of the grape, or berries of the vine (*Vitis vinifera*).

The vine is indigenous to Persia and the Levant; but it is now found in most temperate regions. The limits within which it is cultivated in the northern hemisphere of the Old World vary from about 15° to 48° and 52°; but in North America it is not cultivated farther north than 38° or 40°. It is rarely grown at a greater altitude than 3,000 feet. From Asia the vine was introduced into Greece, and thence into Italy. The Phoceans, who founded Marseilles, carried the vine to the south of France; but it is doubtful whether it was introduced into Burgundy till the age of the Antonines.* The species of *Vitis* indigenous

* The ancient writers give the most contradictory accounts with respect to the introduction of the vine into Gaul.—(See the learned and excellent work of Le Grand d'Aussy, *Vie Privée des Français*, tome ii. pp. 309—333.) The statement given above seems the most probable

o North America is very different from the *Vitis vinifera*. In favourable seasons, the vine ripens in the open air in England; and in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, considerable quantities of inferior wine were made from native grapes. Vineyards are now, however, unknown in this country; but the grapes raised in hot-houses, and used in desserts, are excellent.

The vine grows in every sort of soil; but that which is light and gravelly seems best suited for the production of fine wines. It succeeds extremely well in volcanic countries. The best wines of Italy are produced in the neighbourhood of Vesuvius: the famous Tokay wine is also made in a volcanic district, as are several of the best French wines; many parts of the south of France bearing evident marks of extinct volcanoes. Hermitage is grown among the *débris* of granite rocks. The most favourable situation for a vineyard is upon a rising ground or hill facing the south-east, and the situation should not be too confined;

——————— apertos
Bacchus amat colles.

The art of expressing and fermenting the juice of the grape appears to have been practised from the remotest antiquity. The sacred writings tell us that Noah planted a vineyard soon after the deluge—(*Gen.* ix. 20.); and a modern Latin poet ingeniously represents the vine as a gift from Heaven, to console mankind for the miseries entailed upon them by that grand catastrophe!

Omnia vastatis ergo quum cerneret arvis.
Desolata Deus, nobis felicia vini
Dona dedit; tristes hominum quo munere fovit
Reliquias, mundi solatus vite ruinam!
Vanierii Pred. Rusticum, lib. xi.

Species of Wine.—There are many varieties of vines; and this circumstance, combined with differences of soil, climate, mode of preparation, &c., occasions an extreme variety in the species of wine. But even between places immediately contiguous to each other, and where a cursory observer would hardly remark any difference, the qualities of the wines, though produced by the same species of grape, and treated in the same way, are often very different. A great deal evidently depends upon the aspect of the vineyard; and it is probable that a good deal depends on peculiarities of soil. But whatever may be the cause, it is certain that there are wines raised in a few limited districts, such as Tokay, Johannisberger, Constantia, the best Burgundy, Champagne, claret, &c., that no art or care has hitherto succeeded in producing of equal goodness in other places.

Ancient Wines.—The wines of Lesbos and Chios among the Greeks, and the Falernian and Cecuban among the Romans, have acquired an immortality of renown. Great uncertainty, however, prevails as to the nature of these wines. Dr. Henderson thinks that the most celebrated of them all, the Falernian, approached, in its most essential characters, near to Madeira. In preparing their wines, the ancients often inspissated them till they became of the consistence of honey, or even thicker. These were diluted with water previously to their being drunk; and, indeed, the habit of mixing wine with water seems to have prevailed much more in antiquity than in modern times.

Modern Wines.—The principal wines made use of in this country are port, sherry, claret, Champagne, Madeira, hock, Marsala, Cape, &c.

Port,—the wine most commonly used in England,—is produced in the province of Upper Douro, in Portugal; and is shipped at Oporto, whence its name. When it arrives in this country, it is of a dark purple or inky colour; has a full, rough body, with an astringent bitter-sweet taste, and a strong flavour and odour of brandy. After it has remained some years longer in the wood, the sweetness, roughness, and astringency of the flavour abate; but it is only after it has been kept 10 or 15 years in bottle, that the odour of the brandy is completely subdued, and the genuine aroma of the wine developed. When kept to too great an age, it becomes tawny, and loses its peculiar flavour. During the process of melioration, a considerable portion of the extractive and colouring matter is precipitated on the sides of the vessels in the form of crust. In some wines this change occurs much earlier than in others.

A large quantity of brandy is always mixed with the wine shipped from Oporto for England. Genuine unmixed port wine is very rarely met with in this country. We have been so long accustomed to the compounded article, that, were it possible to procure it unmixed, it is doubtful whether it would be at all suited to our taste. According to Mr. Brande's analysis, on which, however, owing to the differences in the quality of the wine, no great stress can be laid, port, as used in England, contains about 23 per cent. of alcohol. In 1833, 2,596,530 gallons of port were retained for consumption in the United Kingdom.

Oporto Wine Company.—The quality of the wine shipped from Oporto has been materially injured by the monopoly so long enjoyed by the Oporto Wine Company. This company was founded in 1756, during the administration of the Marquis Pombal. A certain extent of territory is marked out by its charter as the only district on the Douro in which wine is to be raised for exportation; the entire and absolute disposal of the wines raised in this district is placed in the hands of the Company; who are further authorised to fix the prices to be paid for them to the cultivators, to prepare them for exportation, and to fix the price at which they shall be sold to foreigners! It is obvious that a company with such powers cannot be any thing else than an intolerable nuisance. What could be more arbitrary

and unjust than to interdict the export of all wines raised out of the limits of the Company's territory? But even in its own district, its proceedings have been most oppressive and injurious. The Company annually fix, by a fiat of their own, 2 rates of prices—one for the *vinho de feitoria*, or wine for exportation, and the other for *vinho de ramo*, or wine for home consumption—at which the cultivators are to be paid, *whatever may be the quality of their wines!* They have, therefore, no motive to exert superior skill and ingenuity; but content themselves with endeavouring to raise at the least possible expense, the greatest supply of *vinho de feitoria*, for which the Company allow the highest price. All emulation is thus effectually extinguished, and the proprietors who possess vineyards of a superior quality invariably adulterate their wines with inferior growths, so as to reduce them to the average standard. "In this way," says Dr. Henderson "the finer products of the Douro vintages have remained in a great measure unknown to us; and port wine has come to be considered as a factitious liquor, if I may use the expression, of nearly uniform flavour and strength; varying, it is true, to a certain extent in quality, but still always approaching to a definite standard, and admitting of few degrees of excellence. The manipulations, the admixtures—in one word, the *adulterations*—to which the best wines of the Cima do Douro are subjected, have much the same effect as if all the growths of Burgundy were to be mingled in one immense vat, and sent into the world as the only true Burgundian wine. The delicious produce of Romanée, Chambertin, and the Clos Vougeót, would disappear, and in their places we should find nothing better than a second-rate Beaune or Macon wine."—(*History of Ancient and Modern Wines*, p. 210.)

Not only, however, have the Oporto Wine Company deteriorated the quality, but they have also raised the price of their wines to an enormous height. Secured against the competition of their countrymen, and enjoying, down to 1831, a nearly absolute monopoly of the British markets, by means of the high duties on French wines, they have filled their pockets at our expense. At *the very moment when the Company have been shipping wine for England at* 40*l. a pipe, they have frequently shipped the same wine to other countries at* 20*l.!*—(*Fleetwood Williams on the Wine Trade.*) And the authentic Tables published by Balbi show that the price of wine has been trebled or quadrupled under the management of this corporation.—(*Essai Statistique sur le Royaume de Portugal*, tome i. p. 157.)

But though the abuses inherent in the constitution of the Company have been carried of late years to an enormous extent, it is long since its injurious effects on the commerce of this country were distinctly perceived and pointed out. So far back as 1767, the Board of Trade laid a memorial before his Majesty in council, in which they state, "With respect to many particular regulations of the Oporto Company, which we think justly objected to by the merchants as highly grievous and oppressive, we have not thought it necessary to enter into a minute description of them, being of opinion that one general and fatal objection lies against them all; viz—that *they all contribute to establish in the Company a monopoly against your Majesty's subjects, from which by treaty they have a right to be exempted.*"

But notwithstanding this authoritative exposition of the injury done to the English by this monopoly, and the experience which every subsequent year afforded of its mischievous influence, such has been the inveteracy of ancient prejudice, that it was not till the session of 1831 that we took the only step by which we could hope to rid ourselves of its evils, as well as of a host of others, by equalising the duties on French and Portuguese wines, and putting an end to the absurd and injurious preference in favour of the latter established by the Methuen treaty.

England and Brazil are the only countries to which any considerable quantity of port wine is exported. Our imports amounted, at an average of the 10 years ending with 1833, to 22,121 pipes a year; of which, however, a portion is subsequently exported; while the exports from Portugal to all other countries, Brazil inclusive, have not recently amounted to 3,000 pipes. It has been supposed, now that there is no discriminating duty in favour of port, that its consumption in this country will gradually fall off, its place being filled by French and other wines; but though such a result be not improbable, it derives no confirmation from the pretty gradual decrease in the quantities of port retained for home use since 1827, the French wines retained for the same purpose having declined still more rapidly.

Sherry is of a deep amber colour; when good, it has a fine aromatic odour; its taste is warm, with some degree of the agreeable bitterness of the peach kernel. When new, it tastes harsh and fiery; it is mellowed by being allowed to remain 4 or 5 years or longer in the wood; but it does not attain to its full flavour and perfection until it is kept for 15 or 20 years. It is a very strong wine, containing about 19 per cent. of alcohol. It is principally produced in the vicinity of Xeres, not far from Cadiz, in Spain. It is very extensively used in this country as a dinner wine. Dry sherry, or *amontillado*, when genuine and old, fetches a very high price. Perhaps no wine is so much adulterated as sherry. With the exception of Marsala, the consumption of sherry has been far more influenced than that of any other wine by the reduction of the duties in 1825. In 1833, the quantity retained for home consumption amounted to 2,246,085 gallons, being *more than double* the quantity retained for consumption at an average of 1823 and 1824!—(See *post*.)

Claret,—the term generally used in England to designate the red wines, the produce of the Bordelais. Of these, Lafitte, Latour, Château-Margaux, and Haut-Brion, are so generally esteemed, that they always sell from 20 to 25 per cent. higher than any others of the province. The first mentioned is the most choice and delicate, and is characterised by its silky softness on the palate, and its charming perfume, which partakes of the nature of the violet and the raspberry. The Latour has a fuller body, and at the same time a considerable aroma, but wants the softness of the Lafitte. The Château-Margaux, on the other hand, is lighter, and possesses all the delicate qualities of the Lafitte, except that it has not quite so high a flavour. The Haut-Brion, again, has more spirit and body than any of the preceding, but is rough when new, and requires to be kept 6 or 7 years in the wood; while the others become fit for bottling in much less time.

Among the second-rate wines, that of Rozan, in the parish of St. Margaux, approaches in some respects to the growth of the Château-Margaux; while that of Gorce, in the same territory is little inferior to the Latour; and the vineyards of Leoville, Larose, Bran-mouton, and Pichon-Longueville, in the canton of Pauillac, afford light wines of good flavour, which, in favourable years, have much of the excellence of the finer growths. In the Entre-deux-Mers, the wines of Canon and St. Emilion, in the vicinity of Libourne, are deemed the best, being of a full body and very durable. When new, these wines are always harsh and astrin-

gent; but they acquire an agreeable softness, and are characterised by a peculiar flavour, which has been not unaptly compared to the smell of burning wax. The aroma of the first growths is seldom fully developed till after they have been kept 8 or 9 years: but the secondary qualities come to perfection a year or two sooner. The colour often grows darker as the wine advances in age, in consequence of the deposition of a portion of its tartar; but, when well made, and thoroughly fined, it seldom deposits any crust.

(These particulars are borrowed from the excellent work of *Dr. Henderson, on Ancient and Modern Wines* (p. 184.). We have given, in a previous article—(see BORDEAUX),—full and authentic details as to the trade in claret. We beg, also, to refer the reader to that article for some observations on the wine trade of France, and on the injury done to it by the restrictive system of commerce.)

There is generally a very good supply of claret in bond in the docks in London. Its price varies from about 15*l.* per hogshead for the inferior, to 50*l.* and 55*l.* per hogshead for the superior growths. What are called cargo or shipping clarets may be bought at from 5*l.* to 10*l.* per hogshead. The finest case claret sells in bond at about 50*s.* per dozen; but parcels of very well flavoured wine may be bought at 25*s.*

Champagne,—so called from the province of France of which it is the produce,—is one of the most deservedly esteemed of the French wines. The wines of Champagne are divided into the 2 grand classes of white and red wines; and each of these again into still and sparkling; but there is a great variety in the flavour of the produce of different vineyards. Sillery is universally allowed to be the best of the still wines. It is dry, of a light amber colour, has a considerable body, and a charming aroma. "Le corps," (says M. Jullien,) "le spiritueux, le charmant bouquet, et les vertus toniques dont il est pourvu, lui assurent la priorité sur tous les autres."—(*Topographie de tous les Vignobles*, p. 30.) Dr. Henderson agrees with M. Jullien, in considering it as one of the wholesomest of the Champagne wines. The sparkling wines are, however, the most popular, at least in this country. Of these, the wine of Ay, 5 leagues south from Rheims, is, perhaps, the best. It is lighter and sweeter than Sillery, and has an exquisite flavour and aroma. That which merely creams on the surface (*demi-mousseux*) is preferred to the full frothing wine (*grand-mousseux*). Being bright, clear, and sparkling, it is as pleasing to the eye as it is grateful to the palate.

"Cernis micanti concolor ut vitro
Latex in auras, gemmeus aspici,
Scintillet exultum; atque dulces
Naribus illecebras propinet.

"Succi latentis proditor halitus!
Ut spuma motu lactea turbido
Crystallinum lætis referre
Mox oculis properet nitorem."

Hautvilliers, about 4 leagues from Rheims and 1 from Epernay, used formerly to produce wine that equalled, and sometimes surpassed, the wine of Ay. But it is no longer cultivated with the same care; so that, though still very good, it now only ranks in the 2d class.

The best of the red wines of Champagne are those of Verzy, Verzenay, Mailly, Bouzy, and St. Basle. "Ils ont une belle couleur, du corps, du spiritueux, et surtout beaucoup de finesse, de sève, et de bouquet."—(*Jullien*, p. 27.) The Clos St. Thierry, in the vicinity of Rheims, produces wine which, according to M. Jullien, unites the colour and the aroma of Burgundy to the lightness of Champagne.

The province of Champagne produces altogether about 1,100,000 hectolitres of wine; of which, however, the finest growths make but a small part. The principal trade in wine is carried on at Rheims, Avise, and Epernay. The vaults in which the vintages are stored are excavated in a rock of calcareous tufa to the depth of 30 or 40 feet. Those of M. Moet, at Epernay, are the most extensive, and few travellers pass through the place without going to see them. The briskest wines (*grands-mousseux*) keep the worst.—(*Jullien*, p. 34.)

Burgundy.—The best wines of this province, though not so popular in England as those of Champagne, enjoy the highest reputation. "In richness of flavour and perfume, and all the more delicate qualities of the juice of the grape, they unquestionably rank as the first in the world; and it was not without reason that the dukes of Burgundy, in former times, were designated as the *princes des bons vins*."—(*Henderson*, p. 161.) M. Jullien is not less decided:—"Les vins des premiers crus, lorsqu'ils proviennent d'une bonne année, reunissent, dans de justes proportions, *toutes les qualités qui constituent les vins parfaits*; ils n'ont besoin d'aucun mélange, d'aucune préparation, pour attendre leur plus haut degre de perfection. Ces opérations, que l'on qualifie dans certains pays de *soins qui aident* à la qualité, sont toujours nuisibles aux vins de Bourgogne."—(p. 104.)

Romané-Conti, Chambertin, the Clos Vougeôt, and Richebourg, are the most celebrated of the red wines of Burgundy. Chambertin was the favourite wine of Louis XIV. and of Napoleon. It is the produce of a vineyard of that name, situated 7 miles to the south of Dijon, and furnishing each year from 130 to 150 puncheons, from an extent of about 65 acres. It has a fuller body and colour, and greater durability, than the Romane, with an aroma nearly as fragrant.

The white wines of Burgundy are less numerous, and, consequently, less generally known, than the others: but they maintain the highest rank among French white wines, and are not inferior to the red, either in aroma or flavour.

The entire annual produce of wine in Burgundy and Beaujolais may at present be estimated, at an average, at nearly 3,000,000 hectolitres, of which about 750,000 suffice for the consumption of the inhabitants. Since the Revolution, the cultivation of the vine has been greatly extended in the province. Many of the new vineyards having necessarily been planted in comparatively unfavourable situations, a notion has been gaining ground that the wines of Burgundy were degenerating. This, however, is not the case. On the contrary, the quantity of *bons crus*, instead of being diminished, has increased considerably; though, as the supply of inferior wines has increased in a still greater degree, the fine wines bear a less proportion to the whole than they did previously to the Revolution.—(*Jullien*, p. 90.)

The principal trade in Burgundy is carried on at Dijon, Gavrey, Châlons-sur-Saône, &c.

Besides the above, France has a great variety of other excellent wines. Hermitage, Sauterne, St. Péry, &c. are well known in England; and deservedly enjoy, particularly the first, a high degree of reputation.

Account of the Quantity and Value of the Wines exported from France in 1831; distinguishing between those of the Gironde and those of other Departments, and between those exported in Casks and Bottles; and specifying the Quantity and Value of those sent to each Country.—(*Administration des Douanes* for 1831, p. 249.)

Countries to which exported.	Wine in Casks.				Wine in Bottles.			
	Of the Gironde.		Of other Departments.		Of the Gironde.		Of other Departments.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Litres.	*Francs.*	*Litres.*	*Francs.*	*Litres.*	*Francs.*	*Litres.*	*Francs.*
Russia	1,782,178	784,158	904,157	180,831	44,491	88,982	410,394	410,394
Sweden	88,072	48,440	221,973	64,996	10,128	20,256	14,138	14,138
Norway	239,249	126,067	58,109	11,622	1,126	2 252	5,147	5,147
Denmark	608,826	200,912	593,438	118,688	8,782	17,564	7,881	7,881
Russia	2,523,224	641,270	1,232,979	246,596	10,576	20,784	198,149	198,149
Hanse Towns	7,035,402	1,999,519	5,811,562	1,162,512	42,345	84,690	110,121	110,121
Holland	1,781,574	1,188,028	3,661,911	732,382	7,586	15,172	14,752	14,752
Belgium	884,765	551,697	884,941	176,988	4,988	8,576	58,281	58,281
England	1,148,696	3,790,410	337,226	67,453	292,838	585,676	570,684	570,684
Portugal	224	74	4,171	834	114	228	160	160
Spain	13,800	4,587	431,571	86,314	23,220	46,420	13,396	13,396
Austria	-	-	33,012	6,602	90	180	18,919	18,919
Sardinia	4,052	1,331	6,235,656	1,247,131	597	1,194	38,330	38,330
The Two Sicilies	-	-	38,448	7,690	-	-	13,232	13,232
Tuscany, Modena, Parma, Roman States	-	-	406,404	81,281	-	-	24,950	24,950
Switzerland	-	-	7,013,678	1,402,736	-	-	31,257	31,257
Germany	-	-	893,574	178,715	-	-	277,882	277,882
Greece	-	-	196,466	39,293	-	-	1,780	1,780
Turkey	-	-	174,678	34,936	-	-	19,549	19,549
Egypt	-	-	636,788	127,358	-	-	13,378	13,378
Algiers	-	-	6,723,805	1,344,761	-	-	25,845	25,845
Barbary States	-	-	-	-	-	-	2,381	2,381
English possessions in Africa	765,047	382,523	589,325	117,865	72,661	145,322	2,425	2,425
Other countries on the coast of Africa	-	-	64,018	12,804	-	-	1,843	1,843
India, English possessions	48,884	18,576	6,875	1,775	333,202	667,404	1,634	1,634
Spanish, do.	16,352	6,214	-	-	4,451	8,901	-	-
Dutch, do.	-	-	25,686	5,137	-	-	2 614	2,614
French, do.	-	-	-	-	12,295	24,590	285	285
China	-	-	-	-	-	-	285	285
United States	1,849,845	544,449	2,270,987	666,797	486,900	973,800	534,174	534,174
Hayti	203,426	67,131	221,966	59,393	7,046	14,190	7,692	7,692
English possessions in America	-	-	2,769	692	110	220	-	-
Spanish do.	616,014	203,314	763,815	190,703	53,278	106,556	14,929	14,929
Danish do.	195,748	64,597	2:8,964	50,241	16,014	32,188	8,020	8,020
Brazil	138,729	45,780	2,225,887	446,000	47,841	95,702	24,019	24,019
Mexico	55,510	18,316	41,983	8,396	239,018	478,036	7,403	7,403
Colombia	7,980	2,633	15,124	3,655	3,730	7,460	9,272	9,272
Peru	80,745	26,646	-	-	15,813	31,306	-	-
Chili	39,186	12,931	-	-	27,202	54,404	1,200	1,200
Rio de la Plata	196,984	64,964	178,940	35,188	17,097	34,194	11,151	11,151
Guadeloupe	616,297	203,378	1,961,516	413,907	45,631	91,242	10,242	10,242
Martinico	460,376	151,924	1,210,428	474,086	43,987	87,974	14,618	14,618
Bourbon	783,175	258,407	1,542,935	304,587	47,554	95,108	15,262	15,262
Senegal	236,851	78,161	189,942	37,018	8,940	7,880	5,703	5,703
French Guiana	507,835	167,586	323,891	64,778	6,796	13,592	15,273	15,273
St. Pierre and Miquelon	-	-	39,657	7,931	-	-	109	109
Totals	39,116	11,449,649	50,769,137	10,153,827	1,880,953	3,761,916	2,558,162	2,558,162

Exclusive of the above, there were exported from France, in the same year, 2,753,499 litres of *eaux de liqueurs*, valued at 4,130,250 francs.

The total produce of the vineyards of France is estimated at about 35,000,000 hectolitres (77,000,000 Imp. gallons), worth 540,000,000 francs (21,600,000*l.*). We beg to refer the reader to the article Bordeaux, for an account of the influence of the French system of commercial policy on this great department of industry.

Dispute as to the Comparative Merit of Champagne and Burgundy.—The question, whether the wines of Champagne or of Burgundy were entitled to the preference, was agitated during the reign of Louis XIV. with extraordinary keenness. The celebrated Charles Coffin, rector of the University of Beauvais, published, during this controversy, the classical ode, partly quoted above, in which Champagne is eulogised, and its superiority vindicated, with a spirit, vivacity, and delicacy worthy of the theme. The citizens of Rheims were not ungrateful to the poet; but liberally rewarded him with an appropriate and munificent donation of the wine he had so happily panegyrised. Gréneau wrote an ode in praise of Burgundy; but, unlike its subject, it was flat and insipid, and failed to procure any recompence to its author. The different pieces in this amusing controversy were collected and published in octavo, at Paris, in 1719.—(See *Le Grand d'Aussy, Vie Privée des Français*, tom. iii. p. 39., and the

Biographie Universelle, tom. lx. art. *Coffin* (*Charles*).) Erasmus attributes the restoration of his health to his having drunk liberally of Burgundy; and has eulogised it in the most extravagant terms. An epistle of his, quoted by Le Grand d'Aussy, shows that Falstaff and he could have spent an evening together less disagreeably than might have been supposed:—"Le premier qui enseigna l'art de faire ce vin (Bourgogne), ou qui en fit present, ne doit-il point passer plutôt pour nous avoir donné la vie que pour nous avoir gratifié d'une liqueur."—(*Vie Privée des Français*, tom. iii. p. 9.)

Consumption of French Wine in England. Discriminating Duties.—Owing to the intimate connection subsisting between England and France for several centuries after the Conquest, the wines of the latter were long in almost exclusive possession of the English market: but the extension of commerce gradually led to the introduction of other species; and in the reigns of Elizabeth and James I., the dry white wines of Spain seem to have been held in the highest estimation. This, however, was only a temporary preference. Subsequently to the Restoration, the wines of France regained their former ascendancy. In 1687, their importations amounted to 15,518, in 1688 to 14,218, and in 1689 to 11,106 tuns. It is exceedingly doubtful whether so much as a single pipe of port had ever found its way to England previously to this period—(*Henderson*, p. 313.); and it is most probable that the wines of France would have continued to preserve their ascendancy in our markets, had not their importation been artificially checked.

The trade with France had occasionally been prohibited previously to the accession of William III.; but it was not until 1693 that any distinction was made between the duties payable on French and other wines. But Louis XIV. having espoused the cause of the exiled family of Stuart, the British government, in the irritation of the moment, and without reflecting that the blow aimed at the French would infallibly recoil upon themselves, imposed, at the period above-mentioned, a discriminating duty of 8*l.* a tun on French wines, and in 1697 increased to 33*l.*! In consequence of this enormous augmentation of duty on French wines, the merchants began to import wine from Oporto as a substitute for the red wines of Bordeaux, excluded by the high duties. It is probable, however, that these discriminating duties would have been repealed as soon as the excitement which produced them had subsided, and that the trade would have returned to its old channels, had not the stipulations in the famous commercial treaty with Portugal, negotiated by Mr. Methuen in 1703, given them permanence. Such, however, was unluckily the case: for, according to this treaty, we bound ourselves to charge in future *one third* higher duties on the wines of France than on those of Portugal; the Portuguese, by way of compensation, binding themselves to admit our woollens into their markets in preference to those of other countries, at a fixed and invariable rate of duty.

Though very generally regarded at the time as the highest effort of diplomatic skill and address, the Methuen treaty was certainly founded on the narrowest views of national interest, and has proved, in no common degree, injurious to both parties, but especially to England. By binding ourselves to receive Portuguese wines for *two thirds* of the duty payable on those of France, we, in effect, gave the Portuguese growers a monopoly of the British market, and thereby attracted too great a proportion of the deficient capital of Portugal to the production of wine; while, on the other hand, we not only excluded one of the principal equivalents the French had to offer for our commodities, and proclaimed to the world that we considered it better to deal with *two* millions of poor beggarly customers, than with *thirty* millions of rich ones, but we also provoked the retaliation of the French, who forthwith excluded most of our articles from their markets!

The injurious effects of the regulations in the Methuen treaty were distinctly pointed out by Dr. Davenant and Mr. Hume. The latter, in his *Essay on the Balance of Trade*, published in 1752, says, "Our jealousy and hatred of France are without bounds. These passions have occasioned innumerable barriers and obstructions on commerce, where we are commonly accused of being the aggressors. But what have we gained by the bargain? *We lost the French market for our woollen manufactures*, and transferred the commerce of wine to Spain and Portugal, *where we buy much worse liquor at a much higher price!* There are few Englishmen who would not think their country absolutely ruined were French wine sold in England so cheap, and in such abundance, as to supplant ale and other home-brewed liquors. But, would we lay aside prejudice, it would not be difficult to prove that nothing could be more innocent; perhaps, more advantageous. Each new acre of vineyard planted in France, in order to supply England with wine, would make it requisite for the French to take an equivalent in English goods, by the sale of which we should be equally benefited."

In consequence of the preference so unwisely given to the wines of Portugal over those of France,—a preference continued, in defiance of every principle of sound policy and common sense, down to 1831,—the imports of French wine were for many years reduced to a mere trifle; and notwithstanding their increased consumption, occasioned by the reduction of the duties in 1825, the quantity made use of in 1833 did not exceed 232,500 gallons; while the consumption of Portuguese wines amounts to about 2,600,000 Imperial gallons! This is the most striking example, perhaps, in the history of commerce, of the influence of customs duties in diverting trades into new channels, and altering the taste of a people. All but the most opulent classes having been compelled, for a long series of years, either to renounce wine, or to use port, the taste for the latter has been firmly rooted; the beverage that was originally forced upon us by necessity having become congenial from habit. We have little doubt, however, now that the discriminating duty in favour of port is abolished, that the excellence of the French wines will ultimately regain for them some portion of that favour in the English market they formerly enjoyed.*

Madeira,—so called from the island of that name,—is a wine that has long been in extensive use in this and other countries. Plants of the vine were conveyed from Crete to Madeira in 1421, and have succeeded extremely well. There is a considerable difference in the flavour and other qualities of the wines of Madeira: the best are produced on the south side of the island. Though naturally strong, they receive an addition of brandy when racked from the vessels in which they have been fermented, and another portion is thrown in previously to their exportation. This is said to be required to sustain the wine in the high temperature to which it is subjected in its passage to and from India and China, to which large quantities of it are sent; it being found that it is mellowed, and its flavour materially improved by the voyage. It does not, however, necessarily follow, that the wines which have made the longest voyages are always the best. Much must obviously depend on the original quality of the wine; and many of the parcels selected to be sent to India are so inferior, that the wine, when brought to London, does not rank so high as that which has been imported direct. But when the parcel sent out has been well chosen, it is very much

*The mischievous operation of the Methuen treaty, and of the discriminating duty on French wines, were very strikingly exhibited by Mr. Hyde Villiers, in his able speech on the 15th of June, 1830. It is highly deserving of the reader's attention.

matured and improved by the voyage; and it not only fetches a higher price, but is in all respects superior to the direct importations. Most of the adventitious spirit is dissipated in the course of the Indian voyage.

Madeira wines may be kept for a very long period. "Like the ancient vintages of the Surrentine hills, they are truly *firmissima vina*, retaining their qualities unimpaired in both extremes of climate, suffering no decay, and constantly improving as they advance in age. Indeed, they cannot be pronounced in condition until they have been kept for 10 years in the wood, and afterwards allowed to mellow nearly twice that time in bottle: and even then they will hardly have reached the utmost perfection of which they are susceptible. When of good quality, and matured as above described, they lose all their original harshness, and acquire that agreeable pungency, that bitter sweetishness, which was so highly prized in the choicest wines of antiquity; uniting great strength and richness of flavour with an exceedingly fragrant and diffusible aroma. The nutty taste, which is often very marked, is not communicated, as some have imagined, by means of bitter almonds, but is inherent in the wine."—(*Henderson*, p. 253.)

The wines of Madeira have latterly fallen into disrepute in England. The growth of the island is very limited—not exceeding 20,000 pipes, of which a considerable quantity goes to the West Indies and America. Hence, when Madeira was a fashionable wine in England, every sort of deception was practised with respect to it, and large quantities of spurious trash were disposed of for the genuine vintage of the island. This naturally brought the wine into discredit; so that sherry has been for several years the fashionable white wine. It is difficult, however, to imagine that adulteration was ever practised to a greater extent upon Madeira than it is now practised upon sherry. The quantity entered for home consumption in 1827 amounted to 308,295 gallons, whereas the quantity entered for home consumption in 1833 only amounted to 161,042 gallons.

Malmsey, a very rich luscious species of the Madeira, is made from grapes grown on rocky grounds exposed to the full influence of the sun's rays, and allowed to remain on the vine till they are over-ripe.

The trade in Madeira wine is carried on at Funchal, the capital of the island, in lat. 32° 37′ N., lon. 17° 6′ W. *Weights* and *Measures* same as Lisbon.

Teneriffe wine,—so called from the island of that name,—resembles Madeira, and is not unfrequently substituted in its place; but it wants the full body and rich flavour of the best growths of Madeira.

German Wines.—The wines of Germany imported into England are principally produced on the banks of the Rhine and the Moselle. The Rhine wines constitute a distinct order by themselves. They are drier than the French white wines, and are characterised by a delicate flavour and aroma, called in the country *gäre*, which is quite peculiar to them, and of which it would, therefore, be in vain to attempt the description. A notion prevails that they are naturally acid; and the inferior kinds, no doubt, are so: but this is not the constant character of the Rhine wines, which in good years have no perceptible acidity in the taste, at least not more than is common to them with the growths of warmer regions. Their chief distinction is their extreme durability. The wines made in warm dry years are always in great demand, and fetch very high prices.

The Johannisberger stands at the head of the Rhine wines. It has a very choice flavour and perfume, and is characterised by an almost total want of acidity. The vineyard is the property of Prince Metternich. The Steinberger ranks next to the Johannisberger. It is the strongest of all the Rhenish wines, and in favourable years has much flavour and delicacy.

The produce of certain vineyards on the banks of the Moselle, is of superior quality. The better sorts are clear and dry, with a light pleasant flavour and high aroma; but they sometimes contract a slaty taste, from the strata on which they grow. They arrive at maturity in 5 or 6 years; though when made in a favourable season, they will keep twice that time, without experiencing any deterioration.—(*Henderson*, p. 226.)

Tokay.—so called from a town in Hungary, near which it is produced,—is but little known in England. It is luscious, possessing at the same time a high degree of flavour and aroma. It is scarce and dear; and very apt to be counterfeited.

Marsala.—The Sicilian white wine called Marsala, from the town (the ancient Lilybœum) whence it is shipped, and near which it is made, is now pretty largely consumed in England; the entries for home consumption having increased from 79,686 gallons in 1823, to 312,993 in 1833; an extraordinary increase, particularly when it is considered that during the same period the consumption of most sorts of wine has been nearly stationary. Marsala is a dry wine; the best qualities closely resembling the lighter sorts of Madeira; but the increasing demand for it seems to be owing as much to its cheapness as to any peculiarity of quality. It is, however, an agreeable dinner wine. Marsala has been brought to its present state of perfection and repute by the care and exertions of 2 Englishmen, the Messrs. Woodhouse established in Sicily, who have an extensive factory in the neighbourhood of Marsala. The wine is shipped in large quantities for America; whence a considerable quantity is again

conveyed to the West Indies, where it is not unfrequently disposed of as real Madeira.

With the exception of Marsala, very little wine either of Sicily or Italy is imported into England. The wines of those countries are, indeed, without, perhaps, a single exception, very inferior to those of France. The natives bestow no care upon the culture of the vine; and their ignorance, obstinacy, and want of skill in the preparation of wine, are said to be almost incredible. In some districts, the art is, no doubt, better understood than in others; but had the Falernian, Cecuban, and other famous ancient wines, not been incomparably better than the best of those that are now produced, they never would have elicited the glowing panegyrics of Horace.

Wines of Greece and Cyprus.—The soil in most parts of Greece and the Grecian islands is admirably fitted for the growth of the vine; and, in antiquity, they produced some of the choicest wines. But the rapacity of the Turks, and the insecurity of person and property that has always prevailed under their miserable government, has effectually prevented the careful cultivation of the vine; and has occasioned, in many places, its total abandonment. It may, however, be fairly presumed, now that Greece has emancipated herself from the iron yoke of her oppressors, that the culture of the vine will attract some portion of that attention to which it is justly entitled; and that, at no distant period, wine will form an important article of export from Greece.

Nowhere, perhaps, has the destructive influence of Turkish barbarism and misgovernment been so apparent as in Candia and Cyprus. While these 2 renowned and noble islands were possessed by the Venetians, they supplied all Europe with the choicest dessert wines. Bacci affirms, that towards the end of the 16th century, Candia sent annually 200,000 casks of malmsey to the Adriatic; whereas at present it hardly produces sufficient to supply the wants of its few impoverished inhabitants.—(*Henderson*, p. 243.) The wines of Cyprus, particularly those produced from the vineyard called the Commandery, from its having belonged to the Knights of Malta, were still more highly esteemed than those of Crete. In the earlier part of last century, the total produce of the vintage of the island was supposed to amount to above 2,000,000 gallons, of which nearly ½ was exported; but now, the wine grown and exported does not amount to 1-10th part of these quantities! The oppression of which they have been the victims, has reduced the peasantry to the extreme of indigence. The present population of the island is not supposed to exceed 60,000,—a number insufficient to have peopled one of its many ancient cities; and small as this number is, it is constantly diminishing by the inhabitants availing themselves of every opportunity of emigrating. Recently Cyprus has passed into the hands of Mohammed Ali; but unless the Pacha establishes a different government in it from what he has established in Egypt, the miserable inhabitants will gain nothing by the change.—(There is a brief but good account of Cyprus in *Kinneir's Travels in Asia Minor*, &c. pp. 176—197.)

Cape Wines.—Of the remaining wines imported into England, those of the Cape of Good Hope form the largest proportion; the quantity annually entered for home consumption being about 540,000 Imperial gallons. The famous Constantia wine is the produce of 2 contiguous farms of that name, at the base of Table Mountain, between 8 and 9 miles from Cape Town. The wine is very rich and luscious; though, according to Dr. Henderson, it yields, in point of flavour and aroma, to the muscadine wines of Languedoc and Roussillon. But, with this exception, most of the Cape wines brought to England have an earthy disagreeable taste, are often acid, want flavour and aroma, and are, in fact, altogether execrable. And yet this vile trash, being the produce of a British possession, enjoys peculiar advantages in our markets; for while the duty on Cape wine is only 2*s.* 9*d.* a gallon, that on all other wines is 5*s.* 6*d.* The consequences of this unjust preference are doubly mischievous: in the first place it forces the importation of an article of which little is directly consumed, but which is extensively employed as a convenient menstruum for adulterating and degrading sherry, Madeira, and other good wines; and, in the second place, it prevents the improvement of the wine; for, while the legislature thinks fit to give a bounty on the importation of so inferior an article, is it to be supposed that the colonists should exert themselves to produce any thing better? It is not easy to imagine a more preposterous and absurd regulation. The act enforcing it ought to be entitled, an act for the adulteration of wines in Great Britain, and for encouraging the growth of bad wine in the Cape colony!

Consumption of Wine in Great Britain. Duties.—We have repeatedly had occasion, in the course of this work, to call the reader's attention to the injurious operation of unequal and exorbitant duties. Perhaps, however, the trade in wine has suffered more from this cause than any other department of industry. We have already endeavoured to point out some of the effects resulting from the inequality of the duties, or from the preference so long given to the inferior wines of Portugal and Spain over the superior wines of France. But the exorbitance of the duties was, if possible, still more objectionable than the partial principle on which they were imposed. It appears from the subjoined Table, that during the 3 years ending with 1792, when the duty on French wines was 3*s.* 9*d.*, and on Portuguese 2*s.* 6*d.* per wine gallon, the consumption in Great Britain amounted, at an average, to 7,110,917 gallons a year, producing about 900,000*l.* of revenue. It is probable, had the increase taken place *gradually*, that these duties might have been doubled without any material diminution of consumption But in 1795 and 1796 they were raised to 8*s.* 6*d.* per gallon on French, and to 5*s.* 8½*d.* per gallon on

Portuguese and Spanish wine; and the consequence of this sudden and inordinate increase, as exhibited in the Table, was, that the consumption fell from nearly 7,000,000 gallons in 1795, to 5,732,383 gallons in 1796, and to 3,970,901 in 1797! But this unanswerable demonstration of the ruinous effects of heavy and sudden additions to the duties did not prevent them being raised, in 1804, to 11*s.* 5½*d.* on French, and to 7*s.* 8*d.* on Portuguese and Spanish wine. They continued at this rate till 1825; and such was their influence, that, notwithstanding the vast increase of wealth and population since 1790, and the general improvement in the style of living, the total consumption of wine, during the 3 years ending with 1824, amounted, at an average, to only 5,248,767 gallons a year; being no less than 2,162,180 gallons under the annual consumption of the 3 years ending with 1792! It may, therefore, be truly said, making allowance for the increase of population, that *the consumption of wine in Great Britain fell off more than fifty per cent. between* 1790 *and* 1824!

Had Mr. Vansittart continued in power, it is difficult to say when this system might have terminated; but no sooner had Mr. Robinson (now Lord Ripon) become Chancellor of the Exchequer, than he resolved upon the effectual reduction of the wine duties. In pursuance of this wise determination, Mr. Robinson took, in 1825, nearly 50 per cent. from the previously existing duties; and notwithstanding the spirit duties were at the same time reduced in a still greater degree, the consumption of wine in Great Britain has been increased from little more than 4,150,000 to about 5,200,000 Imperial gallons, while the loss of revenue has been but inconsiderable. We are, therefore, justified in affirming that this measure has been very successful, and that it is a most valuable example of the superior productiveness of low duties.*

The duties, as reduced by Mr. Robinson, were 7*s.* 3*d.* per Imperial gallon on French wines, 4*s.* 10*d.* per do. on all other foreign wines, and 2*s.* 5*d.* on those of the Cape of Good Hope. They continued on this footing till the equalisation act (1 & 2 Wil. 4. c. 30), which imposes a duty of 5*s.* 6*d.* per Imperial gallon on all foreign wines, and of 2*s.* 9*d.* on those of the Cape.

But the equalisation effected by this act ought not to have been brought about by adding anything to the duties on port, sherry, &c., but exclusively by reducing those on French wines to their level. The subjoined Tables show that the consumption of wine in the United Kingdom was about stationary from 1826 to 1831; and the addition of 8*d.* a gallon, that was then made to the duties on all sorts of foreign wine except French, from which 1*s.* 9*d.* was deducted, appears to have sensibly affected the consumption of 1832. Considering, indeed, the increasing wealth and population of the British empire, and the more generally diffused use of wine, the small increase of the quantities retained for consumption is not a little surprising. A good deal is, we believe, ascribable to adulteration. It is certain, however, that the duties are still too high; but they are principally objectionable from the mode of their assessment. The trade will never be placed on a proper footing till the duty is imposed on an *ad valorem* principle. The imposition of the same duty on inferior and cheap wines, worth 10*l.* a hogshead, as on the choicest Burgundy and Champagne, worth 50*l.* or 60*l.* a hogshead, is so utterly subversive of all principle, that one is astonished it should be maintained for an instant. Its absurdity would not be exceeded, were the same duty charged on small beer that is charged on gin! The effect of this apparently equal, but really *most unequal* duty, is to exclude all low priced wines from the English markets; and to deprive the middle classes of the gratification derivable from their use. Commercially speaking, Bordeaux is much nearer London than Paris: and, but for this preposterous system, the cheap wines of the Gironde, Languedoc, and Provence might be bought here at a less price than in most parts of France. Were it necessary for the sake of revenue to continue the present system, it might be reluctantly submitted to; but it is abundantly certain, that a fairly assessed *ad valorem* duty would, by increasing the consumption of the middle classes, yield a much larger amount of revenue than is produced by the present duty: and it is not to be endured, that the trade of the country should be deeply injured, and the enjoyments of the great bulk of the community materially impaired, for no purpose of public utility, but merely that injustice and absurdity may be prolonged! It is said, indeed, that the imposition of an *ad valorem* duty would lead to the commission of fraud; but we have been assured, by those familiar with the customs, that such precautions might easily be adopted as would prevent any danger on this head. And though it were otherwise—though a few thousand gallons of wine were admitted for home consumption at a somewhat lower duty than they ought to have paid—the injury would be of the most trivial kind, and would hardly, indeed, deserve a moment's attention. In the United States, most duties are imposed on an *ad valorem* principle; and it is not alleged that any real difficulty has to be encountered in their collection.

Consumption of Wine in Ireland. Duties.—In 1790, the duties on wine consumed in Ireland were considerably below the level of those imposed in Great Britain, and the average annual quantity of all sorts retained for home consumption in that country amounted to about 1,160,000 Imperial gallons, producing about 138,000*l.* a year of revenue. Had those to whom the government of Ireland was intrusted possessed the slightest knowledge of the merest elements of finance, or of the condition of the Irish people, they would not have attempted to add to the public revenue by augmenting the duties on wine. Owing to the limited number of the middle classes in Ireland, an increase of duty could not be expected to be productive; and though it has yielded 50,000*l.*, or even 100,000*l.* a year additional revenue, that would have been no compensation for the injury it was sure to do in checking the diffusion of that taste for the luxuries and enjoyments so essential to the improvement of the people. But those who had to administer the affairs of Ireland were insensible to such considerations; and never doubted that 2 and 2 make 4 in the arithmetic of the customs as well as in Cocker! Such, indeed, was their almost incredible rapacity, that in the interval between 1791 and 1814, they raised the duty on French wine from 33*l.* 7*s.* a tun to 144*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.*; and that on port from 22*l.* 4*s.* 8*d.* to 95*l.* 11*s.*! This was a much more rapid increase than had taken place in England; and as the country was far less able to bear even the same increase, the consequences have been proportionally mischievous. In 1815, the quantity of wine retained for home consumption in Ireland had declined, notwithstanding the population had been doubled, to 608,000 Imperial gallons, or to about *half* the quantity consumed in 1790; and in 1824, the consumption had fallen to 467,000 gallons, while the revenue only amounted to 185,000*l.*!

It is unnecessary to make any commentary on such statements. But it is mortifying to reflect, that the legislature of a civilised country like Great Britain should have obstinately persevered in such a system for about ¼ of a century. We venture to affirm, that those who ransack the financial annals of Turkey and Spain, will find nothing in them evincing in every part greater rapacity, ignorance, and contempt for the public interest, than is displayed in the history of Irish taxation from 1790 to 1819.

The reduction of the duties in 1825 has nearly *doubled* the consumption of wine in Ireland, and has added considerably to the revenue. The duties are still, however, oppressively high as compared with the means of the population; and hence, notwithstanding the population of Ireland has more than doubled, and the wealth of the country been materially increased in the interval, the quantity of wine

* An article in the Edinburgh Review, No. 80., contributed to bring about this measure. See also an excellent tract on the *Wine Trade*, by Mr. Warre, published in 1824.

retained for home consumption in 1790, exceeded that retained for the same purpose in 1832, by more than 390,000 Imperial gallons! The Irish are particularly attached to French wines; and supposing the duty were fixed on an *ad valorem* principle, so that it should be 3*s.* 6*d.* or 4*s.* a gallon on the finer wines, we have no doubt whatever that the consumption would be speedily doubled or trebled, not only in Ireland, but also in Britain. We subjoin

An Account of the Quantities of all Sorts of Wine retained for Consumption in IRELAND, during the Four Years ending with 1833, and of the Nett Revenue accruing thereon.

Years.	Retained for Consumption.	Revenue.	Years.	Retained for Consumption.	Revenue.
	Imp. Gall.	*L.*		*Imp. Gall.*	*L.*
1829	781,909	191,144	1831	767,881	178,376
1830	797,674	172,561	1832	796,339	190,169

Rates of duty same in Ireland as in Great Britain, since 1814.

Adulteration of Wine.—We have already alluded to this practice. It was prosecuted to a very great extent previously to the reduction of the duties in 1825, and is still very far from being suppressed. It has been affirmed, but we are inclined to suspect the statement of exaggeration, that at this moment more than *a third* of all the sherry consumed in London is the produce of the *home presses!* Indeed, wines are every day offered for sale at prices at which every one conversant with the trade knows they could not be afforded were they genuine. Mr. Fleetwood Williams has given, in his valuable pamphlet on the *Wine Trade* (1821), some curious details on this subject.

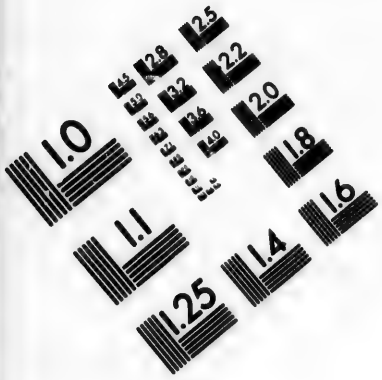
The imposition of the duties on an *ad valorem* principle, by allowing genuine wine to [illegible] price, would put an effectual stop to the practices of the adulterators. The increase of [illegible] the reigns of William and Anne first gave birth to this discreditable fraternity—(see a [illegible] of Addison's, *Tatler*, No. 131); and it will continue to flourish as long as the duties are [illegible] their present footing.

The only security against being imposed upon, is to deal only with respectable houses; with those largely engaged in the trade; and to whom a reputation for selling good wine is of ten times more importance than any thing they could expect to make by adulteration.

Account of the Quantity of French and other Sorts of Wine retained for Home Consumption in GREAT BRITAIN from 1789 to 1832; specifying the Produce of the Duty, and the Rates of Duty thereon.

Years.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption.			Rates of Duty.						Nett Revenue.		
	French.	Other Sorts.	Total.	French.	Madeira.	Ports of Spain & Portugal.	Rhenish.	Cape.	Other Sorts.	French.	Other Sorts.	Total.
	Wine Gallons.	*Wine Gallons.*	*Wine Gallons.*	*Wine Gall.*	*Wine Gall.*	*Wine Gall.*	*Wine Gall.*	*Wine Gall.*	*Wine Gall.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*
1789	291,209	5,540,356	5,831,565	3 9	2 8 1/2	2 8 1/2	4 1	2 11 2-3	3 9	36,549	684,969	721,518
1790	346,314	6,245,983	6,592,297	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	41,352	778,240	820,592
1791	240,839	7,107,137	7,347,976	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	43,417	873,351	916,769
1792	303,727	7,778,522	8,082,249	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	59,693	959,951	1,019,645
1793	256,160	6,634,750	6,890,910	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	50,308	660,377	690,685
1794	99,118	6,700,102	6,799,220	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	14,447	780,536	795,123
1795	118,587	6,809,534	6,927,121	6 1/2	4 11 6	4 11 6	5 2	4 6 2 3	5 4	65,179	1,375,143	1,430,722
1796	50,981	5,681,502	5,732,386	8 6	5 8 1 4	5 8 1 4	7 3	6 13 4	6 11	25,953	1,134,370	1,159,523
1797	Excess of exports. 4,974 gals.	3,975,775	3,970,901	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	36,232	1,347,433	1,383,665
1798	45,367	4,715,290	4,760,657	8 9 1/2	5 11	5 9 1 8	7 6 3 4	6 3	7 0 1-2	33,247	1,339,414	1,372,661
1799	51,126	4,726,505	4,777,631	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	31 3 6	1,661,510	1,692,826
1800	83,171	7 645,400	7,728,571	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	42,311	1,924,871	1,967,213
1801	141,633	6,864,917	7,006,310	8 6	5 8 1 4	5 8 1 4	7 3	6 13 4	6 11	84,686	1,905,310	1,992,097
1802	129,490	6,526,469	6,655,719	8 10	5 11 1 4	5 10 1 4	7 7 1-2	6 13 4	7 1	61,514	1,870,358	1,931,872
1803	192,136	7,299,330	8,181,466	10 4	6 11 1 4	6 10 1 4	8 7 1 4	6 10 1 4	8 10 1 4	72,108	2,069,252	2,141,360
1804	21,804	4,818,915	4,840,719	11 3 1/2	7 7	7 6	9 3	7 6	7 6	34,423	1,779,899	1,814,323
1805	63,983	4,501,565	4,565,551	11 6	7 8	7 7	9 4 1-2	7 7	7 7	81,386	1,922,450	2,003,836
1806	156,002	5,780,233	5,936,235	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	94,813	2,225,615	2,320,428
1807	160,114	5,762,223	5,922,337	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	89,139	2,245,058	2,334,197
1808	188,944	6,221,590	6,408,534	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	126,938	2,226,869	2,353,736
1809	125,266	5,652,821	5,808,087	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	The nett receipt of duty on French and other descriptions of wine cannot be separately stated for these years, in consequence of the destruction of the customs records by fire.		2,361,113
1810	190,917	6,614,359	6,805,276	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .			2,313,615
1811	69,221	5,797,653	5,860,874	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .			2,169,571
1812	77,312	5,059,178	5,136,490	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .			1,911,352
1813	186,747	4,531,821	4,718,568	10 5	7 8	7 7	9 4 1-2	6 13 2	7 7			Customs records destroyed.
1814	36,880	4,904,783	4,941,663	11 5	7 8	7 7	9 4 1-2	6 13 2	7 7	73,185	1,959,655	2,032,840
1815	301,024	5,687,411	5,988,435	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	122 662	1,972,637	2,095,299
1816	126,625	4,294,182	4,420,807	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	76,046	1,534,252	1,610,299
1817	147,671	5,466,951	5,614,622	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	87,475	1,956,244	2,043,720
1818	268,424	5,875,096	6,139,190	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	158,270	2,086,010	2,241,280
1819	215,846	4,762,754	4,978,600	11 5 1/2	7 8	7 7	9 5	6 13 3	7 7	126,667	1,675,429	1,802,097
1820	192,175	4,837,785	5,029,960	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	106,892	1,711,503	1,818,396
1821	165,791	4,850,778	5,016,569	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	97,486	1,700,004	1,797,491
1822	177,759	4,797,401	4,975,159	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	104,425	1,680,588	1,784,013
1823	193,298	5,198,114	5,391,412	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	106,862	1,800,484	1,907,346
1824	204,901	5,274,831	5,479,732	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	. .	117,202	1,880,751	1,997,953
1825	834,015	5,121,979	5,955,995	6 0	4 0	4 0	4 0	2 0	4 0	166,184	1,848,869	1,815,053
										Allowances for stock in hand		1,021,044
												794,009
	Imp. Gall.	*Imp. Gall.*	*Imp. Gall.*	*Per Imperial Gallon.*								
1826	356,846	6,093,984	6,450,814	7 3 equal to the former duties per wine gallon.		4 10	4 10	12 5	4 10	107,202	1,162,925	1,270,118
1827	340,471	6,921,639	7,262,110							102,509	1,324,040	1,426,550
1828	491,361	7,129,484	7,620,825							136,794	1,370,098	1,506,192
1829	316,941	5,104,802	5,421,743							113,880	1,178,522	1,292,402
1830	266,046	5,410,686	5,676,771							95,139	1,256,468	1,351,607
1831	228,413	5,226 470	5,454,883	5 6	5 6	5 6	5 6	2 9	5 6	70,935	1,285,273	1,356,208
1832	203,252	4,995,961	5,199,203							56,348	1,321,662	1,519,643




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Account of the Quantities of Foreign Wines retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom distinguishing each Sort, during each of the 13 Years ended 5th January, 1836. (Imp. Meas.)

Years.	Cape.	French.	Portuguese.	Madeira.	Spanish.	Canary.	Rhenish.	Sicilian, &c.	Total.
	Galls.	*Galls.*	*Galls.*	*Galls.*	*Galls.*	*Galls.*	*Galls.*	*Galls.*	*Galls.*
1823	555,119	171,681	2,492,212	325,734	1,073,928	123,096	20,670	79,686	4,845,060
1824	586,339	197,447	2,812,563	321,479	1,217,084	117,433	28,978	77,065	5,050,091
1825	670,639	535,578	4,300,719	278,644	1,230,975	107,108	107,299	134,899	8,009,542
1826	630,436	343,707	2,883,686	286,975	1,092,560	134,445	26,994	140,318	5,088,443
1827	698,431	311,289	3,222,192	300,295	1,208,331	152,938	76,161	136,721	6,096,361
1828	664,296	421,462	3,307,021	272,217	1,097,688	137,553	86,905	146,537	7,162,376
1829	975,744	365,268	2,631,751	329,268	1,244,162	101,899	74,296	219,172	6,217,652
1830	816,215	309,294	2,998,808	217,138	1,761,423	101,892	62,252	252,513	6,434,445
1831	539,584	254,366	2,707,734	209,127	2,089,532	94,117	27,988	259,916	6,2[illegible],284
1832	514,992	228,527	2,617,405	159,289	2,080,099	72,809	38,197	254,251	5,965,542
1833	544,191	232,560	2,566,430	161,049	2,246,085	other sorts not distinguished } 485,372			6,207,770
1834	524,041	280,680	2,780,205	150,248	2,270,553				6,480,544
1835	552,941	271,881	2,780,084	138,482	2,290,197	86,266	45,286	376,455	6,450,343

Account exhibiting the Quantities of the different Sorts of Wine imported into and exported from the United Kingdom in the Year ending the 5th of January, 1840; the Quantities of each Sort retained for Home Consumption; the Rates of Duty; and the Gross and Nett Revenue accruing thereon.

Species of Wine.	Quantities imported into the United Kingdom.	Quantities exported from the United Kingdom.	Quantities retained for Home Consumption in the United Kingdom.	Rates of Duty.	Gross Amount of Revenue received thereon.	Nett Amount of Revenue received thereon.
	Gallons.	*Gallons.*	*Gallons.*	*s. d.*	*L.*	*L.*
Cape	723,740	3,560	686,194	2 9	73,596	73,602
French	503,268	191,483	306,850	5 6	106,920	104,112
Madeira	267,047	102,537				
Portuguese	3,272,206	298,355				
Spanish	4,130,768	989,776				
Rhenish	82,910	18,356	8,254,784	5 6	1,732,232	1,672,276
Canary	341,235	982,779				
Fayal	308	90				
Sicilian and other Wines*	582,310	170,169				
Total	9,906,723	2,053,065	7,239,567		1,915,548	1,849,989

Price of Wine in London.—The following is an account of the price of wine in bond in London, in December, 1836.

		L. s.	*L.* s.			*L.* s.	*L.* s.
Port, 1st class, old	per pipe	40 0	to 48 0	Marsala	per pipe	12 0	to 15 0
2d and 3d, do.	—	30 0	— 36 0	Mountain	—	16 0	— 18 0
light and common	—	20 0	— 28 0	Claret, 1st growth	per hhd.	40 0	— 45 0
Sherry, 1st quality, high flavoured	per butt	50 0	— 60 0	2d and 3d	—	30 0	— 38 0
2d and 3d quality	—	36 0	— 45 0	cargo, and inferior qualities	—	5 0	— 10 0
4th and 5th do.	—	20 0	— 30 0	Burgundy, red	—	40 0	— 45 0
common, consigned	—	12 0	— 18 0	white	—	48 0	— 50 0
Madeira, East India, fine	per pipe	55 0	— 65 0	Champagne	per doz.	1 4	— 2 10
do., very fine	—	60 0	— 80 0	Sauterne, 1st and 2d quality	per pipe	17 0	— 24 0
do., middling and common	—	20 0	— 36 0	3d and 4th do.	—	10 0	— 16 0
West India, 1st quality	—	50 0	— 60 0	Hermitage, 2d do.	—	30 0	— 35 0
2d and 3d do.	—	25 0	— 45 0	3d do.	—	20 0	— 25 0
direct London particular	—	45 0	— 52 0	Moselle	per sam.	12 0	— 20 0
2d quality	—	30 0	— 36 0	Hock	—	20 0	— 50 0
inferior	—	17 0	— 25 0	Cape Madeira, best	per pipe	50 0	— 18 0
Teneriffe, best old	—	20 0	— 24 0	2d and 3d quality	—	12 0	— 14 0
cargo	—	9 0	— 13 0	common	—	10 10	— 11 0
Lisbon	—	22 0	— 24 0	Spanish, red	—	12 0	— 14 0
Bucellas	—	30 0	— 52 0	Sicilian	—	9 0	— 10 0

Measures.—According to the system of wine measures that prevailed down to 1826, the gallon contained 231 cubic inches; the tierce, 42 gallons; the puncheon, 84 gallons; the hogshead, 63 gallons; the pipe or butt, 126 gallons; and the tun, 252 gallons. But in the new system of measures introduced by the act 5 Geo. 4. c. 74., the Imperial standard gallon contains 277·274 cubic inches; so that the tierce = 35 (very nearly) Imperial gallons; the puncheon = 70 (very nearly) do.; the hogshead = 52½ (very nearly) do.; the pipe or butt = 105 (very nearly) do.; and the tun = 210 (very nearly) do.—(See Weights and Measures.)

A very great quantity of wine is sold to the consumer in dozens; and much more, indeed, than is sold in any other way; and yet there is no regulation as to the size of bottles,—a defect which has occasioned a great deal of abuse. No one doubts the propriety of making all gallons, bushels, &c. of the same capacity; and why should not similar regulations be enforced in the case of measures so universally used as bottles?

Wine the produce of Europe may not be imported for home consumption, except in British ships, or in ships of the country of which the wine is the produce, or of the country from which it is imported, on forfeiture thereof, and 100*l.* by the master of the ship.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 54.)

No abatement of duties made on account of any damage received by wine.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 52.)

Wine from the Cape must be accompanied by a certificate of its production.—(See *ante*, p. 8.)

Wine exported to foreign parts, from the bonded warehouses, must be shipped in vessels of not less than 70 tons burden.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 57.)

Wine for Officers of Navy.—For the quantity of duty-free wine to be allowed to officers of the navy, and the regulations under which it is to be allowed, see *ante*, p. 15.

Regulations as to mixing, bottling, &c. in Warehouses.—1. Wines, when deposited in warehouses of special security, or in warehouses situated near the places of landing and shipping, and declared in the order of approval to be substantially built, and capable of affording general accommodation to the trade, may be allowed to be fitted up, fined, and racked, as often as the owners may deem necessary, the lees to be destroyed without payment of duty, the quantities destroyed being correctly ascertained for the purpose of being eventually deducted from the official accounts.

2. Bonded brandy may be allowed to be added to wine in the bonded stores for its preservation or improvement, and the whole to pay duty as wine upon being taken out for home consumption, provided the whole quantity of brandy contained in the wine, at the time of entry for home consumption,

* The other sorts are quite trifling, and do not deserve notice.

do not exceed 20 per cent.; and that a proper sample for the purpose of ascertaining the strength be allowed to be taken out by the proper officers.

2. Wines may be allowed to be mixed with wines of the same description as often as necessary for their preservation or improvement; provided that wine so mixed be kept separate from other wine, and that the packages containing the same be branded as *mixed wine*, and the brand or other marks of the original shipper be effaced.—(*Treasury Order*, 29th of May, 1830.)

Wine may be bottled for exportation in a bonded vault appropriated for the purpose, upon giving 24 hours' notice; but no foreign bottles, corks, or packages may be used, except those in which the wine may have been imported and warehoused, unless the full duties shall have been paid on the same; and not less than 3 dozen reputed quarts, or 6 dozen reputed pint bottles, shall be exported in each package; and if any surplus or sediment remain, it is to be immediately destroyed in the presence of the officer, or the full duties paid upon it.—(3 & 4 *Will.* 4. c. 57., and *Customs Min.* 31st of Dec. 1833.)

The brands or marks on the casks into which wines or spirits may be racked at the bonded warehouses are to be effaced, and no other brand or mark to be retained thereon than those which were on the casks when originally imported.—(*Treasury Order*, 30th of June, 1830.)

(The Oporto Wine Company, described *antè*, p. 741., abolished by a decree dated Lisbon, 30th of May, 1834, has been re-established by the following decree, dated April 7, 1838:—

"I, Donna Maria, by the grace of God Queen of Portugal, &c., do hereby make it known to all my subjects, that the general, extraordinary, and constitutional Cortes have decreed, and I have sanctioned, the following law:—

"Art. 1. The General Company for the culture of the vines in Upper Douro, suppressed by the law of the 30th of May, 1834, is again established for the period of twenty years. This company will, however, merely have the right of proving and lotting the wines of Upper Douro, marking the casks, and issuing transit permits, according to the laws of May 17 and December 20, 1824, modified by the resolutions of December 6, 1824, and November 11, 1825, by which the mode of proving the wines was prescribed.

"Art. 2. Such wines only as shall have been approved of and furnished with a permit by the company, will be allowed to be exported over the bar of Oporto.

"§ 1. The wine at present in store at Oporto, Villa Nova da Gaia, and in the Douro, shall be manifested immediately after the publication of this law; and, if previously qualified, may be exported over the bar of Oporto, either with or without a permit.

"Art. 3. As a compensation for the expenses to which the company will be put in proving and lotting the wines, branding casks, and issuing permits, they shall be entitled to levy 400 reis upon each pipe of wine receiving a permit. This sum of 400 reis shall be deducted from the amount of duties payable for consumption or exportation; and the company shall be obliged to render an annual account of the receipts and expenses to government, and to hand over the balance if there should be any.

"Art. 4. The company may promote the augmentation of its stock by means of shares, for which purpose the necessary authorisation is to be applied for to government, to whom the company shall also propose whatever else may be necessary for the execution of this law.

"Art. 5. All legislation to the contrary is hereby revoked.

"THE QUEEN.
"ANTONIO FERNANDES COELHO.

"*Palace of Necessidade*, April 7, 1838.")

Wine, Survey of Permits, &c.—The 5 & 6 Will. 4. c. 39. exempts the dealers in and retailers of wine, not being dealers in or retailers of spirits, from the obligation to allow their premises to be entered and their stocks and premises to be surveyed by the officers. It also enacts that a *permit* shall no longer be necessary for the removal of wine. Licences may be granted by the commissioners of excise to sell wine in theatres, &c.—*Sup.*)

WOAD (Ger. *Waid*; Du. *Weede*; Fr. *Pastel, Guède, Vouède*; It. *Guadone, Guado, Glastro*; Sp. *Pastel, Glasto*), the *Isatis tinctoria* of botanists, a biennial plant, with a fusiform fibrous root, and smooth branchy stem, rising from 3 to 5 feet in height. Woad is indigenous to most parts of Europe; and was extensively used from a very remote period, down to the general introduction of indigo, in the dyeing of blue. It is still cultivated to a considerable extent in France; but in this country its cultivation is chiefly restricted to a few districts in Lincolnshire. After being bruised by machinery, to express the watery part, it is formed into balls, which ferment and fall into a dry powder, which is sold to the dyer. Woad is now seldom employed without a mixture of indigo. By itself, it is incapable of giving a bright and deep blue colour; but the colour which it does give is very durable. The best methods of conducting the fermentation and preparation of woad are still so very ill understood, that the goodness of any parcel of it can never be ascertained till it be actually used; so that it has the disadvantage of being purchased under the greatest uncertainty as to its true value. At the proper age, indigo plants yield about 30 times as much colouring matter, and of a far superior quality, as an equal weight of woad; so that there is no prospect that any improvement that may be made in its preparation will ever render it, either in goodness or cheapness, a rival of the former.—(*Loudon's Ency. of Agriculture*; *Bancroft on Colours*, vol. i. p. 167.) We have previously—(see INDIGO)—given some account of the efforts made by the woad growers to prevent the use of indigo.

WOOD. See TIMBER.

WOOL (Ger. *Wolle*; Du. *Wol*; Da. *Uld*; Sw. *Ull*; Fr. *Laine*; It. and Sp. *Lana*; Port. *Ld, Lãa*; Rus. *Wolna, Scherst*; Pol. *Welna*; Lat. *Lana*), a kind of soft hair or down. The term is not very well defined. It is applied both to the fine hair of animals, as sheep, rabbits, some species of goats, the vicuna, &c.; and to fine vegetable fibres, as cotton. In this article, however, we refer only to the wool of sheep,—an article which has continued, from the earliest period down to the present day, to be of primary importance—having always formed the principal part of the clothing of mankind in most temperate regions.

Species of Wool.—It has been customary in this country to divide wool into 2 great classes—long and short wools; and these again into subordinate classes, according to the fineness of the fibre.

Short wool is used in the cloth manufacture; and is, therefore, frequently called clothing wool. It may vary in length from 1 to 3 or 4 inches: if it be longer, it requires to be cut or broken to prepare it for the manufacture.

The *felting* property of wool is known to every one. The process of hat making, for example, depends entirely upon it. The wool of which hats are made is neither spun nor woven; but locks of it, being thoroughly intermixed and compressed in warm water, cohere and form a solid tenacious substance.

Cloth and woollen goods are made from wool possessing this property; the wool is carded, spun, woven, and then being put into the fulling mill, the process of felting takes place. The strokes of the mill make the fibres cohere; the piece subjected to the operation contracts in length and breadth, and its texture becomes more compact and uniform. This process is essential to the beauty and strength of woollen cloth. But the long wool of which stuffs and worsted goods are made is deprived of its felting properties. This is done by passing the wool through heated iron combs, which takes away the lamina or feathery part of the wool, and approximates it to the nature of silk or cotton.

Long or combing wool may vary in length from 3 to 8 inches. The shorter combing wools are principally used for hose, and are spun softer than the long combing wools; the former being made into which is called hard, and the latter into soft worsted yarn.

The fineness of the hair or fibre can rarely be estimated, at least for any useful purpose, except by the wool sorter or dealer, accustomed by long habit to discern those minute differences that are quite inappreciable by common observers. In sorting wools, there are frequently 8 or 10 different species in a single fleece; and if the best wool of one fleece be not equal to the finest sort, it is thrown to a 2d, 3d, or 4th, or to a still lower sort, of an equal degree of fineness with it. The best English short native fleeces, such as the fine Norfolk and Southdown, are generally divided by the wool sorter into the following sorts, all varying in fineness from each other:—viz. 1. Prime; 2. Choice; 3. Super; 4. Head; 5. Downrights; 6. Seconds; 7. Fine Abb; 8. Coarse Abb; 9. Livery; 10. Short coarse or breech wool. The relative value of each varies, according to the greater demand for coarse, fine, or middle cloths.

The softness of the fibre is a quality of great importance. It is not dependent on the fineness of the fibre; and consists of a peculiar feel, approaching to that of silk or down. The difference in the value of 2 pieces of cloth made of 2 kinds of wool equally fine, but one distinguished for its softness and the other for the opposite quality, is such, that, with the same process and expense of manufacture, the one will be worth from 20 to 25 per cent. more than the other. Mr. Bakewell showed that the degree of softness depends principally on the nature of the soil on which sheep are fed; that sheep pastured on chalk districts, or light calcareous soils, usually produce hard wool; while the wool of those that are pastured on rich, loamy, argillaceous soils, is always distinguished by its softness. Of the foreign wools, the Saxon is generally softer than the Spanish. Hard wools are all defective in their *felting* properties.

In clothing wool, the colour of the fleece should always approach as much as possible to the purest white; because such wool is not only necessary for cloths dressed white, but for all cloths that are to be dyed bright colours, for which a clear white ground is required to give a due degree of richness and lustre. Some of the English fine woolled sheep, as the Norfolk and Southdown, have black or gray faces and legs. In all such sheep there is a tendency to grow gray wool on some part of the body, or to produce some gray fibres intermixed with the fleece, which renders the wool unfit for many kinds of white goods; for though the black hairs may be too few and minute to be detected by the wool sorter, yet when the cloth is stoved they become visible, forming reddish spots, by which its colour is much injured. The Herefordshire sheep, which have white faces, are entirely free from this defect, and yield a fleece without any admixture of gray hairs.

The cleanness of the wool is an important consideration. The Spanish wool, for example, is always scoured after it is shorn; whereas the English wool is only imperfectly washed on the sheep previously to its being shorn. In consequence, it is said that while a pack of English clothing wool of 240 lbs. weight will waste about 70 lbs. in the manufacture, the same quantity of Spanish will not waste more than 48 lbs. [illegible]ness, therefore, is an object of much importance to the buyer.

Before the recent improvements in the spinning of [illegible] by machinery, great length and strength of staple was considered indispensable in most combing wools. The fleeces of the long woolled sheep fed in the rich marshes of Kent and Lincoln used to be reckoned peculiarly suitable for the purposes of the wool-comber: but the improvements alluded to have effected a very great change in this respect; and have enabled the manufacturer to substitute short wool of 3 inches staple, in the place of long combing wool, in the preparation of most worsted articles. A great alteration has, in consequence, taken place in the proportion of long to short wool since 1800; there having been in the interim, according to Mr. Hubbard's calculations—(see *post*)—an increase of 132,053 packs in the quantity of the former produced in England, and a decrease of 72,820 in the quantity of the latter.

Whiteness of fleece is of less importance in the long combing than in clothing wool, provided it be free from gray hairs. Sometimes, however, the fleece has a dingy brown colour, called a *winter stain*, which is a sure indication that the wool is not in a thoroughly sound state. Such fleeces are carefully thrown out by the wool sorter; being suitable only for goods that are to be dyed black. The fineness of heavy combing wool is not of so much consequence as its other qualities.

The Merino or Spanish breed of sheep was introduced into this country about the close

of last century. George III. was a great patron of this breed, which was for several years a very great favourite. But it has been ascertained that, though the fleece does not much degenerate here, the carcase, which is naturally ill formed, and affords comparatively little weight of meat, does not improve; and as the farmer, in the kind of sheep which he keeps, must look not only to the produce of wool, but also to the butcher market, he has found it his interest rather to return to the native breeds of his own country, and to give up the Spanish sheep. They have, however, been of considerable service to the flocks of England; having been judiciously crossed with the Southdown, Ryeland, &c.

Deterioration of British Wool.—It appears to be sufficiently established, by the evidence taken before the House of Lords in 1828, and other authorities, that a considerable deterioration has taken place in the quality of British wool, particularly during the last 30 years. The great object of the agriculturist has been to increase the weight of the carcase and the quality of the wool; and it seems very difficult, if not quite impossible, to accomplish this without injuring the fineness of the fleece. Mr. Cully says, that the Herefordshire sheep that produce the finest wool are kept lean, and yield 1½ lb. each; he adds, "if they be better kept, they grow large and produce more wool, but of an inferior quality." This would seem to be universally true. The great extension of the turnip husbandry, and the general introduction of a larger breed of sheep, appears, in every instance, to have lessened the value of the fleece. Speaking of the Norfolk fleeces, Mr. Fison, a wool sorter, says, that 25 years ago the weight was 2½ lbs. a fleece, and that now it is 3 lbs. or 3½ lbs.—(*Report*, p. 356.) But according to a Table furnished by the same gentleman, containing the results of his experience, it appears that of 15 tods, or 420 lbs. of clothing wool grown in Norfolk, in 1790, 200 lbs. were *prime*, while, in 1828, the same quantity of Norfolk wool only yielded 14 lbs. prime!—(*Ibid.* p. 207.) The statements of other witnesses are to the same effect.—(*Ibid.* pp. 388. 640. and 644.) According to the estimate in Mr. Luccock's *Treatise on English Wool*, which has always enjoyed the highest reputation, the produce of all sorts of wool in England, in 1800, was 384,000 packs, of 240 lbs. a pack. But Mr. Hubbard, a very intelligent and extensive wool-stapler at Leeds, has shown, that, supposing Mr. Luccock's estimate of the number of sheep to be correct, the quantity of wool now produced cannot, owing to the greater weight of the fleece, be estimated at less than 463,169 packs; being an increase of 20 per cent.! It is, therefore, probable, notwithstanding the decline in the price of wool, that, taking into account the greater weight of the carcase, and the greater weight of the fleece, sheep produce more at present to the farmer than at any former period.

Number of Sheep in Great Britain.—It is not possible to form any accurate estimate, either of the number of sheep, or of the quantity of wool annually produced. With the exception of Mr. Luccock's, most of the statements put forth with respect to both these points seem much exaggerated. But Mr. L.'s estimate, which is considerably under any that had previously appeared, was drawn up with great care; and is supposed to approach near to accuracy. According to Mr. Luccock, the

Number of long woolled sheep in England and Wales in 1800, was	4,153,308	
of short woolled ditto	14,854,299	
Total number shorn		19,007,607
Slaughter of short woolled sheep per annum	4,221,748	
Carrion of ditto	211,087	
Slaughter of long woolled ditto	1,180,413	
Carrion of ditto	59,020	
Slaughter of lambs	1,400,560	
Carrion of ditto	70,028	
		7,140,856
Total number of sheep and lambs		26,148,463

In some parts of England there has been an increase in the number of sheep since 1800, and in others they have decreased. But we have been assured by competent judges, that, on the whole, the number has not materially varied in the interim.

During the last half century a very decided increase has taken place in the number of sheep in Scotland, and a very great improvement in the breed, particularly in the Highlands. In this district, many of the proprietors have let their estates in large farms to *store farmers*, who have introduced the Cheviot breed of sheep, in the place of the small black-faced heath breed that was formerly the only one to be met with. We may remark, by the way, that a good deal of unmerited odium has attached to the patrons of this system; for, though it be true that, in a few instances, the peasantry were rudely ejected from their little possessions, there can be no doubt that it has, on the whole, been decidedly advantageous. Besides rendering large tracts of country more valuable to the proprietors and the public generally, the condition and habits of the peasantry have been materially improved. Instead of loitering away more than half their time, as was their former practice, they have now either become the servants of the large farmers, or have resorted to towns and villages, and been metamorphosed into industrious tradesmen, fishermen, &c. A very small proportion of the whole has emigrated; and the country is more populous at present than before the sheep farming system began.

In the *General Report of Scotland* (vol. iii. Appen. p. 6.), the number of sheep is estimated at 2,850,000; and allowing for the increase that has taken place since 1814, we may, perhaps, estimate the total number of sheep in that part of the empire at this moment at 3,500,000.

According to Mr. Wakefield, there is not a single flock of breeding sheep in the whole province of Ulster.—(*Account of Ireland*, vol. i. p. 341.) And though there be considerable flocks in Roscommon and other counties, we believe that, if we estimate the whole number of sheep in Ireland at 2,000,000, we shall be a good deal beyond the mark.

On the whole, therefore, if we are right in these estimates, the total number of sheep in Great Britain and Ireland may be taken at about 32,000,000. This estimate is 10,000,000 under that given by Dr. Colquhoun for 1812; but that learned person assigns no grounds whatever for his estimate, which is utterly inconsistent with all the really authentic information on the subject. It is curious enough to observe the German statistical writers referring to Dr. Colquhoun's statements, as if they were of standard authority. They would be about as near the mark, were they to quote the "Arabian Nights" in proof of any disputed historical fact.

British Trade in Wool.—From 1660 down to 1825, the export of wool was strictly prohibited. A notion grew up towards the end of the 17th, and continued to gain ground during the first half of last century, that the wool of England was superior to that of every other country; that long wool could not be produced anywhere else; and that, if we succeeded in keeping the raw material at home, we should infallibly command the market of the world for our woollen manufactures. In consequence, innumerable statutes were passed,—the enactments in some of which were the most arbitrary and severe that can be imagined,—to prevent the clandestine exportation of wool. Mr. John Smith was one of the first who, in his excellent work, entitled *Memoirs of Wool*,* exposed the injustice and absurdity of this system, by proving that whatever advantages the manufacturers might gain by preventing the exportation of wool, were more than lost by the agriculturists. But in despite of Mr. Smith's reasonings, which were enforced by many later writers, and which experience had proved to be in all respects accurate, the prohibition of the exportation of wool was continued till 1825, when Mr. Huskisson happily succeeded in procuring the abolition of this miserable remnant of a barbarous policy. The improvement of machinery, by enabling short or clothing wool to be applied to most of those purposes for which long or combing wool had been exclusively appropriated, had annihilated the only apparently tenable argument on which the prohibition of exportation had ever been vindicated; and even this, it will be observed, applied only to a small proportion of the whole wool produced in England.

Down to 1802, the importation of foreign wool into Great Britain had been quite free; and, being the raw material of an important manufacture, the policy of allowing it to be imported free of duty is obvious. In 1802, however, a duty of 5*s.* 3*d.* a cwt. was laid on all foreign wool imported. In 1813, this duty was raised to 6*s.* 8*d.*; and in 1819, Mr. Vansittart raised it to the enormous amount of 56*s.* a cwt., or to 6*d.* per lb.! Had English wool sufficed for all the purposes of the manufacture, such a duty would have been less objectionable; but the very reverse was the case. The use of foreign wool had become, owing to the deterioration of British wool, and other circumstances, quite indispensable to the prosecution of the manufacture: and as our superiority over the foreigner in several departments of the trade was by no means decided, it is plain that the imposition of a duty which amounted to about 50 per cent. upon the price of a considerable quantity of the wool we were obliged to import, must, had it been persevered in, have ruined the manufacture. It occasioned, indeed, during the period of its continuance, a considerable decline of the exports of woollens, and was productive of other mischievous effects, from which the manufacture suffered for a considerable period after it was repealed.

The evidence as to the absolute necessity of employing foreign wool, taken before the Lords' committee, was as decisive as can well be imagined. Mr. Gott, of Leeds, one of the most extensive and best informed manufacturers of the empire, informed the committee, that, in his own works, he used only foreign wool. On being asked whether he could carry on an export trade to the same extent as at present, if he manufactured his cloth of British wool, Mr. G. replied, that, in certain descriptions of cloth, "*he could not make an article that would be merchantable at all for the foreign market, or even for the home market, except of foreign wool.*" We subjoin a few additional extracts from the evidence of this most competent witness.

"Can you give the committee any information with respect to the competition that now exists between foreigners and this country in woollen cloths?"—"I think the competition is very strong. In some instances, the foreigner has, probably, the advantage; and in others, the superiority of the British manufacture, I think, has greatly the advantage; and that would apply, I should say, particularly to the fine cloths of Great Britain compared with

* This learned and accurate work contains a great deal of information with respect to the progress of manufactures and commerce in England.

foreign cloths: in some descriptions of low cloths, the foreigners are nearly on a footing, and in some instances, perhaps, superior to us."

"Speaking of the finer cloths, is the competition such as to render an additional duty on the importation of foreign wool, likely to injure the export trade?"—"*I have no doubt, speaking on my oath, that it would be fatal to the foreign cloth trade of the country.* I would say further, that it would be equally injurious to coarse manufactures of all kinds made of English wool. The competition now with foreigners is as nearly balanced as possible; and the disturbing operation of attacks of that description would necessarily enable the foreigner to buy his wool cheaper than we should do it in this country; the result would be, that foreigners would, by such a premium, be enabled to extend their manufactures, to the exclusion of British manufactures of all descriptions."

In another part of his evidence, Mr. Gott says,—"If 2 pieces of cloth at 10*s.* a yard were put before a customer, one made of British wool, the other of foreign wool, one would be sold, and the other would remain on hand: I could not execute an order with it. If any person sent to me for cloth of 7*s.* or 8*s.* a yard, and it were made of English wool, it would be sent back to me, and I should resort to foreign wool or foreign mixed with British, to execute that order."

On Mr. Gott being asked whether, in his opinion, the price of British wool would have been higher, had the duty of 6*d.* per lb. on foreign wool been continued, he answered,—"My opinion is, that the price of British wool would have been less at this time; the demand for British wool would have been very much less. *British manufactures would have been shut out of every foreign market;* and the stock of wool would have accumulated, as it will do if ever that duty be imposed again."—(*Mr. Gott's Evidence*, pp. 292, 293.)

The view taken by Mr. Gott of the effect of the importation of foreign wool on the price of British wool was supported by the concurrent testimony of all the manufacturing witnesses examined by the committee. Blankets, flannels of all sorts, baizes, carpets, bearskins, &c. are made principally of English wool; and the command of foreign wool enables the manufacturers to use a considerable quantity of English wool in the manufacture of certain descriptions of cloth, which, if made entirely of it, would be quite unsaleable. On Mr. Goodman, a wool-stapler of Leeds, being asked whether, if a duty were laid on foreign wool, it would force the use of English wool in the manufacture of cloths, from which it is now excluded, he answered,—"Certainly not: we could not get people to wear such a cloth they want a better, finer cloth; it is so much handsomer in its wear, and so much more durable."—(*Report*, p. 241.) Mr. Francis, of Heytesbury, declared that there was no demand for cloth made wholly of British wool; that it was principally applicable to the manufacture of blankets, baizes, &c.; and that the exclusion of foreign wool would only injure the manufacture, without raising the price of British wool.—(p. 268.) Statements to the same effect were made by Mr. Webb (p. 270.), Mr. Sheppard (p. 294.), Mr. Ireland (p. 319.), and, in short, by every one of the witnesses conversant with the manufacture.

The history of the manufacture since 1828 has completely confirmed the accuracy of the statements made by Mr. Gott and the other witnesses. Its progress from that period down to the present time has been one of uninterrupted prosperity; and so far from having been injured by the immense importations that have been made of foreign wool, the price of British wool is higher at this moment (March, 1834,) than at any former period! We believe, indeed, that it has now attained an unnatural elevation; and that its extreme high price, by making a corresponding addition to the price of cloth, will react on the manufacture, and will, consequently, by occasioning its depression, lower wool to a more moderate level.

Foreign Wool imported into England.—A very great change has taken place, within the course of the present century, both as respects the quantity of foreign wool imported, and the countries whence it is derived. Previously to 1800, our average imports of wool did not much exceed 3,000,000 lbs., mostly brought from Spain; the wool of which has long maintained a high character. In 1800, our imports amounted to near 9,000,000 lbs.; and they have since gone on gradually increasing, till they now amount to between 25,000,000 and 40,000,000 lbs. Instead, however, of being principally derived from Spain, as was the case down to 1814, the greater part of this immense supply of foreign wool is now furnished by Germany. The late king of Saxony, when elector, introduced the breed of Merino sheep into his dominions, and exerted himself to promote the growth of this valuable race of animals. His praiseworthy efforts have been crowned with the most signal success. The Merino sheep seem to succeed better in Saxony and other German states than in Spain; and have increased so rapidly, that the Spanish wool trade has become insignificant compared with that of Germany! The importations of German wool were quite trifling during the war—amounting, in 1812, to only 28 lbs.; but since the peace they have increased beyond all precedent. In 1814, they amounted to 3,432,456 lbs.; in 1820, they were 5,113,442 lbs.; in 1825, they reached the enormous amount of 28,799,661 lbs.; but this being a year of overtrading, they declined, in 1826, to 10,545,232 lbs. They have since, however, recovered from this depression; and, in 1833, amounted to 25,370,106 lbs.—(There is a very good account of the German wool trade in the *Foreign Quarterly Review*, No xi. art. 8.)

I. Number of Sheep and Quantity of Sheep's Wool produced in England, according to Mr. Luccock's Tables, revised by Mr. Hubbard, and made applicable to 1836.

County.	1800. Number of Short Wool Sheep.	Weight of Fleece.	Number of Packs.	Number of Long Wool Sheep.	Number of Packs.	1836. Weight of Fleece.	Number of Packs of Short Wool.	Number of Packs of Long Wool.
Northumberland	538,162	5½	13,323	- -	- -	5½	6,167	6,166
Durham	159,365	5	3,280	- -	- -	5½	- -	3,818
Ditto	- -	9	- -	67,200	2,350	8½	- -	2,350
Cumberland	278,409	3½	5,915	- -	- -	5	7,883	
Westmoreland	223,725	3½	3,922	- -	- -	5	4,660	
York, West Riding	383,122	var.	6,078	- -	- -	5½	4,390	4,389
East ditto	306,240	5	6,380	- -	- -	6	- -	7,656
North ditto	365,206	var.	5,939	- -	- -	5	5,706	1,902
Holderness	- -	5	- -	84,000	2,800	5	- -	2,800
Other part of Yorkshire	- -	5	- -	14,310	477	5	- -	477
Lancaster	310,000	3½	4,522	- -	- -	4½	5,812	
Chester	65,000	var.	926	- -	- -	4½	1,218	
Derby	362,400	3	4,530	- -	- -	6½	- -	9,060
Nottingham	255,147	var.	4,112	- -	- -	6	- -	6,910
Lincoln	122,648	5½	2,833	- -	- -	6	- -	3,691
Ditto, rich land	- -	9	- -	1,941,625	46,561	9	- -	46,561
Ditto, marshes	- -	5	- -	87,500	2,916	9	- -	3,281
Ditto, miscellaneous land	- -	5	- -	505,657	16,855	6	- -	12,641
Rutland	- -	5	- -	114,000	2,370	6	- -	2,850
Northampton	- -	6	- -	640,000	16,000	6	- -	16,000
Warwick	182,998	3	2,287	- -	- -	6	- -	6,574
Ditto	- -	5	- -	160,000	3,333			
Leicester	80,000	3½	291	- -	- -	6	- -	10,013
Ditto	- -	7	- -	380,586	11,100			
Oxford	364,564	var.	5,203	- -	- -	5	- -	6,345
Bucks	222,956	3	2,787	- -	- -	5	- -	4,645
Gloucester	355,000	var.	5,400	- -	- -	6	- -	8,875
Ditto	- -	6	- -	320,000	6,666	8	- -	6,666
Somerset	500,700	4½	9,366	- -	- -	5	5,215	5,216
Worcester	320,504	3½	4,620	- -	- -	4½	- -	6,541
Monmouth	177,619	var.	1,431	- -	- -	4	- -	2,960
Hereford	500,000	2	4,200	- -	- -	4	2,778	5,555
Shropshire	422,034	2½	4,227	- -	- -	4	2,244	4,960
Stafford	183,120	3	1,526	- -	- -	4½	- -	2,503
Ditto	- -	7	- -	3,730	113			
Bedford	204,000	5	4,250	- -	- -	5	- -	4,250
Berks	308,600	3½	4,151	- -	- -	3½	4,471	
Huntingdon	108,000	4½	2,000	- -	- -	5½	- -	4,480
Ditto	- -	7	- -	87,500	2,552			
Cambridge	67,744	4	1,126	- -	- -	4½	1,270	
Ditto	- -	6	- -	41,666	1,200	6	- -	1,200
Suffolk	497,000	2½	5,176	- -	- -	4½	8,801	
Norfolk	669,704	2	5,997	- -	- -	4½	4,373	8,546
Ditto	- -	7	- -	36,500	1,123	7½	- -	1,903
Essex	519,000	3	6,486	- -	- -	4	8,650	
Hertford	277,000	4½	5,397	- -	- -	5	2,985	2,985
Middlesex	45,000	4	750	- -	- -	5	937	
Kent	524,475	3½	7,000	- -	- -	4½	- -	10,390
Do., Romney market	- -	7	- -	185,000	5,400	6½	- -	5,010
Ditto, the marsh	- -	7	- -	103,230	3,160	6½	- -	2,934
Surrey	263,000	3	3,540	- -	- -	3½	4,127	
Sussex, downs	216,800	2	2,540	- -	- -	3	2,960	
Ditto lowlands	547,000	3	6,837	- -	- -	3	6,837	
Hampshire	516,600	3	6,457	- -	- -	3	6,457	
Isle of Wight	61,000	3½	800	- -	- -	4	1,016	
Wilts, downs	583,500	2½	6,084	- -	- -	2½	6,085	
Ditto, pasture	617,500	3	1,460	- -	- -	4	1,958	
Dorset	632,245	3½	9,880	- -	- -	3½	9,878	
Devon	426,850	4	7,280	- -	- -	5	2,275	6,826
Ditto	- -	6	- -	193,750	6,458	6	- -	6,458
Cornwall	203,000	4	2,282	- -	- -	7	- -	5,920
Total	14,854,299		193,475	4,153,308	131,794		120,655	263,847

1800—Short fleeces		193,475	
Long fleeces		131,794	
		325,269	
Short and long, skin and lamb's wool		48,705	
		373,974	
Part of Wales not included in the above Tables		9,262	
Increase from 1800 to 1836		69,933	
		453,169	
1800—Packs of short wool		193,475	
1836—Ditto ditto		120,655	
Decrease		72,820	

1836—Short fleeces		120,655	
Long fleeces		263,847	
		384,502	
Short and long, skin and lamb's wool		69,405	
		453,907	
Wales, taken as before		9,262	
		463,169	
1800—Packs of long wool		131,794	
1836—Ditto ditto		263,847	
Increase		132,053	

1800—Total quantity of short wool - 199,475
Ditto ditto of long wool - 131,794
331,269

1828—Total quantity of short wool - 120,655
Ditto ditto of long wool - 263,847
384,502

Increase of wool - - - - 53,233 fleeces.
Increase of skin and lambs' wool - 10,700
Total increase - - 63,933

N. B.—The wool from slaughtered sheep and carrion not mentioned in this Table; but allowed for above.

II. Account of Sheep and Lambs' Wool imported into Great Britain from Foreign Parts in the undermentioned Years; specifying the Countries whence it was brought, and the Quantity brought from each, with the Rates of Duty and the Produce of the Duty.

Countries from which imported.	1810.	1820.	1825.	1830.	1832.	1836.	Rates of Duty chargeable.	
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*		
Russia, Sweden, and Norway	86,108	73,614	1,095,800	998,231	685,690	1,405,092	Until 5 July 1803	Free.
Denmark	351,741	13,847	564,218	170,717	302,548	372,460	From 5 July 1803, to June 1804	5*s.* 3*d.* per cwt.
Prussia	123,057	107,101	131,100	713,248	552,022	375,579	— 1 June 1804, to 5 April 1825	5*s.* 10*d.* —
Germany	778,435	5,113,442	23,729,251	20,073,992	19,662,835	23,970,108	— 5 April 1825, to 10 May 1826	5*s.* 11*d.* 9-40ths.
The Netherlands	2,975	195,051	1,059,248	938,129	209,144	511,081	— 10 May 1826, to 5 July 1826	6*s.* 4*d.* 2-20ths.
France		250,900	634,678	48,068	1,976	250,944	— 5 July 1826, to 15 April 1819	6*s.* 8*d.* per cwt.
Portugal	3,018,961	95,187	918,798	461,942	198,544	681,366	— 15 April 1819, to 5 July 1819	7*s.* 11*d.* —
Spain & Canaries	3,252,407	3,539,229	3,206,487	1,613,515	2,626,634	3,299,150	— 5 July 1819, to Oct. 1819	1*d.* per lb.
Gibraltar	348,033	2,831	19,280					
Italy	31,554	2,515	127,459	2,661	72,662	254,510		Of Foreign Countries.
Malta	40,040	3,950	72,181		864	4,366		
Ionian Islands			25,983					
Turkey		188,664	513,414		17,982	281,691		
Morocco					14,465	105,980		
Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	41,407	13,715	22,296	7,745	15,516	30,274	Of British Possessions.	
East Indies	701	5,086						
New Holland & Van D.'s Land	167	98,415	321,995	1,967,999	2,277,627	5,516,999		
Cape of G. Hope	29,717	13,969	27,619	23,407	25,257	29,336		
British North American colonies, West Indies, and United States of America	4,111	1,477	20,139	9,056	238,916	236,649		
Mexico					2,139			
Peru					23,191	14,640		
Chili		14,798	2					
Rio de la Plata and Brazil					20,250	207,143		
Prize	116,772	78,026	291,309	20,169	13,424	2,049		
Total import from foreign parts	10,914,197	9,799,620	43,795,211	28,313,026	28,142,429	38,676,419		
Quantities retained for home consumption		7,691,778	41,101,626	31,522,260	27,666,230	28,066,620		
Amount of duty received	£2,580 4 3	£184,260 19 6	£63,709 16 7	£20,620 6 6	£18,251 2 3	£27,555 1 6		

III. Account of the Quantities of British Wool and Woollen Yarn, exported from the United Kingdom in 1833; specifying the Countries to which they were sent.

Countries to which exported.	Wool.	Woollen and Worsted Yarn (including Wool or Worsted Yarn mixed.)	Countries to which exported.	Wool.	Woollen and Worsted Yarn (including) Wool or Worsted Yarn mixed.)
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*		*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*
Russia		98,796	Other parts of Africa		199
Denmark		7	British colonies in N. America	864	11,309
Prussia		2,763	British West Indies		194
Germany	2,422	1,085,240	Foreign West Indies		112
Holland	173,179	490,482	United States of America	105,814	235,963
Belgium	5,373,496	119,040	Mexico		2,556
France	1,434,306	3,282	Colombia		47
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	144	2,496	Peru		1,232
Spain and the Canaries		551	Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney and Man	6,768	23,616
Italy		80,642			
East Indies and China		760	Total	4,992,110	2,107,473
Cape of Good Hope		1,120			

IV. Price of Southdown Wool per lb. from 1784 to 1833, both inclusive.

Years.	Price of Wool.	Years.	Price of Wool.	Years.	Price of Wool.	Years.	Price of Wool.	Years.	Price of Wool.
	s. d.		*s. d.*		*s. d.*		*s. d.*		*s. d.*
1784	0 8½	1794	1 1	1804	1 10	1814	2 2	1824	1 2
1785	0 9	1795	1 3	1805	2 3	1815	1 11	1825	1 4
1786	0 9	1796	1 4	1806	1 10	1816	1 6	1826	0 10
1787	0 11	1797	1 3	1807	2 0	1817	2 7	1827	0 9
1788	1 0	1798	1 9	1808	1 9	1818	2 6	1828	0 8
1789	1 0	1799	1 9	1809	2 0	1819	1 7	1829	0 6
1790	1 0½	1800	1 5	1810	2 4	1820	1 5	1830	0 10
1791	0 11½	1801	1 7	1811	1 5	1821	1 3	1831	1 1
1792	1 4	1802	1 7	1812	1 8	1822	1 3	1832	1 0
1793	0 11½	1803	1 9	1813	1 11	1823	1 2½	1833	1 5

Prices of Wool in the London market, December, 1838.

		£ s. d.	£ s. d.
Spanish	per lb.		
Leonesa		0 2 0	to 0 2 6
Segovia		0 2 0	— 0 2 6
Soria		0 2 0	— 0 2 6
Caceres		0 2 6	— 0 3 0
Seville		0 2 6	— 0 3 0
Portugal		0 2 6	— 0 3 0
lamb's wool		0 1 7	— 0 2 6
German			
Saxon and Silesian — 1st and 2d sheet.		0 4 6	— 0 5 6
prima		0 3 0	— 0 3 9
secunda		0 2 6	— 0 2 10
tertia		0 2 6	— 0 2 6
Austrian, Bohemian, and Hungarian — electorial		0 2 6	— 0 3 6
prima		0 2 6	— 0 3 6
secunda		0 2 0	— 0 2 6
tertia		0 2 6	— 0 3 0
lamb's		0 2 6	— 0 3 0
pieces		0 2 0	— 0 2 6
tribe		0 1 6	— 0 1 8
Australian best flocks, superior fleeces		0 2 6	— 0 3 3
seconds		0 2 3	to 0 2 7
inferior locks		0 1 6	— 0 2 3
Van Diemen's Land			
inferior		0 1 0	— 0 1 4
middling		0 1 6	— 0 2 3
combing		0 2 3	— 0 2 6
Cape		0 1 6	— 0 2 6
British fleeces			
North and South Down hoggets		0 1 7	— 0 1 11
half-bred ditto		0 1 8	— 0 1 10½
ditto ewes clothing		0 1 6	— 0 1 7
Kent fleeces		0 1 8	— 0 1 10
combing skins		0 1 5	— 0 1 8
ditto flannel wool		0 1 4	— 0 1 8
ditto blanket ditto		0 1 1	— 0 1 4
Leicester fleeces		0 1 4	— 0 1 7
In Yo & Devons		0 1 1	— 0 0 0
ditto Down		0 1 0	— 0 0 0
ditto Merino		0 1 2	— 0 1 6
grain wool, Turkey		0 1 11	— 0 2 1
yarn, mohair		0 2 1	— 0 2 4

The breed of sheep that was carried out to New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land has succeeded remarkably well; and Australia promises, at no distant day, to be one of the principal wool-growing countries of the world. The imports into Great Britain have been rapidly increasing. In 1833, they amounted to 3,516,869 lbs., while the imports from Spain only amounted to 3,339,150 lbs. The Spanish flocks suffered severely during the campaigns in Spain; and the best Spanish wool does not now bring more than ⅓ the price of the best German wool.

[The value of the wool imported into the United States, in the year ending September 30th, 1839, not exceeding 8 cents per pound, amounted to $527,620, and, exceeding that rate, to $171,918, both together not much exceeding the value of the wool produced in Massachusetts alone. This amounted, in 1837, to $539,689.—*Am. Ed.*]

WOOLLEN MANUFACTURE, the art of forming wool into cloth and stuffs. This has always ranked as an important branch of national industry; and, until it was recently surpassed by the cotton manufacture, was decidedly the most important of all the manufactures carried on in England.

Rise and Progress of the British Woollen Manufacture. Exports.—There can be no doubt that the arts of spinning wool, and manufacturing the yarn into cloth, were introduced into England by the Romans,—the inhabitants being previously clothed only in skins. From the period of the Romans quitting England, down to the 10th century, there are no notices of the manufacture; and those relating to the period from the 10th to the 13th century are but few and imperfect. It is certain, however, that the manufacture of broad cloths was established soon after the year 1200, if not previously.—(*Smith's Memoirs of Wool*, vol. i. p. 17.) But the woollen manufactures of Flanders being at this period, and long afterwards, in a comparatively advanced state, English wool was exported in large quantities to Bruges and other Flemish cities, whence fine cloths and other products were brought back in exchange. Edward III. took the most judicious measures for improving the English manufacture, by inviting over Flemish weavers, fullers, dyers, and others, and protecting them from the assaults of the rabble. Shortly after the first emigration of Flemings, or in 1337, an act was passed, prohibiting the wear of any cloths made beyond sea, and interdicting the export of English wool.—(*Ibid.* vol. i. p. 25.) But in these turbulent times such restraining acts were little better than a dead letter; and this, indeed, was soon after repealed.—(*Ibid.* vol. i. pp. 32. 39.) From this remote period the manufacture has always been regarded as of primary importance, and has been the object of the especial solicitude of the legislature. It may be doubted, however, whether it has derived any real advantage from the numberless statutes that have been passed in the view of contributing to its advancement. With the exception, indeed, of the prohibition of the export of English wool, which was finally put a stop to in 1660, the other acts, being mostly intended for the regulation of the manufacture, could not be otherwise than mischievous; and the benefit derived by the manufacturers from the prohibition was more apparent than real; inasmuch as it occasioned a diminished growth of wool, at the same time that it was impossible to prevent its clandestine exportation. Mr. Smith has proved that the manufacture made a far more rapid progress during the reign of Elizabeth, when wool might be freely carried out of the kingdom, than it ever did during any equal period subsequent to the restriction on exportation. Foreign wool began to be imported in small quantities in the 13th century.

At first, the manufacture seems to have been pretty equally distributed over the country. In an insurrection that took place in 1525, more than 4,000 weavers and other tradesmen are said to have assembled out of Lanehan, Sudbury, and other towns in Suffolk. The manufacture had been previously introduced into Yorkshire. In 1533, an act was passed (34 & 35 Hen. 8. c. 10.), reciting, "that the city of York afore this time had been upholden principally by making and weaving of coverlets, and the poor thereof daily set on work in spinning, carding, dyeing, weaving, &c.;" that the manufacture, having spread into other parts, was "thereby debased and discredited;" and enacting, as a remedy for this evil, that henceforth "none shall make coverlets in Yorkshire, but inhabitants of the city of York!"

This may be taken as a fair specimen of the commercial legislation of the time. Indeed, it was enacted, nearly at the same period, that the manufacture should be restricted, in Worcestershire, to Worcester and 4 other towns. Worsted goods, so called from Worsted, now an inconsiderable town in Norfolk, where the manufacture was first set on foot, were produced in the reign of Edward II., or perhaps earlier; but Norwich soon after became, and, notwithstanding the competition of Bradford, probably is still, the principal seat of this branch of the manufacture. In an act of Henry VIII. (33 Hen. 8. c. 16.), worsted yarn is described as "the private commodity of the city of Norwich." In 1614, a great improvement took place in the woollen manufacture of the west of England, by the invention of what is called medley or mixed cloth, for which Gloucestershire is still famous. During the reign of Charles II., there were many, though unfounded, complaints of the decay of the manufacture; and, by way of encouraging it, an act was passed (30 Car. 2. st. i. c. 3.), ordering that all persons should be buried in woollen shrouds! This act, the provisions of which were subsequently enforced, preserved its place on the statute book for more than 130 years!

Towards the end of the 17th century, Mr. Gregory King and Dr. Davenant—(*Davenant's Works*, Whitworth's ed. vol. ii. p. 233)—estimated the value of the wool shorn in England at 2,000,000*l.* a year; and they supposed that the value of the wool (including that imported from abroad) was quadrupled in the manufacture; making the entire value of the woollen articles annually produced in England and Wales, 8,000,000*l.*, of which about 2,000,000*l.* were exported. In 1700 and 1701, the official value of the woollens exported amounted to about 3,000,000*l.* a year. Owing to the vast increase of wealth and population, the manufacture must have been very greatly extended during last century; but the increase in the amount of exports was comparatively inconsiderable. At an average of the 6 years ending with 1789, the official value of the exports was 3,544,160*l.* a year, being only about 540,000*l.* above the amount exported in 1700. The extraordinary increase of the cotton manufacture soon after 1780, and the extent to which cotton articles then began to be substituted for those of wool, though it did not occasion any absolute decline of the manufacture, no doubt contributed powerfully to check its progress. In 1802, the official value of the exports rose to 7,321,012*l.*, being the largest amount they ever reached till 1833, when they amounted to 7,777,952*l.* During the last few years, indeed, every branch of the manufacture has been in a state of unexampled improvement and extension. It was supposed that the high price of wool would give it a temporary check; but such has not hitherto been the case. During the 6 years ending with 1835, the official and real values of the woollen manufactures exported from the United Kingdom have been as under:—

	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
Official value of woollen manufactures exported - - - - -	5,558,709	6,097,556	6,544,576	7,777,952	6,514,704	7,406,909
Declared or real value of ditto -	4,850,884	5,227,701	5,239,992	6,289,649	5,736,870	6,840,511

Value of the Manufacture. Number of Persons employed.—The most discordant estimates have been given as to both these points. For the most part, however, they have been grossly exaggerated. In a tract published in 1739, entitled *Considerations on the Running* (Smuggling) *of Wool*, the number of persons engaged in the manufacture is stated at 1,500,000, and their wages at 11,737,500*l.* a year. Dr. Campbell, in his *Political Survey of Great Britain*, published in 1774, observes,—"Many computations have been made upon this important subject, and, amongst others, one about 30 years since, which, at that time, was thought to be pretty near the truth. According to the best information that can be obtained, there may be from 10,000,000 to 12,000,000 sheep in England, some think more. The value of their wool may, one year with another, amount to 3,000,000*l.*; the expense of manufacturing this may probably be 9,000,000*l.*, and the total value 12,000,000*l.* We may export annually to the value of 3,000,000*l.*, though one year we exported more than 4,000,000*l.* In reference to the number of persons who are maintained by this manufacture, they are probably upwards of 1,000,000. Sanguine men will judge these computations too low, and few will believe them too high."—(Vol. ii. p. 158.) But the moderation displayed in this estimate was very soon lost sight of. In 1800, the woollen manufacturers objected strenuously to some of the provisions in the treaty of union between Great Britain and Ireland, and were allowed to urge their objections at the bar of the House of Lords, and to produce evidence in their support. Mr. Law (afterwards Lord Ellenborough), the counsel employed by the manufacturers on this occasion, stated, in his address to their Lordships, on information communicated to him by his clients, that 600,000 packs of wool were annually produced in England and Wales, worth, at 11*l.* a pack, 6,600,000*l.*; that the value of the manufactured goods was 3 times as great, or 19,800,000*l.*; that not less than 1,500,000 persons were immediately engaged in the operative branches of the manufacture; and that the trade collaterally employed about the same number of hands.—(*Account of the Proceedings of the Merchants, Manufacturers, &c.* p. 34.)

It is astonishing that reasonable men, conversant with the manufacture, should have put forth such ludicrously absurd statements. We have already seen that the quantity of woo

produced in England and Wales, in 1800, did not really amount to 400,000 packs; and the notion that *three* out of the *nine* millions of people then in the country were directly and indirectly employed in the manufacture, is too ridiculous to deserve notice, though it was generally acquiesced in at the time.—(See *Middleton's Survey of Middlesex*, 2d ed. p. 644.; *Adolphus's Political State of the British Empire*, vol. iii. p. 236.)

Mr. Stevenson, who is one of the very few writers on British statistics to whose statements much deference is due, has given the following estimate of the value of the woollen manufactured goods annually produced in England and Wales, and of the interest, &c. of the capital, and the number of persons employed in the manufacture:—

Total value of manufactured articles		£ 18,000,000
Value of raw material	£ 6,000,000	
Interest on capital, sum to replace its wear and tear, and manufacturers' profits	2,400,000	
Wages of workmen	9,600,000	
		£ 18,000,000

Number of people employed, 480,000, or perhaps 500,000.

But even this estimate requires to be materially modified. Taking Scotland into account, and allowing for the increase of population and of exportation since Mr. Stevenson's estimate was made, the total value of the various descriptions of woollens annually produced in Great Britain may, at present, be moderately estimated at from 20,000,000*l.* to 22,000,000*l.*, or 21,000,000*l.* at a medium. We have further been assured by the highest practical authorities, that Mr. Stevenson's distribution of the items is essentially erroneous; and that, assuming the value of the manufacture to be 21,000,000*l.*, it is made up nearly as follows:—

Total value of manufactured articles		£ 21,000,000
Value of raw material	£ 7,000,000	
Oil, soap, dye stuffs, &c.	1,450,000	
Wear and tear of capital, and profit	4,250,000	
Wages	8,300,000	
		£ 21,000,000

At present, the average wages of the people employed may be taken at about 25*l.* a year, making the total number employed 332,000. And, however small this may look as compared with former estimates, we believe it is fully up to the mark, if not rather beyond it.

Most of the innumerable statutes formerly passed for the regulation of the different processes of the manufacture have been repealed within these few years; and the sooner every vestige of the remainder disappears from the statute book, the better.

I. Account of the Quantities of each Description of Woollen Manufactures exported from the United Kingdom in 1835; specifying the Quantities and Total Value of those sent to each Country.

Countries to which exported.	Cloths of all Sorts.	Napped Coatings, Duffels, &c.	Kerseymeres.	Baizes of all Sorts.	Stuffs, Woollen or Worsted.	Flannel.	Blankets and Blanketings.	Carpets and Carpeting.	Woollens mixed with Cotton.	Hosiery; viz. Stockings, Woollen or Worsted.	Sundries, consisting of Hosiery Caps, Coverlids, Tapes, &c.	Declared Value.
	Pieces.	*Pieces.*	*Pieces.*	*Pieces.*	*Pieces.*	*Yards.*	*Yards.*	*Yards.*	*Yards.*	*Doz. Pair*	*L. s.*	*L. s.*
Russia	5,727	5	407	50	26,510	4,800	7,760	12,619	6,340	96 0	159 5	93,025 10
Sweden	23	53	47	- -	2,091	600	2,200	4,262	- -	60 0	144 1	14,089 15
Norway	919	21	111	54	5,366	2,427	2,991	526	1,619	1,091 6	712 9	17,629 11
Denmark	40	- -	30	- -	1,040	980	- -	1,721	560	- -	56 0	2,309 0
Prussia	2	- -	- -	- -	20	200	- -	852	500	- -	- -	217 2
Germany	18,949	6,562	7,866	183	466,545	288,154	11,450	27,450	242,403	2,496 0	6,944 0	631,117 12
Holland	2,542	1,556	966	8,052	82,190	275,697	5,970	63,854	27,452	11,647 0	1,945 8	248,629 11
Belgium	461	5,289	1,234	849	47,176	11,395	4,250	13,296	166,554	7,262 0	1,497 10	125,727 4
France	1,581	661	256	7	36,808	13,162	2,000	10,452	61,200	1,291 6	574 10	98,272 16
Portugal, Azores and Madeira	42,269	990	1,641	15,262	44,548	5,263	8,234	16,742	51,791	850 6	2,449 0	387,992 11
Spain and the Canaries	2,850	- -	894	159	18,489	5,995	5,085	3,315	660	99 0	159 0	65,414 7
Gibraltar	3,451	55	195	399	5,043	2,164	510	1,563	45,069	726 6	562 0	31,478 1
Italy	7,554	- -	627	70	128,308	29,806	2,910	29,580	98,451	2,075 0	1,462 16	243,582 14
Malta	1,186	12	250	90	2,278	1,241	1,500	1,100	6,820	78 0	236 0	14,145 14
Ionian Islands	117	12	24	10	900	2,418	650	795	1,842	230 0	465 0	9,487 6
Turkey, and Continental Greece	2,939	32	125	- -	19,880	17,021	5,522	7,180	19,230	179 0	107 0	41,994 10
Morea and Greek islands	62	- -	8	- -	158	547	874	245	- -	- -	170 0	1,188 0
East Indies and China	122,623	7	499	9	194,179	523,181	23,976	5,311	98,409	1,846 0	3,126 8	604,017 1
New Holland	2,982	9	273	25	2,418	68,760	67,975	15,951	8,540	1,577 0	2,989 5	46,002 18
Cape of Good Hope	2,257	214	536	999	6,079	40,199	15,715	2,943	6,581	981 0	951 10	34,907 3
Other parts of Africa	669	- -	46	12	4,748	8,185	8,150	500	5,616	228 6	899 0	18,537 19
British colonies in North America	40,982	417	302	466	55,995	613,015	224,995	105,993	26,496	25,035 2	16,762 0	417,676 5
West Indies	16,130	161	151	6,257	15,999	66,168	170,696	1,198	5,999	1,315 0	5,457 10	114,206 1
Foreign West Indies	9,265	99	92	568	11,870	12,994	196,098	4,738	9,622	719 0	4,840 10	79,510 4
United States of America	262,627	409	2,594	1,465	560,160	151,715	2,125,541	553,207	638,144	141,246 0	44,046 4	2,621,270 16
Brazil	24,256	36	1,690	2,701	26,017	10,917	180,498	5,949	140,579	1,965 0	5,414 5	327,758 15
Mexico and the States of South America	45,519	- -	1,416	2,978	23,592	23,995	10,594	21,230	125,929	6,298 0	3,003 0	378,714 1
Isles Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney and Man	2,909	2	17	540	4,944	67,241	18,491	18,946	792	384 6	2,171 5	42,994 17
Totals	619,986	20,083	29,208	47,864	1,673,089	2,067,690	3,122,541	938,845	1,778,589	207,014 4	110,698 14	6,840,511 1

II. Summary Account of the Quantity and declared Value of the Woollen Yarn; and of the Quantities of the different Descriptions of Woollen Manufactures, with the Total declared Value of the same, exported from the United Kingdom, in each Year from 1800 to 1836, both inclusive.

Years.	Woollen and Worsted Yarn.		Woollen Manufactures.											
			Cloths of all Sorts.	Napped Coatings, Duffels, &c.	Kerseymeres and Bolton.	Stuffs, Woollen or Worsted.	Flannel.	Blankets and Blanketing.	Carpets and Carpeting.	Woollens mixed with Cotton.	Hosiery viz. Stockings, Woollen or Worsted.	Sundries consisting of Rugs, Tapes, &c.	Total declared Value of Woollen Manufactures.
	Quantity.	Dec. Value.											
	Lbs.	£.	Pieces.	Pieces.	Pieces.	Pieces.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	Dz. Prs.	£.	£.
1800	8,924	810	324,700	69,644	113,537	826,891	2,208,196	1,466,079	566,184	497,716	48,180	20,127	5,562,139
1801	9,111	1,917	275,464	68,631	120,010	1,232,248	2,624,817	1,484,126	764,823	627,870	1,7,779	20,902	6,462,106
1802	12,516	2,292	293,497	97,787	182,211	1,074,488	4,365,618	1,916,711	994,902	1,189,848	126,367	47,042	8,428,167
1803	6,476	1,127	2 6,447	54,8 [illegible]	135,982	1,150,133	4,311,997	2,131,956	779,445	918,469	108,480	44,919	5,630,126
1804	12,840	2,116	407,30	41,242	155,117	1,242,408	3,105,961	1,997,741	648,448	1,3 3,448	118,130	48,961	6,048,661
1805	76,961	14,467	3 4,980	45,239	178,648	1,126,020	3,850,484	2,162,864	999,854	1,798,201	106,490	41,895	6,185,648
1806	15,032	2,794	328,556	41,800	182,200	1,134,570	2,672,102	1,796,252	863,497	981,417	71,942	27,783	4,966,779
1807	243,903	37,290	271,595	41,245	169,823	1,256,657	3,413,287	1,889,200	1,187,280	948,788	105,117	43,160	5,145,640
1808	438,732	64,343	236,042	42,647	134,091	1,310,853	2,668,786	2,097,442	1,127,247	991,186	150,460	49,814	5,069,741
1809	589,434	73,643	283,773	46,188	96,842	1,397,568	1,972,891	1,826,981	811,454	1,074,077	91,218	41,945	4,567,688
1810	1,109,623	122,450	299,292	52,577	88,978	1,256,518	1,813,090	2,176,891	672,909	1,099,118	111,146	51,858	4,724,985
1811	1,592,455	156,111	436,148	13,982	85,809	1,477,484	1,972,453	2,542,228	672,854	1,061,084	148,774	64,848	5,252,018
1812	2,204,464	252,977	282,621	23,466	75,256	1,620,714	2,204,760	1,781,940	680,016	1,254,272	186,810	56,942	5,744,776
1813	. .	246,304	167,182	19,543	76,281	1,696,149	2,065,072	2,128,106	627,277	1,451,016	224,766	78,234	6,394,452
1814	. .	258,442	521,214	23,866	67,229	1,395,775	1,921,264	2,537,772	672,918	1,748,169	178,083	75,841	6,726,970
1815	. .	308,091	618,886	20,083	77,057	1,272,089	2,097,640	3,182,841	689,946	1,775,219	207,014	110,688	6,840,511

(Account of the Quantity and Real Value of British Woollen Manufactures exported from the United Kingdom in the Year 1837, specifying the Countries to which they were exported, and the Quantity and Value of those exported to each.—(Parl. Paper, No. 548. Sess. 1838.)

Countries to which exported.	Cloths of all Sorts.	Napped Coatings, Duffels, &c.	Kerseys.	Baizes of all Sorts.	Stuffs, Woollen or Worsted.	Flannel.	Blankets and Blanketing.	Carpets and Carpeting.	Woollens mixed with Cotton.	Hosiery; viz. Stockings, Woollen or Worsted.	Hosiery not otherwise described, Socks, Cover-lids, Tapes, &c.	Declared Value of British W. Manufactures exported from U.K.
	Pieces.	Pieces.	Pieces.	Pieces.	Pieces.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	Yards.	Doz. Pairs	£.	£.
Russia	2,691	9	219	10	28,984	6,902	9,780	13,424	20,163	157 0	148	103,159
Sweden	93	-	29	1	7,289	288	764	4,183	3,400	191 0	155	14,198
Norway	457	29	123	84	2,560	3,503	1,122	49	800	168 0	291	10,646
Denmark	67	10	18	-	864	19	280	720	164	-	191	2,042
Prussia	15	-	1	-	2	277	180	-	-	-	-	93
Germany	6,072	11,908	2,824	278	267,279	251,274	11,140	46,981	984,557	1,917 0	2,312	721,677
Holland	1,236	8,163	321	12,208	28,264	286,289	1,466	25,469	88,104	15,098 0	2,883	285,279
Belgium	5,797	4,415	209	83	58,748	342,712	2,180	2,918	100,754	5,423 0	1,879	144,455
France	640	806	181	82	15,605	11,856	980	12,564	24,886	29 0	1,909	45,570
Portugal, Azores and Madeira	23,880	452	1,313	10,888	20,280	16,219	6,204	7,276	28,280	29 0	1,027	201,288
Spain and the Canaries	1,178	24	20	1,526	12,179	4,814	7,185	2,849	1,994	26 0	150	42,190
Gibraltar	4,230	70	288	186	7,251	7,782	280	1,497	48,272	284 0	764	47,042
Italy	5,486	-	1,195	-	64,918	4,764	2,254	25,280	106,200	345 0	2,117	178,853
Malta	575	-	247	60	1,240	800	240	80	2,820	14 0	29	7,472
Ionian Islands	505	-	29	14	-	528	4,87	280	272	10	518 0	270	8,185
Turkey and Continental Greece	525	24	51	7	4,702	286	800	7,486	1,280	16 0	258	14,620
Morea and Greek Islands	-	-	-	-	12	168	-	-	-	-	40	80
East Indies and China	68,002	-	165	246	77,212	73,077	44,186	4,884	88,140	889 0	2,904	480,691
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, Swan River, and Southern Australia	2,560	18	281	158	4,897	27,910	186,280	26,252	10,881	2,190 0	1,515	75,280
Cape of Good Hope	4,420	617	1,088	280	10,784	26,281	17,179	7,425	14,488	241 0	2,280	60,282
Other parts of Africa	1,708	-	15	20	2,734	2,240	5,705	510	1,280	276 0	1,148	18,744
British Colonies in North America,	62,008	280	288	127	26,287	264,467	241,280	102,608	46,480	18,245 0	18,172	282,078
—West Indies	9,726	143	216	5,764	14,281	26,218	127,578	8,208	11,240	2,284 0	2,286	135,702
Foreign West Indies	2,760	3	75	40	2,219	2,000	102,280	1,016	2,280	-	1,770	58,256
United States of America	128,240	20	4,021	26	127,284	26,124	1,201,112	276,776	122,220	19,240 4	16,402	1,045,279
Brazil	24,250	20	284	6,114	18,547	1,260	106,180	11,261	65,211	262 0	4,286	182,488
Mexico and the States of South America	29,270	- -	5,202	2,726	26,280	24,048	17,010	21,284	72,220	2,086 0	2,072	467,268
Isles—Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney and Man	2,280	72	18	101	2,260	26,764	20,284	24,282	26	20 0	2,287	42,086
Total	387,750	21,201	22,260	45,477	1,041,286	1,086,457	2,481,206	788,264	1,051,272	74,247 0	92,61[illegible]	4,655,977

The exemption from the export duty of 10s. per cent. enjoyed by woollen goods, or goods of wool and cotton or wool and linen, exported to places within the limits of the East India Company's charter, has been repealed by the 4 & 5 Will. 4. c. 89. § 18.—*Sup.*)

[The value of the woollen manufactures imported into the United States during the year ending the 30th of September, 1839, amounted to $10,646,067. See *Imports and Exports —Am. Ed.*]

WRECK, in navigation, is usually understood to mean any ship or goods driven ashore, or found floating at sea in a deserted or unmanageable condition. But in the legal sense of the word in England, *wreck* must have come to land; when at sea, it is distinguished by the barbarous appellations of *flotsam*, *jetsam*, and *lagan*.—(See FLOTSAM.)

In nothing, perhaps, has the beneficial influence of the advance of society in civilisation been more apparent than in the regulations with respect to the persons and property of shipwrecked individuals. In most rude and uncivilised countries, their treatment has been cruel in the extreme. Amongst the early Greeks and Romans, strangers and enemies were regarded in the same point of view.—(*Hostis apud antiquos, peregrinus dicebatur.—Pomp. Festus*; see also *Cicero de Offic.* lib. i. c. 12.) Where such inhospitable sentiments prevailed, the conduct observed towards those that were shipwrecked could not be otherwise than barbarous; and in fact they were, in most instances, either put to death or sold as slaves. But as law and good order grew up, and commerce and navigation were extended, those who escaped from the perils of the sea were treated in a way less repugnant to the dictates of humanity: and at length the Roman law made it a capital offence to destroy persons shipwrecked, or to prevent their saving the ship; and the stealing even of a plank from a vessel shipwrecked or in distress, made the party liable to answer for the whole ship and cargo.—(*Pand.* 47. 9. 3.)

During the gloomy period which followed the subversion of the Roman empire, and the establishment of the northern nations in the southern parts of Europe, the ancient barbarous practices with respect to shipwreck were every where renewed. Those who survived were in most countries reduced to servitude; and their goods were every where confiscated for the use of the lord on whose manor they had been thrown.—(*Robertson's Charles V.* vol. i. note 29.) But nothing, perhaps, can so strongly evince the prevalence and nature of the enormities, as the efforts that were made, as soon as governments began to acquire authority, for their suppression. The regulations as to shipwreck in the Laws of Oleron are, in this respect, most remarkable. The 35th and 38th articles state, that "Pilots, in order to ingratiate themselves with their lords, did, like faithless and treacherous villains, sometimes willingly run the ship upon the rocks, &c.;" for which offence they are held to be accursed and excommunicated, and punished as thieves and robbers. The fate of the lord is still more severe. "He is to be apprehended, his goods confiscated and sold, and himself fastened to a post or stake in the midst of his own mansion house, which being fired at the four corners, all shall be burned together; the walls thereof be demolished; the stones pulled down; and the site converted into a market place, for the sale only of hogs and swine, to all posterity." The 31st article recites, that when a vessel was lost by running on shore, and the mariners had landed, they often, instead of meeting with help, "were attacked by people more barbarous, cruel, and inhuman, than mad dogs; who, to gain their monies, apparel, and other goods, did sometimes murder and destroy these poor distressed seamen. In this case, the lord of the country is to execute justice, by punishing them in their persons and their estates; and is commanded to plunge them in the sea till they be half dead, and then to have them drawn forth out of the sea, and stoned to death."

Such were the dreadful severities by which it was attempted to put a stop to the crimes against which they were directed. The violence of the remedy shows better than any thing else how inveterate the disease had become.

The law of England, like that of other modern countries, adjudged wrecks to belong to the king. But the rigour and injustice of this law was modified so early as the reign of Henry I., when it was ruled, that if any person escaped alive out of the ship, it should be no wreck. And after various modifications, it was decided, in the reign of Henry III., that if goods were cast on shore, having any marks by which they could be identified, they were to revert to the owners, if claimed any time within a year and a day. By the statute 27 Edw. 3. c. 13., if a ship be lost and the goods come to land, they are to be delivered to the merchants, paying only a reasonable reward or SALVAGE (which see) to those who saved or preserved them. But these ancient statutes, owing to the confusion and disorder of the times, were very ill enforced; and the disgraceful practices previously alluded to, continued to the middle of last century. A statute of Anne (13 Ann. st. 2. c. 18), confirmed by the 4 Geo. 1. c. 12., in order to put a stop to the atrocities in question, orders all head officers and others of the towns near the sea, upon application made to them, to summon as many hands as are necessary, and send them to the relief of any ship in distress, on forfeiture of 100*l.*; and in case of any assistance given, salvage is to be assessed by 3 justices, and paid by the owners. Persons secreting any goods cast ashore, are to forfeit treble their value; and if they wilfully do any act whereby the ship is lost or destroyed, they are guilty of felony without benefit of clergy. But even this statute seems not to have been sufficient to accomplish the end in view; and in 1753, a new statute (26 Geo. 2. c. 19.) was enacted, the preamble of which is as follows:—"Whereas, notwithstanding the good and salutary laws now in being against plundering and destroying vessels in distress, and against taking away shipwrecked, lost, or stranded goods, many wicked enormities have been committed, to the disgrace of the nation, and the grievous damage of merchants and mariners of our own and other countries, be it," &c.: and it is then enacted, that the preventing of the escape of any person endeavouring to save his life, or wounding him with intent to destroy him, or putting out false lights in order to bring any vessel into danger, shall be capital felony. By the same statute, the pilfering of any goods cast ashore is made petty larceny.

By statute 1 & 2 Geo. 4. c. 75. it is enacted, that any person or persons wilfully cutting away, injuring, or concealing any buoy or buoy rope attached to any anchor or cable belonging to any ship, whether in distress or otherwise, shall be judged guilty of felony, and may, upon conviction, be transported for 7 years.

(For an account of the sums to be paid to those assisting in the saving of wreck, see art. SALVAGE

in this Dictionary; see also the chapter on Salvage in Mr. Abbott's (Lord Tenterden's) work on the *Law of Shipping*.)

Number of Shipwrecks.—The loss of property by shipwreck is very great. It appears from an examination of *Lloyd's List* from 1793 to 1829, that the losses in the British mercantile navy only amounted, at an average of that period, to about 567 vessels a year, of the aggregate burden of about 66,000 tons, or to above 1-40th part of its entire amount in ships and tonnage. The following account of casualties of British shipping in 1829 is taken from *Lloyd's List*:—

On Foreign Voyages.—157 wrecked; 284 driven on shore, of which 234 are known to have been got off, and probably more; 21 foundered or sunk, 1 run down; 35 abandoned at sea, 8 of them afterwards carried into port; 12 condemned as unseaworthy; 6 upset, 1 of them righted; 27 missing, 1 of them a packet, no doubt foundered. *Coasters and Colliers*—109 wrecked; 207 driven on shore, of which 191 known to have been got off, and probably many more; 67 foundered or sunk, 4 of them raised, 6 run down; 13 abandoned, 5 of them afterwards carried in; 3 upset, 2 of them righted; 16 missing, no doubt foundered. During the year, 4 steam vessels were wrecked; 4 driven on shore, but got off; and 2 sunk.

Of the prodigious number of ships that are thus annually engulphed, many are laden with valuable cargoes; and besides this immense loss of property, there is also a very great loss of life. It is believed, that a little more strength in the building, and care in the selection of the masters, would obviate many of these calamities. And nothing, we are assured, would contribute so much to improve the fabric of ships, as the adoption of the plan we have elsewhere recommended (p. 467.), of allowing them to be built in bond, free of all duty.

During the last war with France, 32 ships of the line went to the bottom, besides 7 fifty-gun ships, 86 frigates, and a vast number of smaller vessels. And the losses sustained by the navies of France, Spain, Holland, Denmark, &c. must have very greatly exceeded those of ours. Hence, as Mr. Lyell has observed, it is probable that a greater number of monuments of the skill and industry of man will, in the course of ages, be collected together in the bed of the ocean, than will be seen at one time on the surface of the continents.—(*Principles of Geology*, 3d ed. vol. ii. p. 265.)

Y.

YARD, a long measure used in England, of 3 feet, or 36 inches.—(See Weights and Measures.)

YARN (Ger. *Garn*; Du. *Garen*; Fr. *Fil*; It. *Filato*; Sp. *Hilo*; Port. *Fio*; Rus. *Prasha*), wool, cotton, flax, &c. spun into thread.

Z.

ZAFFER, or ZAFRE. After the sulphur, arsenic, and other volatile parts of cobalt have been expelled by calcination, the residuum is sold, mixed or unmixed with fine sand, under the above name. When the residuum is melted with siliceous earth and potash, it forms a kind of blue glass, known by the name of smaltz—(see Smalte),—of great importance in the arts. When smaltz is ground very fine, it receives in commerce the name of *powder blue*. Zaffer, like smaltz, is employed in the manufacture of earthenware and China, for painting the surface of the pieces a blue colour. It suffers no change from the most violent fire. It is also employed to tinge the crystal glasses, made in imitation of opaque and transparent precious stones, of a blue colour. It is almost wholly brought from Germany.

Account of the Zaffer imported, exported, and retained for Home Consumption, with the Nett Duty thereon, in 1831 and 1832.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Retained for Consumption.	Duty.
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*L.*
1831	227,512	115	227,982	950
1832	266,935	448	263,952	417

The duty was reduced, in 1832, from 9s. 4d. to 1s. a cwt.

ZEA, INDIAN CORN, or MAIZE. See Maize.

ZEDOARY (Ger. *Zittwer*; Fr. *Zédoaire*; It. *Zedoaria*; Sp. *Cedoaria*; Arab. *Judwar*; Hind. *Nirbisi*), the root of a plant which grows in Malabar, Ceylon, Cochin-China, &c., of which there are 3 distinct species. It is brought home in pieces of various sizes, externally wrinkled, and of an ash colour, but internally of a brownish red. Those roots which are heavy and free from worms are to be chosen; rejecting those which are decayed and broken. The odour of Zedoary is fragrant, and somewhat like that of camphor; the taste biting, aromatic, and bitterish, with some degree of acrimony. It was formerly employed in medicine; but is scarcely ever used by modern practitioners.—(*Milburn's Orient. Com.*)

ZINC, or SPELTER (Ger. *Zink*; Fr. *Zinc*; It. *Zinco*; Sp. *Zinco*, *Cinck*; Rus. *Schpiauter*; Lat. *Zincum*), a metal of a brilliant white colour, with a shade of blue, composed of a number of thin plates adhering together. When this metal is rubbed for some time between the fingers, they acquire a peculiar taste, and emit a very perceptible smell. It is rather soft; tinging the fingers, when rubbed upon them, with a black colour. The specific

gravity of melted zinc varies from 6·861 to 7·1, the lightest being esteemed the purest. When hammered, it becomes as high as 7·1908. This metal forms, as it were, the limit between the brittle and the malleable metals. Its malleability is by no means to be compared with that of copper, lead, or tin; yet it is not brittle, like antimony or arsenic. When struck with a hammer, it does not break, but yields, and becomes somewhat flatter; and by a cautious and equal pressure, it may be reduced to pretty thin plates, which are supple and elastic, but cannot be folded without breaking. When heated to about 400°, it becomes so brittle that it may be reduced to powder in a mortar. It possesses a certain degree of ductility, and may, with care, be drawn out into wire. Its tenacity is such, that a wire whose diameter is equal to 1-10th of an inch, is capable of supporting a weight of about 26 lbs. Zinc has never been found in a state of purity. The word zinc occurs for the first time in the writings of Paracelsus, who died in 1541; but the method of extracting it from its ores was not known till the early part of last century.—(*Thomson's Chemistry.*) The compounds of zinc and copper are of great importance.—(See BRASS.)

Manufacture of Zinc, &c.—There used to be 2 smelting-houses for the preparation of zinc near Bristol, and 3 near Swansea, but they have been all abandoned, with the exception of 1 of the latter. The material used by the English manufacturer is blende, or black jack (sulphuret of zinc); it is commonly found with lead, and is procured of the best quality in Flintshire and the Isle of Man. Besides its employment in the manufacture of brass, bell metal, and other important compounds, zinc has of late years been formed into plates, and applied to many purposes for which lead was formerly used, such as the roofing of buildings, the manufacture of water-spouts, dairy pans, &c. Foreign zinc, being less brittle, is better fitted for rolling than that of England.

The duties on spelter, which were formerly prohibitory, have been reduced to 2*l.* a ton on that formed into plates, or cakes, and to 10*s.* on what is not in cakes; and, in consequence, considerable quantities are now imported, partly for home use, and partly for re-exportation to India and China. Foreign zinc is principally made at Gleinitz, in Upper Silesia; whence it is conveyed by an internal navigation to Hamburgh. The freight from the latter to Hull and London is nominal merely; the wool-ships being glad to take it as ballast. Hainault, near Namur, has also some part of the spelter trade. A good deal of spelter is shipped from Hamburgh for France and America.

Zinc is produced in the province of Yunan, in China; and previously to 1820, large quantities of it were exported from that empire to India, the Malay Archipelago, &c. But about that time the free traders began to convey European spelter (principally German) to India; and being, though less pure, decidedly cheaper than the Chinese article, it has entirely supplanted the latter in the Calcutta market: latterly, indeed, it has begun to be imported even into Canton.—(See TUTENAG.) During the 3 years ended with 1832, the exports of foreign spelter from this country for India and China were, in 1830, 62,356 cwt.: 1831, 51,609; 1832, 37,499. And, exclusive of these, considerable quantities were exported from Amsterdam, Rotterdam, &c. We subjoin an

Account of the Zinc or Spelter imported, exported, and retained for Home Consumption, and the Duties thereon, in 1831 and 1832.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Retained for Consumption.	Duty.
	Cwt.	*Cwt.*	*Cwt.*	*L.*
1831	76,413	62,684	20,596	10,196
1832	66,764	49,740	25,314	5,784

The price of spelter declined within the last 3 or 4 years, from about 15*l.* to 9*l.* a ton; but it has recently rallied, and is now (April, 1834) about 11*l.* 10*s.* a ton in bond.

SUPPLEMENT.

The latest Supplement of the author was received when this edition had advanced as far as the article *Petersburgh*. Such portions of it, however, as have not been incorporated with the preceding pages, will be found in the present Supplement, with the letter S. affixed to each.——Additions to the body of the work in the last English edition are also inserted here, being distinguished by affixing to them the letter A.—AM. ED.

BALTIMORE.

The Imports into Baltimore, during the year 1840, were,—

In American vessels,	$4,282,755
In foreign do.	552,862
	$4,835,617

The Exports were,—

Value of domestic productions,	
In American vessels,	$4,098,139
In foreign do.	1,396,881
Total value of domestic exports,	$5,495,020
Of foreign products in American vessels	210,810
do. foreign vessels,	51,040
Total value of exports,	$5,756,870

Vessels arriving from foreign ports, 410—tons 82,000.
Do. departing to do. 461—tons 93,354.
Do. entering coastwise, 826
Vessels built in Baltimore—3 ships, 1 barque, 11 brigs, 43 schooners, 1 sloop, and 1 steamboat, in all sixty vessels—tons 8,558.

Inspections during the year 1840.

Wheat flour, barrels	736,479
Do. do. half barrels	30,515
Rye do. barrels	5,816
Corn meal, hogsheads	1,264
Do. barrels	12,593
Do. half barrels	83
Oat meal, bbls.	50
Total,	786,802

An increase of 203,316 bbls. and half bbls. over last year.

Tobacco, hhds.	40,608

Increase over last year, 12,497 hhds.

Beef and pork—

Baltimore packed beef, bbls.	9,252
Do. do. do. half barrels	410
Foreign do. do. barrels	696
Baltimore packed pork, do.	999
Do. do. do. half do.	1
Foreign do. do.	6,345
Total barrels and half barrels,	16,703

Butter and lard—	Kends.	half bbls.	bbls.	kegs.	total.
Butter	124	174	156	15,996	16,453
Lard	68	146	1,083	20,066	21,363
Total butter and lard,					37,816

Beef cattle and hogs—			
Number of beef cattle,	11,982	weight	11,300,223
Do. hogs,	17,145	do.	3,795,956
	29,127	head.	15,096,179
Increase over last year,	21,339	head, or	11,262,608
weight.			
Quercitron bark		hhds.	1,228
Lumber		feet	32,000,000
Sole leather and rough skirting,		sides	201,587
Charcoal,—1,136 loads		bushels	104,339
Lime		do.	176,286
Firewood		cords	155,193
Salted fish, various kinds, bbls. and ½ bbls.			89,636
Domestic liquors—hhds. and bbls., say			81,788
Staves and heading—white oak, hhds. and bbls.			479,816
—red oak, do. 1,102,105—total 1 508,091 pieces.			
New houses built during the year, 457.			
Hay and straw weighed during the year, 6400 tons.			

BANKS. BANK OF ENGLAND.—It is apparent from the table on the following page, that there has been a very heavy drain for bullion upon the coffers of the Bank since November and December, 1838; and much diversity of opinion has prevailed as to the causes of this drain, and the nature of the efforts made by the Bank to defeat it. But the circumstances that occasioned the drain seem, notwithstanding, to be sufficiently obvious. The harvest of 1838 was the most deficient that has occurred in this country for several years; and, in proof of this, it is sufficient to mention, that while the quantities of foreign wheat and wheat flour entered for consumption in the United Kingdom in 1836 amounted to only 30,108 quarters, and in 1837 to 244,275 quarters, they rose in

Account of the Issues, Securities, Bullion, and Surplus or Rest, of the Bank of England, as published in the Gazette, according to the Act 3 & 4 Will. IV. cap. 98.

Average in the Quarters ending	Circulation.	Deposits.	Securities.	Bullion.	Rest.
	£	£	£	£	£
1 January, 1834 -	18,216,000	13,101,000	23,596,000	9,948,000	2,207,000
1 April, — -	19,097,000	14,011,000	25,970,000	9,431,000	2,293,000
1 July, — -	18,895,000	15,096,000	27,593,000	8,695,000	2,261,000
23 September, — -	19,126,000	14,754,000	28,691,000	7,695,000	2,506,000
18 December, — -	18,301,000	12,256,000	26,268,000	6,720,000	2,522,000
15 January, 1835 -	18,012,000	12,585,000	26,390,000	6,741,000	2,534,000
7 April, — -	18,591,000	11,389,000	16,328,000	6,329,000	2,677,000
30 June, — -	18,315,000	10,954,000	25,678,000	6,219,000	2,625,000
22 September, — -	18,240,000	12,230,000	27,888,000	6,261,000	2,679,000
15 December, — -	17,821,000	17,720,000	31,048,000	6,626,000	2,924,000
12 January, 1836 -	17,262,000	12,169,000	31,954,000	7,076,000	2,590,000
5 April, — -	18,063,000	14,751,000	27,927,000	7,801,000	2,914,000
1 July, — -	17,899,000	13,810,000	27,153,000	7,262,000	2,806,000
22 September, — -	18,147,000	14,118,000	29,406,000	5,719,000	2,860,000
15 December, — -	17,361,000	13,330,000	28,971,000	4,545,000	2,825,000
10 January, 1837 -	17,422,000	14,384,300	30,356,000	4,287,000	2,876,000
7 February, — -	17,868,000	14,230,000	31,085,000	4,032,000	3,019,000
7 March, — -	48,178,000	13,260,000	30,579,000	4,018,000	3,189,000
4 April, — -	18,432,000	11,192,000	28,843,000	4,071,000	3,264,000
2 May, — -	18,480,000	10,473,000	28,017,000	4,190,000	3,255,000
30 May, — -	18,419,000	10,422,000	27,572,000	4,423,000	3,154,000
27 June, — -	18,292,000	10,494,000	26,932,000	4,750,000	3,056,000
25 July, — -	18,281,000	10,672,000	26,797,000	5,226,000	3,020,000
22 August, — -	18,462,000	11,005,000	26,717,000	5,754,000	3,001,000
19 September, — -	18,814,000	11,093,000	26,605,000	6,303,000	3,001,000
17 October, — -	18,716,000	10,501,000	25,316,000	6,856,000	2,955,000
14 November, — -	18,344,000	10,242,000	23,985,000	7,432,000	2,831,000
14 December, — -	17,998,000	10,195,000	22,727,000	8,172,000	2,706,000
9 January, 1838 -	17,980,000	10,992,000	22,606,000	8,895,000	2,609,000
6 March, — -	18,660,000	11,535,000	22,792,000	10,015,000	2,672,000
1 May, — -	19,084,000	11,006,000	22,768,000	10,002,000	2,680,000
26 June, — -	19,047,000	10,426,000	22,534,000	9,722,000	2,783,000
21 August, — -	19,481,000	10,298,000	22,747,000	9,746,000	2,714,000
16 October, — -	19,359,000	9,327,000	22,015,000	9,437,000	2,765,000
11 December, — -	18,469,000	9,033,000	20,707,000	9,362,000	2,567,000
8 January, 1839 -	18,291,000	10,315,000	21,680,000	9,336,000	2,500,000
5 March, — -	18,298,000	9,950,000	22,767,000	8,106,000	2,625,000
28 May, — -	18,214,000	7,814,000	23,543,000	5,119,000	2,634,000
25 June, — -	18,101,000	7,567,000	23,934,000	4,344,000	2,610,000
23 July, — -	18,049,000	7,955,000	24,905,000	3,785,000	2,686,000
20 August, — -	17,969,000	8,029,000	25,588,000	3,265,000	2,855,000
17 September, — -	17,960,000	7,781,000	25,936,000	2,816,000	3,011,000
24 October, — -	17,612,000	6,734,000	24,939,000	2,525,000	3,118,000

1838 to the enormous amount of 1,848,477 quarters, exclusive of a large amount of other grain. It should, however, be mentioned that the imports in 1838 only amounted to 1,355,119 quarters, about 500,000 quarters of the quantity taken into consumption in that year, having been previously imported in bond. Now, as the corn in bond had, no doubt, been all, or mostly all, paid for when imported, it is clear that the sum to be paid to foreigners for corn entered in 1838, was not so great by nearly a third part as, at first sight, it would appear to be. Still, however, the importation in 1838 was very large; it was also in a considerable degree unprecedented, being nearly three times as great as in 1837, more than *five* times greater than in 1836, and about *twenty* times as great as in 1835, so that from its suddenness it had a comparatively great effect in raising prices abroad. It was all but impossible that this extraordinary increase in the importation of foreign corn should not seriously affect the Exchange, and occasion a heavy drain for bullion. And by a singular coincidence, it so happened, that at the particular period when increased payments began to be required for foreign corn, there happened to be an unusual deficiency in the ordinary means of making them. In consequence of the real or supposed scarcity of cotton in the United States in 1838, and of the support given by the United States Bank, and other monied institutions in the United States, to the cotton planters and holders, a very considerable rise took place in the price of cotton: the necessary effect of this rise was to lessen the purchases made by the manufacturers, and to force them to narrow their business; so that at the very moment when a large extra foreign payment had to be made, there was an increase in the price, and consequent falling off in the production and export of cotton fabrics—that is, of by far the greatest article of export from this country. Vast quantities of American securities had also been purchased in our markets; and this necessarily either occasioned the transmission of money to America, or lessened the returns from that country, and in so far lessened our means of meeting the foreign demand for corn. The discredit of the Belgian Bank in the autumn of 1838 may also be mentioned as having occasioned a considerable extra demand for bullion.

It is not, therefore, to be wondered at that the exchange became unfavourable, and that there was a heavy drain for bullion on the Bank. But it is less easy to form a fair estimate of the measures taken by the Bank to meet this run. On the whole, however, we are inclined

to think that on this, as on most similar occasions, the Bank evinced too much tenderness for what she conceived to be the interests of commerce, and did not vigorously enough commence reducing her issues when the drain for bullion had fairly set in. We, however, cordially approve of the Bank's policy in negotiating credits abroad, and endeavouring to restore the exchange to par by selling bills on the Continent, rather than by giving bullion for notes. In fact, sound policy would seem to dictate that the Bank should always hold a considerable amount of easily convertible foreign securities, and draw bills against them when the exchange is unfavourable. The plan of accumulating a large stock of bullion to be kept locked up in the Bank's coffers for no purpose whatever, except to meet the demand occasioned by a fall in the exchange, seems to be a very clumsy and costly device for doing that which would be more easily and cheaply done by the Bank holding foreign securities, and having credits on some of the principal foreign banks. She might, were she to adopt this plan, dispense with the half of what is now reckoned the proper supply of bullion; holding, in its stead, productive securities, which might always be sold at an advantage when the exchange is against us, or which might be pledged to the foreign banks for temporary loans. What merchants want during an adverse exchange, is good foreign bills, it being only in default of such that they export bullion; and the Bank, by supplying them with such bills, and getting, of course, her notes in exchange, is able to diminish her issues quite as effectually as if her notes were sent in for bullion. Another advantage of this plan is, that it goes far to obviate that internal discredit and alarm that are apt to be produced when the stock of bullion in the Bank is reduced unusually low. In fact, had the Bank not acted, in part at least, on this plan during the current year, the probability is that she must have suspended payments. In June and July last, the stock of bullion in her coffers was reduced to about 3,500,000*l.*; and as the drain still continued, had she endeavoured to meet it in the ordinary way, by paying away bullion for notes, her stock of the former would very speedily have been reduced so low as to occasion a home demand for it, which the Bank could not have met. The Bank should never, if it be possible to prevent it, allow her stock of bullion to sink below 4½ or 5 millions; and she may always keep it above this amount, in so far at least as the foreign demand is concerned, by selling bills drawn against foreign credits or securities. The Bank should also, consentaneously with the selling of bills, adopt the most efficient measures for preventing the notes she receives for them from getting again into circulation, either by raising the rate of interest, or by refusing (though the latter be a much more questionable policy) to discount certain classes of bills. It should always be borne in mind, that however a drain for gold may originate, the fact of its existence is of itself a conclusive proof that gold is more valuable abroad than here, and consequently that the currency is redundant. We are not, therefore, of the number of those who censure the Bank for having raised the rate of interest to 6 per cent. On the contrary, this was a measure that seems to have been imperatively required by the circumstances under which she was placed. At the same time, however, it must be admitted that the Bank allowed her stock of bullion to be reduced far below what is consistent either with her safety or with the safety of the great interests involved in her stability. She did not avail herself of her credit abroad so soon or so consistently as she might have done; and she does not appear to have made that early, systematical, and continuous reduction of her issues, required to adjust the exchange, and to bring the currency to its proper level. It is probable, indeed, as matters have turned out, that less hardship has been inflicted on individuals by the course the Bank has taken, than if she had resolutely followed up the course pointed out by principle, and withdrawn from circulation the notes received for bullion delivered for exportation and for foreign bills. But it is always bad policy, in such cases, to trust to fortuitous occurrences; and, in the long run, the safest plan, or that dictated by principle, is sure to be the best.

BANK OF IRELAND.—Account showing the Circulation of the Bank of Ireland from 1823 to 1836, both inclusive.

Years.	Large Notes.	Small Notes.	Post Bills.	Total Average Circulation.	Years.	Large Notes.	Small Notes.	Post Bills.	Total Average Circulation.
	L.	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*		*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*
1823	1,827,700	1,383,600	1,860,100	5,070,500	1830	1,541,800	1,386,100	1,147,700	4,074,700
1824	1,938,200	1,451,600	2,190,900	5,578,700	1831	1,486,800	1,369,300	1,025,000	3,913,0 0
1825	1,969,900	1,577,600	2,662,500	6,209,300	1832	1,594,600	1,518,600	1,085,900	4,085,100
1826	1,502,700	2,644,300	1,758,000	4,905,000	1833	1,600,600	1,472.3 0	943,400	4,016,500
1827	1,460,300	1,491,800	1,411,300	4,363,600	1834	1,608,400	1,283,300	862,700	3,834,500
1828	1,540,900	1,668,800	1,375,900	4,585,000	1835	1,623,400	1,249,500	763,600	3,636,900
1829	1,615,200	1,459,300	1,362,700	4,437,200	1836	1,708,500	1,087,400	633,200	3,429,300

S.

Instead of the paragraph, vol. i. page 109, of this edition, beginning, "The committee seem to think that some regulation should be enacted,"—read the following:—

The committee seem to think that some regulation should be enacted, providing that a certain portion of its capital should be paid up before a bank begins business. But the better way would be to prohibit all advertising of *nominal* capital. This, in fact, is a mere device by which to entrap and delude the public. A bank is announced with a capital of 1,000,000*l.*, 2,000,000*l.*, or 3,000,000*l.*; and a great number of people, perhaps the majority

immediately conclude that there can be no risk in dealing with an establishment possessed of so great an amount of property. But what is the fact? The capital advertised is nominal merely; not more perhaps than a tenth or a fifth part of it has been received into the coffers of the bank, and we have nothing better than the statement of the bank proprietors, or their agents, that they will pay up the remainder, if necessary; of which necessity they of course are to be the only judges! Practically this is neither more nor less than a fraud upon the public; it is a contrivance for making 10,000*l.* pass in the public estimation for 100,000*l.*; and for procuring the same degree of credit to its holders. This, however, is not all. Where is the security that if a greater amount of capital were really required it would be forthcoming? The notion that the bulk of the shareholders in many, we are pretty sure we might safely say most, of the joint stock banks now in existence could pay up the full amount of their shares, is too ludicrous to deserve notice. We might as well call upon a man worth 5*l.* to extinguish a debt of 500*l.*

There can be no doubt, therefore, unless it be meant to affirm that deception and fallacious statements are indispensable to the success of joint stock banking schemes, that all advertising of nominal capitals should be put an end to; and that no association should be allowed to represent its capital as exceeding the sum actually paid up by the proprietors. But though this would obviate one source of fraud and deception, there would still be abundant means of practising on the credulity of the public at the disposal of parties inclined to use them. Admit that a bank has a capital of 500,000*l.* actually received into its coffers, what is to hinder the directors from lending out the whole of this sum, or even more, to themselves or to partners in the bank? or supposing them not to do this, who can tell whether the entire capital, or some considerable part of it, be not wholly engulphed in ruinous speculations? It is indeed alleged, and truly too, that this could not happen with any "respectable" bank, that "gentlemen of character" would not lend themselves to such transactions! Unluckily, however, there are no decisive marks or tests by which the public can, *à priori*, say what is or what is not a "respectable bank," or who is, or is not a "a gentleman of character;" and it is not a little hazardous in such matters to indulge in speculative remarks. Hence it is that all banks are held to be respectable, that is, solvent, till the event prove the contrary; and that all gentlemen connected with banks are held to be "men of character," paragons in fact, of honour, honesty, and even intelligence, till their fraud or ignorance has involved hundreds or thousands in bankruptcy and ruin.

We do not state these circumstances in order to raise any prejudice against joint stock banks or other associations, for they apply equally to one, or to a small number of individuals; but we state them to show the folly of placing any reliance on statements as to the capital of any bank, or the character of its managers. Such statements may be either true or false; but, as the public cannot tell which, they are plainly good for nothing. The only real security is to be found, if it exist at all, in the names of the partners responsible for the debts and obligations of the bank. The number of such partners is a very inferior consideration. There cannot, in truth, be a greater error than to suppose that because a bank has a great number of partners, its security may be safely depended upon. A single individual worth 100,000*l.* is an incomparably better security than fifty individuals worth 2,000*l.* each; and a hundred individuals worth 1,000*l.* would hardly be any security at all; at least for a sum of 10,000*l.* or 20,000*l.* A private bank with *six*, may be a safer place of deposit than a joint stock bank with *six hundred* partners. Every thing depends upon *the available wealth* of those responsible for the debts of the concern; and hence the propriety and justice, whether the firm consist of one or of many partners, of publicly declaring and specifying their names.

We are decidedly hostile to a proposition we have heard mooted, and which seems to be countenanced by the committee on joint stock banks, for obliging all banks to establish a guarantee fund; that is, for obliging them to accumulate a *portion of their profits* as a reserve stock. But where is the security that such reserve would be always deducted from profits? The truth is, that bankrupt and fraudulent concerns, and none else, would gain by such a regulation; inasmuch as it would enable them, by appearing to be prosperous, the better to deceive the public, and to blind them as to the real state of their affairs. It is a good deal worse than absurd to induce the public to depend on guarantees that cannot be enforced, and which, consequently, must be good for nothing. The knowledge of who the partners are in a bank, and their unlimited responsibility, are the only securities that, speaking generally, are worth a pinch of snuff. If these cannot protect the public from fraud or loss, nothing else will; and the question will come to be, not whether the system should be reformed, but whether it should be abated as an incurable nuisance. On this ground also, we should be disposed to dissent from any attempt to prevent, by legislative enactment, the making of loans upon the credit of bank stock. We do not question the advantage of such a regulation, provided it were honestly carried into effect. But it is useless to say that, whenever the parties were disposed to defeat such a course, it would be quite inoperative.—*S.*

We have elsewhere (*Dict.* vol. i. p. 86.) said, that if the Bank of England could, with safety to herself, pay interest on deposits, as is done by the Scotch banks, it would be of the

greatest service to the public. The joint stock banks formed, or being formed in the city, are undertaking this function, and are offering a fair rate of interest on deposits. If they succeed in this, they will confer no slight advantage on the community, and will become, as it were, so many savings banks for the middle classes, and for the rich as well as the poor. But the responsibilities this system will bring along with it are neither few nor small. A bank with a numerous body of partners of undoubted wealth and integrity that should give 2 per cent. interest on all deposits of 10*l.* and upwards, how short soever the period for which the deposit might remain in the bank, would, there is little doubt, speedily have ample funds at its disposal. In quiet and prosperous times, the system would work exceedingly well; and the bank and the public would be vastly well pleased with each other. But when the cycle of prosperity has gone by, and the cycle of adversity has begun; when the waters are out and the winds begin to blow; it is doubtful whether either the bank or its depositors may feel quite at ease. The former will probably raise the rate of interest; but it is doubtful whether that will have the wished-for effect. Should the exchange set against us, and the Bank of England be forced to narrow her issues, and should bankruptcy and a feeling of insecurity begin to prevail, as they have done hitherto on all similar occasions, a run for deposits may, and most probably will, be made upon the bank; and in such a case her situation, however well she may have been managed, will be most critical. She will be compelled to dispose of, or pledge securities in a market where they may be all but unsaleable; and it will be impossible for her suddenly to pull up in discounting, without exposing herself to the imminent danger of extra loss, by bringing on the stoppage of those who have been accustomed to trust to her for loans.

It will be said, perhaps, that this is all imaginary, and that nothing of the sort ever occurs in Scotland! But it would really be about as much to the purpose to say that nothing of the sort ever occurs in Japan. London is the pivot on which the foreign exchanges turn, and when they become depressed, many of the London depositors will do what the Scotch depositors never so much as dreamed of; that is, they will demand their deposits, convert them into gold, and either send this gold abroad, or get a profit from those who will. From this source of annoyance and loss the Scotch banks are perfectly free; and this, by exhausting the resources of the London banks, and subjecting the weaker ones to difficulties, occasions discredit, and, in the end, runs or panics. Nothing, therefore, can be more perfectly futile than to contend that, because this system has proved profitable for the Scotch banks, it will also be profitable for the London banks. We do not presume to affirm that such will not, and we hope that it may be the case. But it would be rather illogical to affirm, because wheat succeeds remarkably well in the vale of Gloucester, that it will succeed equally well on the Welsh mountains.

The joint stock banks may, if they do not already, endeavour to obviate some of the difficulties now stated, by declining to pay interest on deposits unless they lie for a certain time, or by stipulating for a certain notice before they are paid. The first condition would, however, be of little effect in the evil day; but, either the one condition or the other is altogether subversive of what is meant by granting interest on deposits, and goes far to make the announcements to that effect little better than a hoax upon the public. All, or nearly all, the existing banks, are banks of deposits in this sense of the word; that is, they give interest on deposits of a certain amount, provided they be not called for till after the lapse of an agreed-on period, and that the depositors give them no farther trouble. But it is doubtful whether money deposited at 2 per cent. under such conditions, and still more under an engagement to give notice of demand, be as well laid out as if it were deposited with the Bank of England, or any other bank of undoubted solidity, at no interest, but payable on demand. Most men of business would, we believe, prefer the latter. Nobody, indeed, not wishing to get into difficulties, would be disposed to deal with any bank that required notice of demand; and it is questionable whether any such stipulation should be sanctioned by law.—*S.*

After the paragraph ending in the middle of page 110 of this edition, read the following:

But it is unnecessary to go back, even so far as 1836, for conclusive proofs that the issues of private banks are not governed by any principle other than the supposed interests of the parties. We have already seen that the Bank of England did not contract her issues so vigorously or systematically as she should have done when the supply of bullion in her coffers began to be reduced towards the end of 1838. Still, however, she did reduce her issues. During the quarter ending the 18th of September, 1838, the issues of the Bank of England amounted to 19,655,000*l.*; and they were progressively reduced till, in the quarter ending the 30th of June, 1839, they amounted to 18,101,000*l.*, being a reduction of about 1½ million. The reduction was also accompanied by a rapid diminution of the bullion in the Bank's coffers, by a rise in the rate of interest, and by great apprehensions in all moderately well-informed quarters as to what might be the ultimate result. Now what was the conduct of the joint stock and private banks during this period? Did they make any reduction of their issues, or did they so much as abstain from increasing them? No such thing! on the contrary, their issues, which amounted to 11,364,000*l.* at an average of the quarter ending

the 29th of September, 1838, rose to 19,275,819*l.* during the quarter ending the 29th of June, 1839, being an increase of about one million during the very period in which the Bank of England had reduced her issues 1½ millions? And but for the increasing difficulty of obtaining pecuniary accommodation in London, and the rise in the rate of interest, they would, no doubt, have gone on increasing their issues though the bank had been drained of her last shilling.

We do not, however, blame the joint stock and private banks for this: the government and legislature are the real culprits. What can be expected from a system which permits every cobbler and cheesemonger, and every association, how bankrupt soever in fortune and character, to usurp the royal prerogative, and issue paper money at pleasure? But though all private bankers, and all managers of joint stock banking companies, were patterns of honesty and intelligence, the result would not be materially different. The evil lies far more in the number than in the character of the issuers. When bullion is leaving the country, and the Bank of England is narrowing her issues and raising the rate of interest, many, perhaps we might say the majority, of the country bankers see that danger is abroad, and that they should also contract their issues; but being a very numerous body, comprising the managers of several hundred establishments scattered over all parts of the kingdom, jealous of each other, and with rival and opposing interests, no sort of concert ever prevails among them. Each is also impressed with the well-founded conviction, that all that *he* could do in the way of contraction would be all but imperceptible; and no one ever thinks of attempting it so long as he feels satisfied of the stability of those with whom he deals. On the contrary, every banker knows, were he to withdraw a portion of his notes, that some of his competitors would, most likely, embrace the opportunity of filling up the vacuum so created; and that consequently he should lose a portion of his business, without in any degree lessening the amount of paper afloat. Hence in nineteen out of twenty instances the country banks go on increasing their aggregate issues long after the exchange has been notoriously against the country, and the Bank of England has been striving to pull up. The fact is, that ruinous fluctuations in its amount and value are of the very essence of a currency supplied by different issuers. If the country continue to tolerate the latter, it must unavoidably continue to suffer the perpetual recurrence of the former.

I.—Return of all Places where United or Joint Stock Banks have been established under the Act 7 Geo. IV. c. 46., in ENGLAND and WALES; with the Dates when such Banks were established, and the Number of Partners therein, down to the 5th of January, 1839.

Name of the Bank.	Place.	Date when established.	Number of Partners.		
			1838.	1837.	1836.
Ashton, Stalybridge, Hyde, and Glossop Bank.	Ashton-under-Lyne	18 June 1836	303	317	299
Bank of Bolton	Bolton	30 May 1829	163	163	165
Bank of Birmingham	Birmingham	9 Aug. 1829	251	245	240
Bank of Liverpool	Liverpool	23 April 1831	526	503	520
Bank of Manchester	Manchester, Stockport, Bolton, Newtown and Llanidloes.	19 Mar. 1829	648	677	660
Bank of Stockport	Stockport	3 May 1836	264	231	215
Bank of Walsall and South Staffordshire.	Walsall and Penkridge	10 Aug. 1835	152	154	149
Bank of South Wales	Carmarthen	20 Feb. 1835	7		
Bank of Westmoreland	Kendal	8 June 1833	153	153	153
Bank of Whitehaven	Whitehaven and Wigton	23 Jan. 1827	-	122	121
Barnsley Banking Company	Barnsley	25 Jan. 1832	116	112	111
Bilston District Banking Co.	Bilston	31 Aug. 1836	150	150	131
Birmingham Banking Co.	Birmingham	20 Sept. 1829	304	298	465
Birmingham Borough Bank	Birmingham	28 Mar. 1837	-	116	90
Birmingham and Midland Bank	Birmingham	18 Aug. 1836	277	265	180
Birmingham Town and District Banking Company.	Birmingham	4 July 1836	599	398	397
Bradford Banking Company	Bradford	7 July 1827	170	167	165
Bradford Commercial Joint Stock Banking Company.	Bradford	27 Feb. 1833	159	155	159
Bristol Old Bank	Bristol	16 June 1826	8	7	7
Bury Banking Company	Bury	14 June 1836	104	110	108
Carlisle City and District Banking Company.	Carlisle and Cockermouth	20 Feb. 1827	-	280	315
Carlisle and Cumberland Banking Company.	Carlisle, Wigton and Appleby	8 Oct. 1836	284	284	275
Central Bank of Liverpool	Liverpool	3 Dec. 1836	54	-	40
Cheltenham and Gloucestershire Bank.	Cheltenham and Tewkesbury	19 May 1836	143	151	157
Chesterfield and North Derbyshire Banking Company.	Chesterfield	31 Dec. 1831	96	97	96
Commercial Bank of England	Ashbourn, Birmingham, Blackburn, Burnley, Liverpool, Preston, Rochdale, Burslem, Hanley, Leek, Uttoxeter, Ludlow, Newport, Shrewsbury, Whitechurch, and Chester.	1 July 1836	674	664	627

Table I.—*continued.*

Name of the Bank.	Places.	Date when established.	Number of Partners. 1836.	1837.	1838.
County of Gloucester Bank -	Gloucester, Cheltenham, Burford, Cirencester, Farringdon, Tetbury, Dursley, Stroud, and Northleach.	1 Aug. 1836	280	281	276
Coventry Union Banking Company.	Coventry, Atherstone, Coleshill, Leamington and Tamworth.	13 May 1836	161	151	152
Coventry and Warwickshire Banking Company.	Coventry and Nuneaton - -	13 Dec. 1835	313	284	276
Cumberland Union Banking Company.	Workington, Cockermouth, Maryport, Wigton, Penrith, and Keswick.	13 Mar. 1829	149	146	149
Darlington District Joint Stock Banking Company.	Darlington, Stockton, Northallerton, Barnard Castle, Stokesley, Guisborough, Hartlepool, Bedale, Masham, Yarm, Brough, Stagshaw Bank, Durham, Ronaldkirk, and Middleton in Teesdale.	23 Dec. 1831	252	250	241
Derby and Derbyshire Banking Company.	Derby and Belper - - -	26 Dec. 1833	201	192	187
Devon and Cornwall Banking Company.	Plymouth, Devonport, Exeter, Kingsbridge, Tavistock, Totnes, Ashburton, St. Austell, Liskeard, Crediton, Bodmin, Dartmouth, Newton Abbott, Collumpton, and Launceston.	31 Dec. 1831	237	200	196
Dudley and West Bromwich Banking Company.	Dudley and West Bromwich -	30 Dec. 1833	192	185	179
East of England Bank - -	Norwich, Aylsham, East Dereham, Fakenham, Foulsham, Kenninghall, North Walsham, Thetford, Great Yarmouth, Beccles, Bungay, Halesworth, Harleston, Lowestoft, Wrentham, Ipswich, Eye, Saxmundham, Stowmarket, Woodbridge, Swaffham, Watton, Bury St. Edmund's, Ixworth, Mildenhall, Lynn, and Downham.	27 Feb. 1836	534	541	501
Glamorganshire Banking Co. -	Swansea and Neath - - -	8 Sept. 1836	83	107	102
Gloucestershire Banking Co. -	Gloucester, Cheltenham, Stroud, Tewkesbury, Newnham, and Evesham.	28 June 1831	259	248	258
Halifax Joint Stock Bank'g.Co.	Halifax - - - - -	11 Nov. 1829	202	207	207
Halifax Commercial Bank'g.Co	Halifax - - - - -	21 June 1836	169	167	164
Halifax and Huddersfield Union Bank.	Halifax and Huddersfield - -	29 June 1836	406	408	394
Hampshire Banking Company	Southampton, Fareham, and Romsey.	29 April 1834	150	152	172
Heiston Banking Company -	Heiston - - - - -	4 Aug. 1836	14	19	17
Herefordshire Banking Co. -	Hereford, Ross, Leominster, Coleford, Hay, Worcester, Evesham, and Pershore.	5 Aug. 1836	200	126	131
Huddersfield Banking Co. -	Huddersfield - - - - -	7 June 1827	332	326	330
Hull Banking Company -	Hull, Barton, Beverley, Goole, Grimsby, Lincoln, and Louth.	30 Nov. 1833	245	239	240
Imperial Bank of England -	Manchester, Macclesfield, Congleton, Nantwich, Northwich, Knutsford, and Sandbach.	16 Dec. 1836	637	656	654
Knaresborough and Clare Banking Company.	Knaresborough, Easingwold, Wetherby, Ripon, Helmsley, Thirsk, Boroughbridge, Masham, Pately Bridge, Otley, and Harrowgate.	14 Sept. 1831	163	162	161
Lancaster Banking Company	Lancaster, Ulverstone, and Preston.	9 Oct. 1826	129	127	135
Leamington Bank - - -	Leamington - - - - -	6 May 1835	172	165	167
Leamington Priors and Warwickshire Banking Company.	Leamington, Warwick, Southam, Kenilworth, and Bandbury.	27 Aug. 1835	133	111	104
Leeds Banking Company -	Leeds - - - - -	22 Nov. 1832	421	430	398
Leeds Commercial Banking Co.	Leeds - - - - -	21 June 1836	223	216	221
Leeds and West Riding Banking Company.	Leeds and Bradford - - -	26 Nov. 1835	235	245	234
Leicester Banking Company -	Leicester, Ashby de la Zouch, Hinckley, Market Harborough, and Melton Mowbray.	26 Aug. 1829	140	139	144
Leith Banking Company -	Carlisle - - - - -	23 Nov. 1827	9	9	
Lichfield, Rugeley, and Tamworth Banking Company.	Lichfield, Rugeley, and Tamworth	21 Nov. 1835	144	158	150
Lincoln and Lindsey Banking Company.	Lincoln, Gainsborough, Louth, Horncastle, Brigg, Market Rasen, Caister, Sleaford, Alford, Epworth, Spilsby and Partney.	10 Aug. 1833	226	225	220

Table I.—*continued.*

Name of the Bank.	Place.	Date when established.	Number of Partners.		
			1836.	1837.	1838.
Liverpool Albion Bank	Liverpool	28 Mar. 1836	519	434	354
Liverpool Banking Company	Liverpool	12 May 1836	319	201	198
Liverpool Borough Bank	Liverpool	2 June 1836	363	407	401
Liverpool Phœnix Bank	Liverpool	26 Jan. 1837	-	134	136
Liverpool Commercial Banking Company.	Liverpool	29 Dec. 1832	290	311	305
Liverpool Union Bank	Liverpool	2 May 1835	252	241	238
Manchester and Liverpool District Banking Company.	Manchester, Liverpool, Oldham, Ashton-under-Lyne, Preston, Warrington, Bury, Blackburn, Wigan, Stalybridge, Rochdale, Stockport, Nantwich, Hyde, Hanley, Stafford, Burslem, Leek, Lane End, Cheadle, Rugeley, Market Drayton, and Glossop.	26 Nov. 1829	1,097	1,308	1,287
Manchester and Salford Bank	Manchester	15 June 1836	228	239	225
Monmouthshire and Glamorganshire Banking Company.	Newport, Pontypool, Chepstow, Usk, Tredegar Ironworks, Abergavenny, Monmouth, Lydney, Cardiff, Bridgend, and Swansea.	26 July 1836	296	341	339
Moore & Robinson, Nottinghamshire Banking Company.	Nottingham	12 July 1836	132	146	157
National Provincial Bank of England.	Aberystwith, Amlwch, Barnstaple, Torrington, Bath, Shepton-Mallet, Castle Cary, Marshfield, Bideford, Birmingham, Boston, Spalding, Brecon, Hay, Bristol, Bury St. Edmund's, Cardiff, Bridgend, Cowbridge, Cheltenham, Darlington, Barnard Castle, Devonport, Dolgelly, Ruthin, Machynlleth, Dursley, Exeter, Okehampton, Gloucester, Hereford, Honiton, Ilfracombe, Ipswich, Woodbridge, Kingsbridge, Leicester, Lichfield, Manchester, Peterborough, Wittlesea, Croyland, Ramsey, Plymouth, Pwllheli, Portmadoc, Ramsgate, Rugby, Rugeley, Stockton, Southmolton, Southampton, Tamworth, Tiverton, Wem, Whitchurch, Wisbeach, Chatteris, Long Sutton, Holbeach, March, Worcester, Ledbury, Bromyard, Wotton-under-Edge, Sodbury, Yarmouth, Halesworth, and Lowestoft.	27 Dec. 1833	619	690	712
Newcastle Commercial Banking Company.	Newcastle-upon-Tyne	16 July 1836	226	134	162
Newcastle, Shields, and Sunderland Union Joint Stock Banking Company.	Newcastle-upon-Tyne, North Shields, South Shields, Sunderland, Alnwick, Morpeth, Hexham, Alston, Hartlepool, Durham, and Bishop Auckland.	11 July 1836	408	446	462
Newcastle-upon-Tyne Joint Stock Banking Company.	Newcastle-upon-Tyne	27 June 1836	65	71	55
North and South Wales Bank	Dolgelly, Festiniog, Bala, Machynlleth, Pwllheli, Welshpool, Bishop's Castle, Llandilloes, Oswestry, Llanfyllin, Ruthin, Carnarvon, Chester, Denbigh, Mold, Aberystwith, Wrexham, Newtown, Bangor, Llangefin, Holyhead, Llanrwst, Holywell, Ellesmere, Tremadoc, St. Asaph, Conway, Amlwch, Cardigan, Carmarthen, Brecon, Llanelly, Llandilo, Swansea, Merthyr Tidvil, Cardiff, Neath, Haverfordwest, Pembroke, Kington, Abergavenny, Newport, and Shrewsbury.	30 April 1836	608	599	479
Northamptonshire Union Bank	Northampton, Wellingborough, and Daventry.	13 May 1836	512	419	420
Northamptonshire Banking Co.	Northampton, Daventry, Wellingborough, and Stamford.	23 May 1836	233	217	216
Northern and Central Bank of England.	Manchester	18 Mar. 1834	1,327	1,171	1,088

Table I.—*continued.*

Name of the Bank.	Places.	Date when established.	Number of Partners.		
			1836.	1837.	1838.
Northumberland and Durham District Banking Company.	Newcastle-upon-Tyne, North Shields, South Shields, Alnwick, Morpeth, and Sunderland.	23 May 1836	484	394	363
North Wilts Banking Company	Melksham, Devizes, Bradford, Trowbridge, Calne, Chippenham, Corsham, Westbury, Warminster, Marlborough, Malmesbury, Swindon, Highworth, and Watton Bassett.	6 Nov. 1835	240	240	238
Nottingham and Nottinghamshire Banking Company.	Nottingham, Newark, Mansfield, Worksop, East Retford, Tuxford, and Loughborough.	12 April 1834	355	341	334
North of England Joint Stock Banking Company.	Newcastle-upon-Tyne, North Shields, South Shields, Sunderland, Berwick-upon-Tweed, Morpeth, Hexham, Durham, Wooler, Alston, Blythe, Alnwick, Belford, Hatherhistle, Bishop Auckland, Wolsingham, Stanhope, Stockton, Darlington, Hartlepool, Sedgefield, and Barnard Castle.	26 Mar. 1832	622	625	610
Oldham Banking Company -	Oldham - - - -	20 Sept. 1836	64	69	56
Pares' Leicestershire Banking Company.	Hinckley, Melton Mowbray, Loughborough, and Leicester.	15 Mar. 1836	49	46	53
Royal Bank of Liverpool -	Liverpool - - - -	30 April 1836	314	286	287
Saddleworth Banking Company	Saddleworth, Ashton-under-Lyne, and Oldham.	29 June 1833	113	110	107
Sheffield Banking Company -	Sheffield and Rotherham -	24 June 1831	205	203	210
Sheffield and Hallamshire Banking Company.	Sheffield - - - -	20 May 1836	608	617	638
Sheffield and Rotherham Joint Stock Banking Company.	Sheffield, Rotherham, and Bakewell	25 June 1836	260	275	275
Shropshire Banking Company	Shifnall, Wellington, Newport, and Coalbrook Dale.	27 May 1836	262	276	270
South Lancashire Bank -	Manchester - - - -	25 May 1836	753	411	362
Southern District Banking Company.	Southampton, Guernsey, Jersey, Portsmouth, Portsea, Gosport, Newport, Ryde, and Cowes.	23 Nov. 1837	- -	124	109
Stamford, Spalding, and Boston Joint Stock Banking Co.	Stamford, Bourn, Spalding, Market Deeping, Boston, Spilsby, Crowland, Wainfleet, Burgh, Swineshead, Holbeach, Grantham, Oundle, Peterborough, Oakham, and Uppingham.	26 Dec. 1831	91	93	87
Stockton and Durham County Bank.	Stockton-on-Tees - -	8 Dec. 1838	- -	- -	122
Stourbridge and Kidderminster Banking Company.	Stourbridge, Kidderminster, Stratford-on-Avon, Henley-in-Arden, Bromsgrove, Redditch, Shipston-on-Stour, Chipping Norton, Morton-in-Marsh, and Alcester.	9 April 1834	223	220	195
Stuckey's Banking Company -	Bristol, Bridgwater, Taunton, Langport, Wells, Bath, Frome, Shepton Mallet, Glastonbury, Wincanton, Chard, Crewkerne, Yeovil, Axbridge, Banwell, Weston-super-Mare, Midsomer Norton, Bruton, Castle Cary, Ilchester, Somerton, South Petherton, Martock, Ilminster, Wellington, Williton, and Stowey.	9 Oct. 1826	30	38	47
Sunderland Joint Stock Banking Company.	Sunderland - - - -	4 Aug. 1836	150	145	145
Swaledale and Wensleydale Banking Company.	Richmond, Leyburn, Bedale, Hawes, Reeth, Middleham, Askrigg, Masham, Northallerton, and Ripon.	30 Dec. 1836	224	223	218
Union Bank of Manchester -	Manchester - - - -	6 May 1836	605	449	411
Wakefield Banking Company -	Wakefield - - - -	25 Oct. 1832	200	192	196
Warwick and Leamington Banking Company.	Warwick, Leamington, Alcester, Stratford-on-Avon, Southam, Henley-in-Arden, and Shipston-on-Stour.	10 Sept. 1834	132	125	111
West of England and South Wales District Bank.	Bristol, Bath, Barnstaple, Bridgwater, Cardiff, Exeter, Newport, Taunton, Wells, Axbridge, Glastonbury, Merthyr, and Somerton.	23 Dec. 1834	541	558	565
Western District Banking Company.	Plymouth, Falmouth, Devonport, Totnes, Truro, Penzance, Kingsbridge, and St. Columb.	1 Sept. 1830	278	312	322

Table I.—*continued.*

Name of the Bank.	Places.	Date when established.	Number of Partners.		
			1836.	1837.	1838.
West Riding Union Banking Company.	Huddersfield, Dewsbury, and Wakefield.	29 Dec. 1832	492	461	409
Whitehaven Joint Stock Banking Company.	Whitehaven and Penrith -	25 May 1836	227	215	228
Wilts and Dorset Banking Company.	Salisbury, Warminster, Devizes, Trowbridge, Chippenham, Marlborough, Malmesbury, Wotton Bassett, Mere, Frome, Yeovil, Dorchester, Blandford, Wimborne, Sherborne, Gillingham, Fordingbridge, Christchurch, Lymington, and Axminster.	11 June 1836	465	454	443
Wolverhampton and Staffordshire Banking Company.	Wolverhampton - - -	26 Dec. 1831	238	234	230
York City and County Banking Company	York, Malton, Selby, Howden, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Ripon, and Goole.	2 Mar. 1830	267	266	263
York Union Banking Company	York, Driffield, Bridlington, Thirsk, Malton, Pocklington, Helmsley, Kirby Moorside, Market Weighton, Tadcaster, and Pickering.	23 April 1833	267	267	271
Yorkshire Agricultural and Commercial Banking Co.	York, Whitby, Driffield, Malton, Hull, Leeds, and Pocklington.	27 July 1836	736	604	619
Yorkshire District Bank -	York, Hull, Sheffield, Halifax, Leeds, Doncaster, Bawtry, Thorne, Selby, Thirsk, Northallerton, Easingwold, Malton, Bradford, Pontefract, Skipton, Knaresborough, Otley, Wetherby, Ripon, Pateley Bridge, Masham, Huddersfield, Beverley, North Cave, Dewsbury, Barnsley, Richmond, Wakefield, Settle, and Gisburn.	30 July 1834	1,006	1,113	1,055

2.—A RETURN of the Joint Stock Banks existing in SCOTLAND, on the 5th of January, 1839; specifying the Date of the Establishment of each Bank, the Number and Situation of its Branches (where it has any), and the Number of Partners in each Bank, during each of the Years 1836, 1837, and 1838.

Name of the Bank, and Situation of the Head Office.	Year when established.	Number of Branches, and Towns where Branches are established.		Number of Partners.		
		No.	Branches at 5th of January, 1839.	1836.	1837.	1838.
1. The Bank of Scotland - Head office, Edinburgh.	1695	29	Banchory, Aberdeen, and Fraserburgh, Aberdeenshire. Cumnock, Kilmarnock, and Ayr. Ayrshire. Whithorn, Wigtownshire. Dumfries, Dumfries-shire. Dundee and Montrose, Forfarshire. Dunfermline, Kirkaldy, and St. Andrew's, Fifeshire. Dunse and Lauder, Berwickshire. Leith, Mid Lothian. Falkirk and Stirling, Stirlingshire. Glasgow, Airdrie, and Strathaven, Lanarkshire. Haddington, Haddingtonshire. Inverness, Inverness-shire. Kelso, Roxburghshire. Kirkcudbright, Kirkcudbrightshire. Perth, Perthshire. Stonehaven, Kincardineshire. Greenock and Paisley, Renfrewshire.	Being chartered banks, these make no return of partners.		
2. The Royal Bank of Scotland. Head office, Edinburgh.	1727	7	Greenock and Port Glasgow, Renfrewshire. Glasgow, Lanarkshire. Dundee, Forfarshire. Dalkeith and Leith, Mid Lothian. Rothesay, Buteshire. (Rothesay and Port Glasgow being sub-agencies to Greenock.)			
3. The British Linen Company. Head office, Edinburgh.	1746	44	Wishaw, Carluke, Glasgow, and Hamilton, Lanarkshire. Golspie, Sutherlandshire. Irvine, Ayrshire. Paisley, Renfrewshire. Annan, Dumfries, Langholm, and Sanquhar, Dumfries-shire. Leith, Mid Lothian. Aberdeen, Aberdeenshire. Arbroath, Montrose, Dundee, Brechin, and Kerriemuir, Forfarshire. Castle Douglas, Kirkcudbrightshire. Coldstream and Dunse, Berwickshire. Cupar			

Table II.—*continued.*

Name of the Bank, and Situation of the Head Office.	Year when established.	Number of Branches, and Towns where Branches are established.		Number of Partners.		
		No.	Branches at 5th of January, 1839.	1836.	1837.	1838.
			and Dunfermline, Fifeshire. Dunbar and Haddington, Haddingtonshire. Elgin, Elginshire. Forres, Morayshire. Hawick, Jedburgh, Kelso, and Melrose, Roxburghshire. Inverness, Fort William, and Kingussie, Inverness-shire. Kinross, Kinross-shire. Newton Stewart, Stranraer, and Wigtown, Wigtownshire. Peebles, Peebles-shire. Perth, Perthshire. Selkirk, Selkirkshire. Tain, Ross-shire. Balfron, Stirlingshire. Nairn, Nairnshire.			
4. The Commercial Bank of Scotland. Head office, Edinburgh.	1810	61	Cupar-Angus, Forfarshire. Invergordon and Tain, Ross-shire. Aberdeen, Peterhead, and Turiff, Aberdeenshire. Alloa, Clackmannanshire. Dumfries and Annan, Dumfries-shire. Leith and Musselburgh, Mid Lothian. Dumbarton, Dumbartonshire. Dunkeld, Perthshire. Elgin, Elginshire. Eyemouth, Berwickshire. Falkirk, Stirling, and Grangemouth, Stirlingshire. Gatehouse, Kirkcudbrightshire. Hawick, Kelso, and Melrose, Roxburghshire. Inverness, Inverness-shire. Kilmarnock, Ayrshire. Kirkwall, Island of Orkney. Linlithgow, Linlithgowshire. Thurso and Wick, Caithness-shire. Dunbar, East Lothian. Banff, Banffshire. Kincardine, Kincardineshire.	(No return.)		
5. The National Bank of Scotland. Head office, Edinburgh.	1825	35	Islay, Inverary, and Oban, Argyleshire. Sanquhar and Dumfries, Dumfries-shire. Leith and Dalkeith, Mid Lothian. Aberdeen, Aberdeenshire. Airdrie and Glasgow, Lanarkshire. Bathgate, Linlithgowshire. Anstruther, Burntisland, and Kirkaldy, Fifeshire. Banff, Banffshire. Castle Douglas, Kirkcudbrightshire. Dingwall and Stornoway, Ross-shire. Dundee and Montrose, Forfarshire. Falkirk and Stirling, Stirlingshire. Forres and Grantown, Morayshire. Fort William, Inverness, and Portree, Inverness-shire. Galashiels, Selkirkshire. Kelso, Jedburgh, and Hawick, Roxburghshire. Kirkwall, Islands of Orkney and Shetland. Nairn, Nairnshire. Perth, Perthshire. Stromness, Island of Orkney.			
6. The Aberdeen Bank - - Head office, Aberdeen.	- -	11	Ellon, Tarland, Peterhead, Fraserburgh, Inverury, and Huntly, Aberdeenshire. Fochabers, Cullen, Banff, and Keith, Banffshire. Elgin, Morayshire.	122	163	169
7. The Ayr Bank - - Head office, Ayr.	- -	6	Troon, Galston, Kilmarnock, Irvine, Maybole, and Girvan, Ayrshire.	10	11	11
8. The Dundee Banking Company. Head office, Dundee.	- -	1	Forfar, Forfarshire - - -	57	54	53
9. The Dundee Union Bank Head office, Dundee.	- -	4	Forfar, Arbroath, Montrose, and Brechin, Forfarshire.	79	80	69
10. The Dundee New Bank - Head office, Dundee.	- -	- -	Dissolved 10th of October, 1838 -	4	6	
11. The Glasgow Bank Co. Head office, Glasgow.*	- -	1	Kirkaldy, Fifeshire - - -	27	30	26

* N. B. The name of this Bank was altered in 1837 to the "Glasgow and Ship Bank," when it was joined to the private Bank Carrick, Brown, & Co., or the Ship Bank.

Table II.—*continued.*

Name of the Bank and Situation of the Head Office.	Year when established.	Number of Branches, and Towns where Branches are established.		Number of Partners.		
		No.	Branches at 5th of January, 1839.	1836.	1837.	1838.
12. The Greenock Bank - - Head office, Greenock.	- -	3	Glasgow, Lanarkshire. Port Glasgow, Renfrewshire. Rothesay, Buteshire.	(Private Bank.)		
13. The Leith Bank - - Head office, Leith.	- -	11	Musselburgh, and Portobello, Mid Lothian, and also Edinburgh, and Dalkeith. Callender, Doune, and Crieff, Perthshire. Galashiels, Selkirkshire. Stirling, Falkirk, and Stenhousemuir, Stirlingshire.	9	9	
14. The Paisley Bank - - Head office, Paisley.	- -	- -	Discontinued 20th of Nov. 1832. -	4 185	4 152	 152
15. The Perth Banking Co. Head office, Perth.	- -	3	Dunkeld and Crieff, Perthshire. Cupar-Angus, Forfarshire.	(Private Bank.)		
16. The Renfrewshire Banking Company. - - Head office, Greenock.	- -	5	Port Glasgow, Renfrewshire. Glasgow, Lanarkshire. Inverary and Campbeltown, Argyleshire. Rothesay, Buteshire.			
17. The Paisley Union Bank Head office, Paisley.	1809	- -	Joined to Glasgow Union Banking Company.	3	3	
18. The Aberdeen Town and County Bank. Head office, Aberdeen.	1825	11	Wick, Thurso, and Pultney-town, Caithness-shire. Huntly, Ellon, Inverury, and Peterhead, Aberdeenshire. Dingwall, Ross-shire. Stonehaven, Kincardineshire. Keith, Banffshire. Golspie, Sutherlandshire.	470	474	491
19. The Arbroath Bank - Head office, Arbroath.	1825	1	Forfar, Forfarshire.	81	83	80
20. The Dundee Commercial Bank. Head office, Dundee.	1825	- -	Dissolved, 10th of October, 1838.	146	137	141
21. The Glasgow Union Banking Company. Head office, Glasgow.	1830	20	Johnstone, Greenock, Paisley, Edinburgh, Mid Lothian. Port Glasgow, and Neilston, Renfrewshire. Inverary and Lochgilphead, Argyleshire. Stranraer, Wigtonshire. Lerwick, Island of Shetland. Ayr, Stewarton, and Beith, Ayrshire. Alloa, Clackmannanshire. Kincardine, Kincardineshire. Auchtermuchty, Fifeshire. Bathgate, Linlithgowshire. Strathaven, Lanarkshire. Moffat, and Thornhill, Dumfries-shire.	483	484	508
22. The Ayrshire Banking Company. Head office, Ayr.	1831	7	Ardrossan, Girvan, Maybole, Kilmarnock, Irvine, Saltcoats, and Cumnock, Ayrshire.	98	104	97
23. The Western Bank of Scotland. Head office, Glasgow.	1832	21	Coatbridge, Airdrie, Hamilton, and Lanark, Lanarkshire. Kirkintilloch, Dumbartonshire. North Berwick, and Haddington, Haddingtonshire. Campsie, and Kilsyth, Stirlingshire. Dairy, and Largs, Ayrshire. Greenock, Paisley, and Lochwinnoch, Renfrewshire. Edinburgh, Musselburgh, and Portobello, Mid Lothian. Dumfries, and Locherbie, Dumfries-shire. Alloa, Clackmannanshire. Blairgowrie, Perthshire.	467	454	469
24. The Central Bank of Scotland. Head office, Perth.	1834	7	Aberfeldry, Auchterarder, Pitlochry, Dunkeld, Killin, and Crieff, Perthshire. Newburgh, Fifeshire.	469	402	465
25. The North of Scotland Banking Company. Head office, Aberdeen.	1836		Fraserburgh, Alford, Tarland, Huntley, Turriff, Ellon, Old Deer, Strichen, Old Meldrum, Inverury, and Inch, Aberdeenshire. Keith, Dufftown, Abercherder, Macduff, and Banff, Banffshire. Elgin, Morayshire. Tain, and Invergordon, Cromartyshire.	830	833	1,504
26. The Clydesdale Banking Company. Head office, Glasgow	1837	1	Edinburgh, Mid Lothian.	- -	731	818
27. The Southern Bank of Scotland. Head office, Dumfries.	1837	5	Newton-Stewart, Whithorn, Stranrear, and Locherbie, Dumfries-shire. New Galloway, Kirkcudbrightshire.	- -	- -	226
28. Eastern Bank of Scotland. Head office, Dundee.	1838	1	Edinburgh, Mid Lothian.	- -	- -	774
29. Edinburgh and Leith Bank Head office, Edinburgh.	1838	- -	- - - - - - - -	- -	- -	785

Note.—No. 1, being established by Act of Parliament, and Nos. 2, 3, 4 and 5, incorporated by Royal Charter, do not require to lodge List of Partners, in pursuance of the Act 7 Geo. 4. c. 67. The date of establishment of Nos. 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 16, not ascertained, but licensed to issue Notes in the year 1808, when the Licence Duties were first imposed.

§ A Return of Joint Stock Banks existing in IRELAND on the 5th day of January, 1839; specifying the Date of the establishment of each Bank, the Number and situation of its Branches, and the Number of Partners in each Bank, in the years 1836, 1837, and 1838.

Banks.	Date of Establishment.	No. of Branches.	Year ending 5th of Jan. 1839. Situation of Branches.	Number of Partners. 1836.	1837.	1838.
The Hibernian Joint Stock Company.	June 1825	by spec	ial Act, 5 Geo. 4. c. 159.			
The Provincial Bank of Ireland.	Sept. 1825	34	Armagh, Athlone, Ballina, Ballymena, Ballyshannon, Banbridge, Bandon, Belfast, Cavan, Clonmel, Coleraine, Cork, Cootehill, Downpatrick, Dungannon, Dungarven, Ennis, Enniskillen, Galway, Kilkenny, Limerick, Londonderry, Lurgan, Mallow, Monaghan, Moneymore, Omagh, Parsonstown, Sligo, Strabane, Tralee, Waterford, Wexford, and Youghal.	643	707	738
The Northern Banking Company.	31 Dec. 1825	11	Armagh, Ballymena, Belfast, Carrickfergus, Coleraine, Downpatrick, Lisburn, Londonderry, Lurgan, Magherafelt, and Newtownlimavady.	210	204	195
The Belfast Company -	30 Dec. 1827	17	Armagh, Ballymena, Ballymoney, Belfast, Coleraine, Cookstown, Derry, Dungannon, Larne, Lurgan, Magherafelt, Monaghan, Newtownlimavady, Newtownards, Portadown, Strabane, Tanderagee.	286	285	280
The National Bank of Ireland.	24 Jan. 1835	15	Athlone, Ballinasloe, Ballina, Banagher, Boyle, Castlebar, Castlerea, Galway, Longford, Loughrea, Moate, Roscommon, Sligo, Tuam, and Westport.	250	290	463
The Limerick National Bank of Ireland.	17 Aug. 1835	5	Charleville, Ennis, Kilrush, Limerick, and Rathkeale.	520	554	684
The Agricultural and Commercial Bank of Ireland.	26 Oct. 1834	28	Armagh, Belfast, Boyle, Castlebar, Clones, Cork, Dungannon, Enniscorthy, Fermoy, Galway, Kilkenny, Killarney, Limerick, Londonderry, Mallow, Nenagh, Parsonstown, Roscommon, Roscrea, Skibbereen, Sligo, Strokestown, Thomastown, Thurles, Tipperary, Tralee, Tuam, and Waterford.	2,656	3,092	3,672
The Clonmel National Bank	20 May 1836	3	Cashel, Clonmel, and Thurles.	465	487	446
The Carrick-on-Suir National Bank.	21 May 1836	1	Carrick-on-Suir - -	391	416	571
The Waterford National Bank.	23 May 1836	4	Dungarven, New Ross, Tallow, and Waterford.	434	451	618
The Wexford and Enniscorthy National Bank.	24 May 1836	2	Enniscorthy and Wexford -	393	417	589
The Tipperary National Bank.	26 May 1836	5	Fermoy, Mitchelstown, Nenagh, Roscrea, and Tipperary.	429	456	620
The Tralee National Bank -	27 May 1836	6	Cahirciveen, Dingle, Kanturk, Killarney, Tarbert, and Tralee.	411	444	600
The Ulster Banking Company.	15 April 1836	9	Antrim, Armagh, Ballymoney, Banbridge, Belfast, Cootehill, Downpatrick, Enniskillen, and Lurgan.	636	789	679
The Royal Bank of Ireland -	Nov. 1836	1	Dublin - - - - - -	304	363	334
The Southern Bank of Ireland.	11 Feb. 1837	- -	- - - - - - - -	- -	92	
The Cork National Bank.	17 Mar. 1837	1	Cork - - - - - -	- -	415	530
The Kilkenny National Bank	7 June 1837	1	Kilkenny - - - -	- -	370	516

II.—An Account of the aggregate Number of Notes circulated in England and Wales by Private Banks, and by Joint-Stock Banks and their Branches, distinguishing Private from Joint-Stock Banks.—From Returns directed by 3 and 4 Will. c. 83.

Quarters ended.	Private Banks.	Joint-Stock Banks.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.
31 Dec. 1836	7,753,500	4,258,197	12,011,697
1 April, 1837	7,275,784	3,755,278	11,031,062
1 July, ——	7,197,673	3,674,764	10,872,437
30 Sept. ——	6,701,996	3,441,053	10,143,049
30 Dec. ——	7,043,470	3,826,653	10,870,135
31 March, 1838	7,005,472	3,921,089	10,926,511
30 June, ——	7,383,347	4,362,256	11,745,603
29 Sept. ——	7,083,811	4,281,151	11,364,962
31 Dec. ——	7,599,943	4,625,549	12,225,492
30 March, 1839	7,642,104	4,617,362	11,259,467
29 June, ——	7,810,706	4,965,110	12,775,816
28 Sept. ——	6,917,857	4,167,913	11,084,970

BANKS (AMERICAN).—The system of banking in America has recently attracted a great deal of attention in this country; and it certainly deserves to be carefully studied and meditated, were it only for the incontestible evidence which it affords that, how flourishing soever in other respects, a country cursed with a vicious banking system may be every now and then involved in the greatest difficulties, and reduced almost to a state of bankruptcy. Considering the peculiarly favourable circumstances under which the United States are placed, the boundless extent of their fertile and unoccupied lands, the lightness of their public burdens, and the intelligence, enterprise, and economy of the people, it might be presumed that distress and bankruptcy would be all but unknown in the Union, and that she would be exempted from those revulsions which so seriously affect less favourably situated communities. But the very reverse of all this is the fact: discredit and bankruptcy are incomparably more prevalent in America than in any European country; and all sorts of industrious undertakings and monied fortunes are infinitely more secure in Russia, and even in Turkey, than in the United States! This anomalous and apparently inexplicable state of things is entirely a consequence of the American banking system, which seems to combine within itself everything that can make it an engine of unmixed evil. Had a committee of clever men been selected to devise means by which the public might be tempted to engage in all manner of absurd projects, and be most easily duped and swindled, we do not know that they could have hit upon anything half so likely to effect their object as the existing American banking system. It has no one redeeming quality about it, but is from beginning to end a compound of quackery and imposture. Our own banking system is bad enough certainly; but it is as superior to the American as can well be imagined. A radical reform of the latter, or, if that cannot be effected, its entire suppression, would be the greatest boon that can be conferred on the Union; and would be no slight advantage to every nation with which the Americans have any intercourse.

The American banks are all joint-stock associations. But instead of the partners being liable, as in England, for the whole amount of the debts of the banks, they are in general liable only for the amount of their shares, or for some fixed multiple thereof. It is needless to dwell on the temptation to commit fraud held out by this system, which has not a single countervailing advantage to recommend it. The worthlessness of the plan on which the banks are founded was evinced by the fact that, between 1811 and the 1st of May, 1830, no fewer than a hundred and sixty-five banks became altogether bankrupt, many of them paying only an insignificant dividend; and this exclusive of a much greater number that stopped for a while, and afterwards resumed payments. The wide-spread mischief resulting from such a state of things led to the devising of various complicated schemes for insuring the stability and prudent management of banks; but, as they all involve regulations which it is impossible to enforce, they are practically worse than useless. In Massachusetts, for example, it is provided that no bank for the issue of notes can go into operation in any way until at least half its capital stock be paid in gold and silver into the bank, and be actually existing in its coffers, and seen in them by inspectors appointed for that purpose; and the cashier of every bank is bound to make specific returns once a year of its debts and assets, on being required to do so by the secretary of state. But our readers need hardly be told that these elaborately contrived regulations are really good for nothing, unless it be to afford an easy mode of cheating and defrauding the public. Instances have occurred of banks having borrowed an amount of dollars equal to half their capital for *a single day*, and of such dollars having been examined by the inspectors appointed for that purpose, and reported by them, and sworn by a majority of the directors, to be the first instalment paid by the stockholders of the bank, and intended to remain in it.* We do not of course imagine that such disgraceful instances can be of common occurrence; but what is to be thought of a system which permits a company for the issue of paper-money, founded on such an abominable fraud, to enter on business with a sort of public attestation of its respectability? The publicity, too, to which the American banks are subject is injurious rather than otherwise. Those who are so disposed may easily manufacture such returns as they think most suitable to their views; and the more respectable banks endeavour, for a month or two previously to

* Gouge's Paper Money and Banking in the United States.

the period when they have to make their returns, to increase the amount of bullion in their coffers by temporary loans, and all manner of devices. The whole system is, in fact, bottomed on the most vicious principles. But it is unnecessary, after what has recently occurred, to insist further upon the gross and glaring defects of American banking. Perhaps no instance is to be found in the history of commerce of such a wanton over-issue of paper as took place in the United States in 1835 and 1836. The result was such as every man of sense must have anticipated. The revulsion to which it necessarily led, after producing a frightful extent of bankruptcy and suffering in all parts of the Union, compelled, in May, 1837, every bank within the States, without, we believe, a single exception, to suspend payments! In 1838, such of them as were not entirely swept off resumed specie payments; and in 1839, by far the larger number of them, with the bank of the United States at their head, again suspended payments!

The United States Bank is not merely, however, unable from temporary embarrassments to pay its notes in specie; it is entangled in more serious difficulties, and is believed by many to be substantially insolvent. If it be really in this predicament, it is what we did not anticipate. It was originally incorporated by Congress in 1816 for 20 years, and had a paid-up capital of 35,000,000 dollars, or of more than *seven millions* sterling. The question whether the charter should be renewed was debated with extraordinary vehemence in all parts of the Union. The late president, General Jackson, was violently opposed to the re-incorporation of the bank; and rejected a bill for that purpose that had been approved by both the other branches of the legislature. Ultimately, however, a majority of Congress came round to General Jackson's views, and the charter was definitively refused. The bank afterwards succeeded in obtaining a charter from the state of Pennsylvania. This, however, merely enables it to carry on business in that state, but it has since obtained leave from some of the other states to establish branches within their limits.

The embarrassments in which this institution has been involved are believed to have been mainly caused by the improvidence with which it has made advances on state stocks, the stocks of public companies, and such like securities. The extreme facility with which money, or rather what was called money, might be borrowed from the different banking establishments in America, in 1835 and 1836, created quite a mania for all sorts of joint stock and other speculative projects, such as banks, canals, railways, &c.; and this rage has been still farther promoted by the different state governments embarking deeply in the same sort of projects, and borrowing largely to carry them on. (See FUNDS, AMERICAN, in this Supp.) The bank of the United States is believed to have made very large advances on this sort of securities; and after the revulsion in America in 1836 and 1837, this bank and every other institution in the Union that had any stock of any kind to dispose of, sent it over to England, where the temptation of a high rate of interest made vast quantities be sold in 1837 and 1838. But notwithstanding the proverbial gullibility of John Bull, and his determination to confide in every thing of which he knows little or nothing, the market here was beginning to be overloaded with American securities, and the collision that took place in Maine, in March, 1839, put a complete stop to their further sale. The agent of the U. States Bank is understood, when this occurrence took place, to have had a very large amount of such securities on his hands; and he has since had the greatest difficulty in raising money upon them, except at a great sacrifice.

The bank of the United States is also believed to have been materially injured by the advances she made to the holders of cotton. It has been alleged, too, that these advances were made, not so much in the view of supporting credit in America as of procuring consignments for a particular house in Liverpool. But it is hardly possible to suppose that such should have been the case, or that an institution with 7,000,000*l.* of capital should have been perverted from its legitimate purpose, and brought into jeopardy for so paltry and disgraceful an object. Since the stoppage of the U. States Bank the following statement has appeared:

Statement of the Affairs of the Bank of the United States in Pennsylvania, Oct. 1. 1839.

Dr.	*Dollars.*
Bills discounted on personal security	11,319,469
Ditto, bank stock	182,601
Ditto, other security	17,926,032
Ditto of exchange	4,298,852
Bills receivable for post-notes	2,045,613
Loan to commonwealth	491,000
Stock accounts	17,792,337
Bond and mortgage	313,627
Due by the United States	9,267
Ditto, bank of the United States and agencies	12,042,796
Due by state banks	6,986,207
Ditto, state bank agencies	7,975,743
Real estate	878,670
Banking houses	416,000
Deficiencies	548
Expenses	111,184
Miles King, late navy agent, Norfolk	40,144
News of the bank of the U. States and branches	5,138,932
Ditto, states banks	2,196,815
Specie	1,045,273
Notes and financial expenses	178,491
Contingent interest	83,582
Total	94,448,762

Cr.	*Dollars.*
Capital stock	35,000,000
Issues of the late bank and branches	974,368
——— bank of the U. States and branches	12,474,000
Issues of post notes	9,0-2,4-9
Discount, exchange, and interest	495,398
Dividends unclaimed	81,709
Profit and loss	3,721,789
Agency, London, &c.	8,915,554
Contingent fund	850,435
Bond of the United States	1,986,589
Interest on bond to the United States	134,094
Foreign exchange	748,581
Due to bank of the U. States and branches	15,202,403
——— state banks	1,853,640
——— state bank agencies	235,749
——— deposits	3,2-3,610
——— Treasurer of the United States	11,337
Total	94,448,762

J. C., Cashier

Bank of the United States, Oct. 9. 1839.

But this account, like all others of the same kind, is absolutely worthless. It communicates no information, or none that can be depended upon, as to the real state of the bank. Who knows any thing of the value of the bills for 11,318,469 dollars, discounted on "private security?" or of those for the 17,926,022 dollars, discounted on "other security?" They may be, and, no doubt, will be said to be as good as cash! But who attaches any value to an unexamined balance sheet, put forth by an individual or association that has stopped payment? The rendering of such accounts is, in fact, nothing better than a mere farce.

If the bank of the United States be really insolvent and unable to meet its engagements, a question will most likely arise as to the liability of the holders of bank stock resident in this country to make good its engagements. Will the charter protect them, or will it not? This is a question which, we believe, has not hitherto been mooted, but no doubt it will soon force itself on the public attention. We do not know how the existing law may be interpreted; but if they are to be protected, the sooner it is changed the better. Had the United States Bank not opened an agency here, the case would have been different: but having opened an office, and transacted a large amount of business in London, it has become to all intents and purposes an English establishment; and the partners belonging to it in England must, one should think, be amenable to English law, and not to the law of Pennsylvania. If this be not the case, it will necessarily follow that any institution, though consisting wholly of Englishmen, that obtained a charter from any foreign state, even though it were not generally known that it was chartered, as the foreign law might not require this to be divulged, might open places of business in London and Liverpool, and, after getting some hundreds of thousands of pounds into debt, might suspend payments, and laugh at the credulous dupes they had reduced to beggary and ruin. It would be, no doubt, strenuously affirmed of such an institution, that it had a paid-up capital amounting, perhaps, to several millions sterling; that it was a "highly respectable" association, and conducted by gentlemen of the "highest character:" probably, too, a balance sheet would be occasionally put forth "demonstrating" its flourishing situation; and a portion of the press would not fail to direct the particular attention of its readers to the "admirable principle" on which it was founded, and the "ability" of its managers! John Bull must change very much, indeed, if these representations, combined with the advantageous terms that would very probably be offered to those dealing with it in the first instance, did not procure for it a considerable amount of credit. But in the end, it would, most likely, turn out that no one knew whether it ever had any paid-up capital. And, supposing it had, what is to hinder the partners or managers from dividing it wholly amongst themselves? The legislature of England has wisely refused to allow of partnerships (except in extraordinary cases) being instituted here with limited responsibility; being well convinced that, despite every possible precaution, they would be sure, in many instances to be perverted to the basest purposes. And is it to be endured that foreigners should acquire privileges in this country denied to natives? or that foreign governments should have power to organise and establish institutions amongst us on a principle which parliament justly regards as most objectionable? If the law of England authorise *this*, it is most certainly high time that it were amended, and that a check were given to what must otherwise be by far the safest and most profitable species of swindling. But we do not believe that such can be the law. British subjects who embark their capital in foreign trading associations may, in so far as respects their interest in them, be amenable only to the foreign law, provided the associations to which they belong restrict their operations to foreign countries. But should these associations send agents here, and open offices and carry on business within the United Kingdom, the case is altogether different: the legislature of Pennsylvania may be omnipotent at home, but it is impotent in England; it may, if it choose, institute trading companies, with limited responsibility, or with no responsibility at all; but if these be joined by Englishmen, make England the scene of their operations, and issue their balance sheets in the city of London, what are they in practice but English companies? And such of our countrymen as have embarked in them would seem to have but slender grounds of complaint, should they be taught that they are responsible to *our* law; that the law of a foreign country cannot protect them; and that they will be made liable, in the event of the concern becoming bankrupt, to the utmost shilling of their fortunes for its liabilities to British subjects.

Owing to the privilege claimed by the different states, and exercised without interruption from the Revolution downwards, it is, we fear, impossible to effect the suppression of local paper in America, or to establish a paper currency which should at all times vary in amount and value, as if it were metallic. But the states have it in their power to do that which is next best: they may compel all banks which issue notes to give security for their issues. This, though it would not prevent destructive oscillations in the amount and value of the currency, would, at all events, prevent those ruinous and ever-recurring stoppages and bankruptcies of the issuers of paper-money, that render the American banking system one of the severest scourges to which any people was ever subjected. Common sense and experience alike demonstrate the inefficacy of all the regulations enacted by the American legislatures to prevent the abuse of banking. It is in vain for them to lay it down that the issues shall never

exceed a certain proportion of the capital of the bank, and so forth. Such regulations are all very well, provided the banks choose to respect them; but there are no means whatever of insuring their observance; and their only effect is to make the public look for protection and security to what is altogether impotent and worthless for any good purpose. The suppression of local issues is indispensable in order to make a paper currency what it ought to be. If, however, this be impossible in America, there is nothing left but to take security from the issuers of notes. All schemes for the improvement of banks, by making regulations as to the proportion of their issues, and advances to their bullion, capital, &c., are downright delusion and quackery.

Table showing the Number and Capital of the various Banks existing in the United States at the undermentioned Periods. (See Letter of the Secretary of the Treasury, 8th January, 1838.)

States.	1st January, 1811.		1st January, 1820.		1st January, 1830.		December, 1837.		
	No. of Banks.	Capital estimated.	No. of Banks.	Capital estimated.	No. of Banks.	Capital estimated.	No. of Banks.	No. of Branches.	Capital authorized.
		Dollars.		*Dollars.*		*Dollars.*			*Dollars.*
Maine	8	1,250,000	15	1,654,000	18	2,050,000	52	..	5,535,000
New Hampshire	8	818,250	10	1,001,276	12	1,791,70	27	..	2,839,506
Vermont	0	..	1	44,935	10	437,885	30	..	2,300,000
Massachusetts	15	6,292,144	23	10,485,700	68	20,427,000	138	..	40,830,000
Rhode Island	13	1,917,000	30	2,992,036	47	8,1 8,397	94	..	18,300,000
Connecticut	5	1,933,000	8	3,699,337	13	4,465,177	31	3	5,685,807
New York	8	7,522,760	26	18,988,774	37	20,065,353	98	2	27,303,460
Pennsylvania	4	6,153,150	26	14,681,780	36	14,810,398	50	18	50,944,436
New Jersey	3	738,740	14	2,150,949	18	2,017,000	38	..	10,875,000
Delaware	0	..	6	974,200	5	950,000	4	4	4,410,000
Maryland	6	4,895,202	14	6,706,131	13	6,250,495	23	3	23,173,000
Dist. of Columbia	4	2,341,396	13	5,924,819	9	3,875,784	7	..	5,500,000
Virginia	1	1,500,00	4	5,212,186	4	5,671,100	6	18	5,531,200
North Carolina	5	1,576,600	3	2,964,587	3	2,195,000	9	7	5,000,000
South Carolina	4	3,475,000	6	4,475,000	5	4,851,000	10	2	22,956,518
Georgia	1	210,000	4	3,401,510	9	4,303,029	20	2	11,750,573
Florida	0	..	0	..	1	75,000	11	..	15,800,000
Alabama	0	..	3	468,118	2	643,503	3	4	14,451,969
Louisiana	1	754,000	4	2,567,430	4	5,665,940	16	49	54,554,000
Mississippi	0	..	1	900,000	1	950,000	14	22	20,400,000
Tennessee	1	100,000	3	2,119,792	1	737 817	4	4	6,600,000
Kentucky	1	340,000	42	5,807,481	0	..	4	10	9,246,640
Arkansas	0	..	0	..	0	..	2	2	3,500,000
Missouri	0	..	1	250,000	0	..	1	3	5,000,000
Illinois	0	..	2	140,910	0	..	2	6	2,800,000
Indiana	0	..	2	232,267	0	..	1	10	1,980,000
Ohio	4	926,000	20	1,791,468	11	1,454,266	52	1	12,900,000
Michigan	0	..	0	..	1	100,000	17	5	7,500,000
Wisconsin Territory	0	..	0	..	0	..	4	..	1,600,000
States Banks	88	42,810,801	307	102,210,811	389	116,102,286	709	178	440,195,710
United States' Bank	1	10,000,000	1	35,000,000	1	35,000,000			
Total	89	52,810,801	308	137,210,811	390	145,102,286	709	178	440,195,710

BATAVIA.

Abstract Statement of Revenue and Expenditure of the Java Bank, from 1st April, 1827, to 31 March, 1828.

Receipts.

	f.	c.	*f.*	c.
Interest on bills discounted, amounting to 21,622,329*f.* 72c.	540,778	70		
Interest on loans, 6 per cent., 4,029,465*f.*	25,492	48		
Interest on credit accounts, 395,695*f.*	22,003	64		
Commission on copper, paper, and sundry minor sources of revenue	23,119	94		
Batavia establishment			611,393	96
Samarang.				
Amount of bills discounted, 1,808,069*f.* 60c.	57,504	92		
Amount of loans, 853,061*f.* 34c.	7,652	90		
Credit accounts, 127,126*f.*	11,445	99		
Commission on bills discounted, payable in Batavia, &c., and sundry revenue	4,913	24	81,515	05
Sourabaya.				
Amount discounted, 2,855,923*f.*	60,886	16		
Amount of loans, 407,554*f.*	2,209	04		
Amount of credits, 106,791*f.*	9,790	81		
Commission on bills payable in Samarang and Batavia, 1-8 per cent., &c.	5,086	45		
			77,972	46
Total			770,866	97

Charges.

	f.	c.		
Batavia	31,139	62		
Samarang	13,151	50		
Sourabaya	12,547	24		
			106,836	36
Leaves nett gain			669,030	01

or 33 1-2 per cent. on original capital of two millions.

Account of the principal Articles of Produce exported from Java during each of the Ten Years ending with 1827.

Year.	Coffee. Pic.	Pepper. Pic.	Indigo. Lbs.	Hides. No.	Cloves. Pic.	Nutmegs. Pic.	Sugar. Pic.	Tin. Pic.	Rice. Coyans.	Raisins. Pic.	Mace. Pic.	Arrack. Leag.
1818	216,182	8,226	23,010	49,400	1,862	1,648	23,870	19,505	15,548	31,501	600	534
1819	281,812	6,104	46,368	44,321	2,434	1,119	73,760	23,918	15,122	30,400	180	1,397
1820	288,740	6,061	22,053	30,249	303	1,304	108,640	21,428	13,521	5,080	177	1,927
1821	299,096	7,856	42,994	63,271	1,681	2,540	120,226	20,252	18,637	5,188	145	1,497
1822	314,173	7,075	168,211	82,385	5,144	3,869	245,872	47,801	23,072	14,323	947	2,000
1823	250,166	5,407	217,480	75,421	1,943	1,171	210,947	44,304	30,344	16,731	603	1,644
1824	455,008	7,704	250,423	53,000	4,040	4,200	367,131	39,165	23,379	14,909	1,192	1,483
1825	466,871	11,868	535,753	130,995	4,566	5,052	498,543	40,886	25,577	4,805	1,006	2,075
1826	498,077	7,006	407,798	180,000	2,125	3,886	509,513	47,739	26,430	49,968	991	1,477
1827	684,947	13,487	823,492	93,071	2,925	3,778	676,085	44,417	..	35,536	1,213	1,663

The values of the principal products exported from Java, in 1826, were:—

		Florins.			*Florins.*
Arrack	1,477 leaguers	116,926	Cloves	5,022 piculs	1,711,608
Rice	109,008 p. and 848 piculs	217,715	Sugar	509,514 —	9,083,141
Indigo	407,798 lbs.	1,122,382	Tobacco	2,477 kodres	769,850
Coffee	498,078 piculs	15,090,362	Tin	47,739 piculs	2,718,810
Pepper round	7,006 —	125,035	All other articles and treasure		7,367,885
Rice	36,430 coyangs	3,389,815			
Spices, Mace	991 piculs	396,368	Total value of exports from Java in 1826		42,961,642
Cloves	2,185 —	155,286			

Taking the florin at 1s. 8d., the total value of the exports is 2,521,803*l.* Among the principal articles of import are cotton goods; copper, iron, and steel; glass and earthenware; wines and spirits; provisions, &c. We have not learned the exact value of the imports in 1836, but, taking it at 2,500,000*l.*, it will make the whole trade of the island amount to about 6,000,000*l.*

It is stated in the *Dictionary* (vol. i. p. 378.) that the export of coffee from Java might be estimated at about 18,000 tons; but it appears from the above table, that it has increased so rapidly that it amounted, in 1837, taking the picul at 136 lbs. to 93,152,792 lbs., or to above 41,500 tons! The export of sugar during the same year exceeded 40,000 tons.

BOMBAY. In 1836–7, 28 ships, of the aggregate burden of 20,800 tons, mostly owned by native merchants resident in Bombay, were employed in the China trade; and there are besides a considerable number of large ships engaged in the trade to England and other places. They are for the most part navigated by Indian seamen or Lascars, those of Bombay being accounted by far the best in India; the master and superior officers only, and not always, being Englishmen.

In 1836–7, there arrived at Bombay 253 ships (222 under British colours) of the aggregate burden of 104,913 tons.—*A.*

The small and sterile island of Bombay affords no produce for exportation; indeed, hardly yields a week's consumption of corn for its inhabitants. Nor does the whole presidency of Bombay, although estimated to contain about 70,000 square miles, and from 10,000,000 to 11,000,000 inhabitants, yield, with the exception of cotton and rice, any of the great colonial staples, such as coffee, sugar, and indigo; a circumstance that seems mainly ascribable to the impolitic restraints upon the employment of British settlers and capital that were long imposed by law, and acted upon with peculiar rigour in this and the sister presidency of Madras, in contradistinction to the greater latitude afforded in Bengal. Bombay is also much less favourably situated, in respect of internal communications, than Calcutta. The Ganges and its tributary streams intersect the richest provinces of India, and give Calcutta a vast command of inland navigation; whereas all the inland trade of Bombay has to be carried on by means of roads, that are seldom available for carriages, and which can be used only by pack-bullocks and camels. The transit duties, by which the inland trade has been grievously oppressed, were abolished in Bengal in 1836; and they either have been, or are, immediately to be abolished in Bombay. And were this judicious measure followed up the formation of lines of road to the principal markets in the interior, a great increase of the trade of the town and improvement of the presidency would be the result.

The principal trade of Bombay is carried on with China, Great Britain, the countries on the Persian and Arabian gulfs, Calcutta, Cutch, and Sinde, the Malabar coast, foreign Europe, &c. The imports from China consist principally of raw silk, sugar, and sugar-candy, silk piece goods, treasure, &c. The principal articles of export to China, are raw cotton (44,464,364 lbs., in 1836–37.), opium (20,882½ chests, in 1836–37.), principally from Malwa, pearls, sharks' fins and fish maws, sandal-wood, &c. The exports to China being much greater than the imports, the returns for several years past have been made to a large extent in bills on London, drawn by American and other houses in China, and in bills on the Indian governments, drawn by the Agents of the East India Company in China.

The trade with the United Kingdom has been regularly increasing since the abolition of the restrictive system. The chief articles of import from Great Britain are, cotton and woollen stuffs, cotton yarn, hardware, copper, iron, and lead, glass, apparel, fur, stationary, wine, &c. The principal articles of export to Britain are, raw cotton (68,163,901 lbs. in 1836–37.), raw silk, from China and Persia, ivory, pepper, and spices, piece goods, coffee, and wool. The export of the last mentioned article has increased with extraordinary rapidity, the quantity shipped for England in 1833–34 being only 69,944 lbs.; whereas the shipments for England in 1836–37 amounted to 2,444,019 lbs.! At present the principal supply of the article is drawn from Cutch and Sinde, and from Marwar, via Guzerat; but active measures have been taken by government for improving the flocks in the pastoral country of the Deccan, so that a further and very considerable increase of this new and important trade may be anticipated.

The trade between Bombay and the ports on the Persian gulf has materially varied of late years. A large portion of the articles of British produce and manufacture that were formerly exported to Persia, by way of Bombay and Bushire, being now sent through Trebisond and ports in the Levant; and a considerable portion of the raw silk that used to be exported from Persia, via Bombay, being now also sent through the ports referred to. On the other hand, however, there is a considerable increase in the exports and imports of other articles; so that, on the whole, the amount of the trade has not materially varied.

The trade between Bombay and Calcutta is not so great now as it was formerly; the abolition of the restrictive system in 1815 having given Bombay the means of bringing various articles direct from foreign ports which she was previously obliged to import at second-hand from Calcutta, and of exporting directly.

Account of the total Value of the Imports into, and of the Exports from Bombay, in the official years 1816–17, 1836–37, and 1836–37.

IMPORTS.

Countries.	1816—1817.			1836—37.			1836—37.		
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
Great Britain ·Rupees	25,96,615	3,97,971	29,94,586	49,54,124	1,748	49,55,872	1,32,41,910	- -	1,32,41,910
France · · —	- -	- -	- -	2,71,774	15,400	2,87,174	5,25,853	- -	5,25,853
Madeira · · —	1,99,236	- -	1,99,236	26,715	- -	26,715	24,725	- -	24,725
Cape of Good Hope · —	2,230	- -	2,230	2,232	- -	2,232	9,752	- -	9,752
Brazil · · —	74,480	16,43,552	17,18,032	9,863	9,720	19,618	92,490	- -	92,490
Coast of Africa · —	2,44,703	23,906	2,68,609	4,04,883	25,770	4,30,653	3,49,538	911	3,50,449
Isle of France · —	41,971	34,197	80,168	2,24,275	- -	2,24,275	1,99,963	- -	1,99,963
America · · —	2,71,495	1,68,413	4,39,908	10,736	- -	10,736	46,399	- -	46,399
China · · —	97,36,472	3,85,170	41,49,642	45,70,306	66,20,779	1,11,97,085	40,05,886	1,00,74,283	1,40,79,994
Manilla · · —	3,67,433	- -	3,67,433	- -	- -	- -	31,410	- -	31,410
Penang, Singapore, and the Straits · —	6,91,988	1,100	6,93,088	4,42,301	74,705	5,17,009	7,17,721	2,25,442	9,59,162
Calcutta · · —	24,79,602	- -	24,79,602	22,58,699	- -	22,58,699	25,38,101	- -	25,38,101
Coast of Coromandel —	52,969	24,000	76,969	1,72,680	- -	1,72,680	1,11,548	- -	1,11,548
Ceylon · · —	79,096	- -	79,096	55,216	- -	55,216	56,340	53,000	1,09,340
Arabian Gulf · —	5,06,838	15,71,934	20,78,072	4,01,374	5,46,086	9,47,460	7,31,404	11,04,290	18,35,694
Persian Gulf · —	10,90,287	17,27,821	28,17,108	19,52,486	14,69,643	34,22,128	15,48,697	20,10,892	35,59,589
Malabar and Canara —	27,80,971	76,171	28,56,142	45,32,043	41,128	45,63,171	75,80,673	- -	75,80,673
Cutch and Sinde · —	4,00,449	48,195	4,48,644	8,64,397	7,191	8,71,588	15,21,090	550	15,72,640
Goa, Demaun, & Diu —	98,75,658	4,08,545	30,79,297	2,89,336	- -	2,89,336	2,94,000	1,000	2,95,000
Hamburgh · · —	- -	- -	- -	2,03,006	- -	2,03,006	- -	- -	- -
St. Helena · · —	- -	- -	- -	286	- -	286	- -	- -	- -
	1,93,40,339	64,87,625	- -	2,16,46,647	88,26,169	- -	3,37,67,203	1,34,78,358	- -
Total Rupees ·	- -	- -	2,58,27,964	- -	- -	3,04,72,816	- -	- -	4,72,45,517
Subordinate Ports.									
Panwell and Concan† —	2,36,473	48,016	2,84,489	36,40,072	9,46,418	45,86,490	1,20,54,965	5,82,702	1,26,37,667
Surat · · —	13,22,573	1,82,764	15,15,337	16,51,995	12,13,391	28,65,386	21,28,589	1,82,975	23,11,564
Guzerat · · —	46,99,397	1,06,535	48,05,932	78,32,026	0,023	78,41,049	2,57,82,236	11,000	2,57,93,236
	62,58,443	3,47,316	- -	1,31,24,093	21,68,832	- -	3,99,65,790	7,75,677	- -
Total Rupees ·	- -	- -	66,05,758	- -	- -	1,52,92,925	- -	- -	4,07,42,467

EXPORTS.

Countries.	1816—1817.			1836—37.			1836—37.		
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
Great Britain *Rupees*	20,18,463	- -	20,18,463	38,33,740	1,05,077	39,38,817	1,35,29,317	- -	1,35,29,317
France · · —	- -	- -	- -	63,663	- -	63,663	2,37,443	- -	2,37,443
Cape of Good Hope —	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	612	- -	612
Brazil · · —	16,379	- -	16,379	22,730	- -	22,730	- -	- -	- -
Coast of Africa · —	1,25,819	- -	1,25,819	8,09,963	8,560	8,18,423	5,80,331	35,000	6,18,331
Isle of France · —	2,45,379	- -	2,45,379	65,892	1,16,815	1,82,567	36,771	60,800	1,07,871
America · · —	2,73,518	- -	2,73,518	- -	- -	- -	2,34,756	56,350	2,91,006
China · · —	80,51,393	9,040	80,60,433	1,07,76,011	6,480	1,07,82,491	3,26,66,247	8,800	3,26,75,047
Manilla · · —	6,100	- -	6,100	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -	- -
Penang, Singapore, and the Straits · —	2,31,975	- -	2,31,975	4,41,880	17,600	4,59,480	6,85,737	19,720	7,05,457
Calcutta · · —	8,20,169	57,954	8,78,123	8,41,079	1,01,500	9,42,579	11,16,784	19,200	11,36,984
Coast of Coromandel —	91,456	- -	91,456	2,44,532	32,186	2,76,718	2,95,749	5,65,000	8,60,749
Ceylon · · —	69,673	- -	69,673	1,03,867	- -	1,03,867	52,818	48,658	1,01,475
Arabian Gulf · —	13,74,623	- -	13,74,623	7,40,305	800	7,41,105	12,47,340	17,790	12,65,130
Persian Gulf · —	18,02,318	3,960	18,06,278	41,21,021	10,900	41,31,921	34,57,341	42,900	35,00,241
Malabar and Canara —	827,112	2,47,965	10,75,077	10,68,737	3,40,600	14,09,337	12,07,047	11,11,581	23,18,628
Cutch and Sinde · —	12,24,598	11,500	12,36,098	16,34,880	30,928	16 65,808	23,27,347	2,000	23,29,347
Goa, Demaun, & Diu* —	35,45,751	9,07,499	44,53,254	2,41,225	36,612	2,77,837	1,61,259	67,280	2,28,539
Hamburgh · · —	- -	- -	- -	1,49,617	- -	1,49,617			
St. Helena · · —	- -	- -	- -	3,634	- -	3,634			
	1,74,18,328	12,37,918	- -	2,47,23,461	8,08,018	- -	5,78,49,899	20,56,079	
Total Rupees ·	- -	- -	1,86,53,246	- -	- -	2,55,30,479	- -	- -	5,99,05,978
Subordinate Ports.									
Panwell and Concan† —	3,25,167	21,192	3,46,359	54,94,473	24,19,037	79,13,510	55,33,682	49,89,236	1,05,22,918
Surat · · —	23,76,203	7,26,503	31,02,715	22,82,011	3,99,414	26,81,425	15,99,843	7,30,615	23,41,460
Guzerat · · —	40,85,913	3,42,785	44,28,710	73,47,696	39,24,626	1,12,72,322	81,30,010	17,31,811	98,61,821
	67,87,193	10,90,480	- -	1,51,04,181	67,33,077	- -	1,51,24,535	74,51,662	- -
Total Rupees ·	- -	- -	78,77,747	- -	- -	2,18,37,258	- -	- -	2,26,26,199

* At this period called Goa and the Concan.

† At this period called Bassein and sundry ports.

PORT CHARGES.

Buoy and Anchorage Dues.—All Ships and Vessels or Boats not receiving Pilots

	Rps.				Ans.
From 10 to 20 tons · ·	—	3	0	0	per Ans.
Above 20 to under 30 tons · ·	—	6	0	0	do.
From 30 to 50 tons · ·	—	10	0	0	do.
Above 50 to 100 ditto · ·	—	20	0	0	do.
— 100 to 150 ditto · ·	—	25	0	0	do.
— 150 to 200 ditto · ·	—	30	3	0	do.
— 200 to 250 ditto · ·	—	35	0	0	do.

Charge for Pilotage.—A Ship	Fair Season.	Monsoon.
of the Line or of 50 Guns ·	Rps. 100	— 140
A frigate or sloop of war ·	ditto 75	— 100

Foreign ships of war are to pay, in addition to the above rate, rupees 40.

Square rigged vessels of all descriptions:

	Fair Season.	Monsoon.
Above 50 to 300 tons. ·	Rps. 50 0 0	— 75 0 0
— 300 to 400 — ·	— 65 0 0	— 80 0 0
— 400 to 500 — ·	— 80 0 0	— 95 0 0
— 500 to 600 — ·	— 65 0 0	— 90 0 0
— 600 to 700 — ·	— 70 0 0	— 95 0 0
— 700 to 800 — ·	— 75 0 0	— 100 0 0
— 800 to 900 — ·	— 80 0 0	— 105 0 0
— 900 to 1000 — ·	— 85 0 0	— 110 0 0
— 1000 to 1100 — ·	— 90 0 0	— 115 0 0
— 1100 to 1200 — ·	— 95 0 0	— 120 0 0
— 1200 and upwards — ·	— 100 0 0	— 125 0 0

Light-house Dues.—All ships and vessels down to 20 tons, at rupees 15 per 100 tons per annum.
All vessels under 20 tons burden, at 2 rupees per annum.

N. B. There are no port charges of any sort at Bombay other than the above.

General Rates of Commission in Bombay.—On the sale or purchase of goods of all denominations (except as under) Per cent. 1

Purchase of all kinds with the proceeds of goods sold, and on which a commission of 1 per cent. has been previously charged	1-2
The sale or purchase of ships, houses, and lands	1-2
The sale or purchase of opium	1-4
The sale or purchase of diamonds, pearls, and jewellery of all descriptions	1-2
The sale or purchase of treasure or bullion, exclusive of 1 per cent. on receipt of the proceeds	1
Procuring freight	5
Shipping goods of every description	1-2
Shipping treasure, bullion, and jewellery	1
Ships' disbursements when no commission has been charged on freight or cargo	1-2
Effecting insurances	1-2
Settling insurance losses, whether partial or total; also on procuring return of premium, exclusive of commission on receipt of cash	1
Del credere or guaranteeing the responsibility of persons to whom goods are sold, on the amount of sales	1-2
The sale or purchase of cattle	1-2
Collecting house rent	1-2
Effecting remittances by bills of exchange (not being the proceeds of goods sold)	1
Taking up interest bills from the Company (exclusive of 1 per cent. on remitting)	1-2
Sale or purchase of public or private bills of exchange	1
Exchanging Companies' securities of all descriptions, or investing money therein, and on transferring government paper from one constituent to another	1-2
Surrendering or depositing in the treasury, Company's security of all descriptions Per cent.	1-4
Procuring money on respondentia or on loan	2
Recovery of bonds or bills for absentees, over due at the period of their being placed in the possession of the agent	2
Debts, when a process at law or by arbitration is necessary, 2 1-2 per cent.; and if recovered by such means	5
Managing the affairs of an estate for an executor or administrator	5
Guaranteeing bills, bonds, or debts in general, by endorsement or otherwise	1-4
Attending the delivery of contract goods to the Company or individuals	1
Goods consigned, and afterwards withdrawn, on invoice cost	1-4
Bills of exchange returned noted or protested, &c.	1
Receipt of payment (at the option of the agent) of all monies not arising from proceeds of goods on which commission has been previously charged	1
All cases where the debtor side of the account exceeds the credit side, including the balance of interest, commission chargeable on the debtor side, at the rate of	1
Granting letters of credit	1-2
Becoming security to government, or public bodies, in any case	1-2
Goods consigned, which are disposed of by outcry or sent to a shop, on net proceeds	1-4
Depositing government paper as security for constituents	1

Advancements.—Sales of European goods, when made at an advance on invoice cost, the amount to be converted into Bombay currency at the exchange of two shillings and sixpence per rupee. S.

[BOSTON. The number of arrivals at Boston, during the year 1838, was 1313; during the year 1839, was 1553. Increase 240.

The following Table exhibits the amount of salt, coal, grain, and potatoes, brought to this port during the past eleven years:—

	Standard Bush. Salt.	*Bushels Coal.*	*Grain and Potatoes.*
1830,	564,599	236,768	1,962
1831,	484,898	135,720	4,103
1832,	614,585	686,852	2,686
1833,	945,441	378,751	7,038
1834,	997,974	714,362	15,602
1835,	795,247	525,993	50,527
1836,	573,684	1,036,805	131,544
1837,	1,052,006	1,739,145	24,560
1838,	1,108,015	1,072,692	27,149
1839,	601,966	1,202,517	7,155
1840	1,206,255	1,507,710	13,549
	9,085,657	9,407,315	295,876
Average	825,968 16-11	855,210 5-11	26,897 9-11

In the above is included the salt and coal re-shipped for debenture.

There was exported from Boston during the year 1840, 24,500 standard bushels of salt, and 95,239 bushels of coal.—*Am. Ed.*]

CALCUTTA. (See Table on the next page.)

COINS.

[Statement of Deposits and Coinage at the Mint of the United States and its Branches, in the Year 1839.

Mints.	Deposits.			Coinage.							
	Gold.		Silver.	Gold.		Silver.		Copper.		Total.	
	United States Gold.	Foreign Gold.		Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*		*Dollars.*		*Dollars.*		*Dollars.*		*Dollars.*
Philadelphia	198,500	804,000	1,841,500	185,418	1,840,747 50	5,948,979	1,948,139	3,125,661	31,256 61	9,260,545	3,821,143 11
Charlotte	126,936	- -	- -	41,540	162,767 50	- -	- -	- -	- -	41,540	162,767 50
Dahlonega	113,035	- -	- -	26,513	123,280 00	- -	- -	- -	- -	26,513	123,280 00
New Orleans	6,969	78,290	173,901	- -	- -	2,401,600	227,180	- -	- -	2,401,600	227,180 00
	385,240	882,290	2,025,401	257,665	1,282,295 00	8,349,979	2,175,299	3,125,661	31,256 61	11,736,198	3,529,977 61

Statement of Deposits and Coinage at the Mint of the United States and its Branches, in the Year 1840.

Mints.	Deposits.			Coinage.							
	Gold.		Silver.	Gold.		Silver.		Copper.		Total.	
	United States Gold.	Foreign Gold.	Value.	Pieces.	Value	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.	Pieces.	Value.
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*		*Dollars.*		*Dollars.*		*Dols.*		*Dollars.*
Philadelphia	176,766	1,026,292	1,663,070	208,579	1,907,427	4,886,806	1,088,603	2,462,700	24,627	7,048,084	2,360,657
Charlotte	124,726	- -	- -	21,629	127,055	- -	- -	- -	- -	21,629	127,055
Dahlonega	121,858	- -	- -	26,428	123,310	- -	- -	- -	- -	26,428	123,310
New Orleans	2,835	141,004	668,676	86,800	817,500	2,260,800	698,100	- -	- -	3,446,900	915,600
	426,185	1,167,296	1,668,746	318,436	1,975,292	7,777,106	1,726,703	2,462,700	24,627	10,558,240	3,436,622

Am. Ed.]

An Account showing the Total Amount of the Import and Export Trade of Calcutta in 1836-37 and 1837-38; showing also the Amount of the Trade with each country, and the proportion *per cent.* which the Trade with each Country bears to the total Amount of the Trade. (*Bell's Review of the Commerce of Bengal for* 1836-37 *and* 1837-38.)

Countries.	Import Trade.				Export Trade.			
	1836-37.		1837-38.		1836-37.		1837-38.	
	Value.	Per centage.	Value.	Per centage.	Value.	Per centage.	Value.	Per centage.
Europe.	£		£		£		£	
United Kingdom	2,240,471	60·1	2,059,482	50·6	2,637,997	42·3	2,719,222	41·8
France	156,739	4·2	155,586	3·5	284,258	4·3	221,506	3·4
Denmark	-	-	2,993	-	200	-	-	-
Sweden	-	-	-	0·1	-	-	10,673	0·2
Portugal	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total Europe	2,397,210	64·3	2,219,062	54·5	2,122,455	46·5	2,951,701	45·4
Asia.								
Coromandel Coast	89,736	2·4	126,909	3·1	177,131	2·7	115,439	1·8
Ceylon	3,537	0·1	8,387	0·2	14,205	0·2	6,489	0·1
Coast of Malabar	246,265	6·6	171,538	4·2	278,086	4·1	277,122	4·2
Maldive and Laccadive Isles	15,501	0·4	13,259	3	5,959	0·1	4,733	0 07
Arabian and Persian Gulfs	86,403	2·3	123,474	3·0	159,861	2·4	157,387	2·4
China	339,003	9·0	673,404	16·6	1,889,478	28·2	2,054,378	31·6
Singapore	173,051	5·0	292,659	7·2	278,052	4·1	317,581	4·9
Penang and Malacca	68,511	1·8	99,279	2·4	48,416	0 8	65,230	1·0
Java and Sumatra	11,885	0·3	8,156	0·2	24,515	0·4	14,715	0·2
Manilla	12	-	-	-	58	-	-	-
New Holland	2,202	0·06	6,144	0·2	19,624	0·3	38,715	0·6
Pegu	139,527	3·7	142,667	3·5	141,578	2·1	144,697	2·2
Total Asia	1,175,842	31·6	1,665,876	40·9	3,036,974	45·4	3,196,487	49·07
Africa.								
Mauritius	25,457	0·7	46,795	1·1	138,399	2·0	154,905	2·4
Bourbon	10,505	0·3	13,405	0·3	40,835	0·6	55,670	0·8
Cape of Good Hope	4,808	0·1	6,402	0·2	11,344	0·2	23,078	0·3
Total Africa	40,769	1·1	66,602	1·6	190,577	2·8	233,652	3·5
America.								
North America	103,531	2·7	73,944	1·9	349,890	5·2	120,737	2·0
South America	9,208	0·3	45,465	1·1	7,844	0·1	2,019	0·03
Total America	112,739	3·0	118,410	3·0	357,735	5·3	122,756	2·03
Grand Total	3,726,560	100	4,069,950	100	6,707,741	100	6,504,596	100

S.

COTTON.

Statement of the Consumption, Exportation, &c. of the different Sorts of Cotton Wool, in and from Great Britain, in 1839.

Average weekly consumption.	1839.		1839.		1839.
Upland	5,464	Packages annually consumed	1,114,400	Lbs. weight annually imported in millions and tenths	388·6
Orleans and Alabama	9,915	Average weight of packages consumed in lbs.	313	Lbs. wt. consumed, do.	381·7
Sea-island	280			Lbs. weight in ports, 31st of Dec. do.	98·5
Total United States	15,644	Weekly consumption in packages, average 343 lbs.	21,490	Lbs. weight in Great Britain, do.	125·8
Brazil	2,273			Average price per lb. of uplands in Liverpool	7·875
Egypt	343	Average weight of packages imported, in lbs.	343	Do. do. Peruane	10d.
East India	2,142			Do. do. Surats	5 3-4d.
Demarara, West India, &c.	725	Packages exported	117,300		
Total	21,430				

S.

EMIGRANTS.

Return of the Number of Emigrants from the United Kingdom in 1839, specifying the Colonies and Countries for which they cleared out, and the Numbers that cleared out for each.—*Parl. Paper*, No. 113. Sess. 1840.)

	North American Colonies.	United States.	Cape of Good Hope.	Australian Colonies.	Total.
England	2,251	30,142	221	11,845	44,459
Scotland	1,418	551	6	2,238	4,213
Ireland	8,959	2,843	-	1,702	13,535
United Kingdom	12,628	33,536	227	15,785	62,207

S.

FISH.

[The reader will find in vol. i. p. 42., a statement of the value of the fish exported annually from the United States, from 1790 to 1838, inclusive.

The value of the fish imported during the year ending on the 30th of September, 1839, was, of dried or smoked fish, $21,303; of salmon (pickled), $73,768; of mackerel (pickled), $60,374, and of all other pickled fish, $71,489.

Of the fish imported, the quantity which was re-exported amounted in value to only $9,034.

The product of our own fisheries which was exported to foreign countries, chiefly to the West India islands, during the same year, amounted in value, of dried or smoked fish, to $700,218, and of pickled-fish, to $141,330.

	Tons.
The registered and enrolled tonnage of the United States employed in the whale fishery amounted to	131,845
The enrolled and licensed tonnage employed in the cod fishery	65,167
In the mackerel fishery	35,983
In the whale fishery	439
That of vessels licensed under 20 tons employed in the cod fishery	7,091

The fisheries of the United States are carried on from the ports of Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York; especially from those of Massachusetts. Its citizens own nearly three fourths of the whole tonnage employed in this branch of American industry.

The greater comparative importance of the Massachusetts fisheries has led to more exact inquiries concerning them than have been directed hitherto to the subject of the fisheries elsewhere. And we subjoin the following interesting extracts from a report of Dr. D. H. Storer, submitted to the legislature of that state.

Although, as fresh fish, mackerel are sold in the markets along our whole coast for several months in the year, and are considered by all excellent food, (from 6 to 8,000 barrels being sold annually in Boston market alone,) their great value to this people, arises from the means of employment afforded to an immense number, by the process of salting and packing.

Those packed in 1836 were furnished by the following towns:

	Barrels.		Barrels.
Boston	40,559	Scituate	3,782
Gloucester and Manchester	43,937	Yarmouth	3,446
Newburyport and Newbury	21,463	Salem and Beverly	2,394
Wellfleet	17,500	Plymouth	1,477
Provincetown	14,139	Lynn	1,400
Hingham	13,882	Duxbury	1,000
Cohasset	11,700	Charlestown	922
Barnstable	4,115		

At the prices these fish were worth in November, 1836, the value of the year's fishing amounts to $1,264,012.

The whole number of barrels of mackerel inspected in Massachusetts for the last five years is as follows:—1832, 224,000 barrels; 1833, 225,000; 1834, 253,000; 1835, 197,000; 1836, 180,616.

Although it would seem from the above table, that a smaller quantity of mackerel had been packed in 1836, than the several years immediately preceding it, yet it cannot be inferred from this circumstance, that fewer vessels were engaged, or that the business was considered less important than before. In some years, immense shoals of these fishes are readily met with, and the vessels return in a few weeks, with full cargoes; while the same localities may be visited at other seasons, and the efforts of the fisherman prove fruitless, and his fare meagre indeed.

So peculiar are the habits of this genus, that oftentimes weeks may pass, the fishing smacks be surrounded by millions sporting upon the surface of the ocean, and scarce one allow itself to be taken, while again the success of a few days will relieve the disappointments of nearly a season.

Thus, a fisherman informs me, that the last season, (1837,) having been to the bay of Chaleur, and taken but few fish, the vessel to which he belonged was returning home, when, off Cape Cod, the fish were so numerous and voracious, that the crew, consisting of ten men, captured in two hours nearly 30 barrels of them. At this time about 200 smacks were together, and they were all equally successful, some of them taking 40 barrels of fish.

After being carefully inspected, these fish find a ready market in Philadelphia, New York, Baltimore, and New Orleans, and from this last port, they are sent over the entire western country. The inferior quality are shipped to the West India islands.

I have not been able to learn with accuracy the number of vessels engaged exclusively in this fishery; in many towns, the same vessels are used at different seasons of the year for cod as well as the mackerel fishery. I have ascertained, however, that there were 303 vessels employed in this fishery in 1836, in the county of Barnstable, and that of this number 98 belonged to Provincetown, which were valued at $147,000. . . . . .

The family *Salmonides* includes several genera of fishes, which for delicacy and richness are not surpassed. Previous to the separation of Maine from this state, large quantities of the *Salmo salar—salmon*—were packed: thus, in the year 1818, 2,381 barrels were inspected. Since that time none have been inspected. The building of dams and manufacturing establishments, by preventing the fishes from going up the rivers to deposit their spawn, has almost entirely annihilated them in this commonwealth. About 17 years since, two wagons, each bringing from 30 to 40 fine salmon from the Merrimack river, supplied the Boston market every week during the season of the fish—now, the few specimens taken are looked upon as rarities, and our market is enriched by the fishery of the Kennebec. . . . . .

The *Osmerus viridescens—Smelt*—which is a universal favourite, is taken in great numbers in the spring and autumn, and through a great portion of the winter. In *Watertown* alone, 750,000 dozen are taken annually in scoop-nets from the *first of March to the first of June*—and sent to Boston market.

The family *Clupea*, are among our most valuable fishes. The *Clupea vernalis—alewife*—is taken in immense quantities still, in several parts of the state, although in several places where they have heretofore been most abundant, the various encroachments of man have sensibly diminished them. A larger quantity of *alewives* is packed, than of any other species of this family. In 1832, 1730 barrels were inspected; 1833, 2,266; 1834, 4,320; 1835, 5,600; 1836, 5,000.

At *Watertown*, the average quantity of alewives for the last 10 years is 700 barrels. They are first pickled, then salted and barrelled, and sent to the West India islands. They sell from $1.50 to $2.00 per barrel. At *Taunton*, which for years was so celebrated for its fishery, the alewives are gradually lessening. There are two or more dams across the Taunton "Great River," so called, which impedes their progress very much; and on the "Little River," where many dams and factories have been erected; and where, twenty years ago, thousands were taken, not one is to be seen. Twenty-five years since they were taken in such abundance, that they sold for 20 cents per hundred, and a great business was carried on by barrelling and shipping them to the West India market. . . . . .

The *Clupea harengus* (?)—*common herring* (?)—is in some seasons taken in great numbers. The quantities of herring packed and inspected according to tables kept at the General Inspection office for the last five years, are as follow: 1832, 53 bbls. 1833, 36; 1834, 518; 1835, 968; 1836, 77. That a small quantity only of the herring taken, are packed, is obvious, from the fact, that in 1836, 500 bbls. were taken at Falmouth; 400 bbls. at Duxbury, and 3000 at Martha's Vineyard.

Upon some portions of our coast herring have been limited in quantity for the few last years, during

the last two years very few, comparatively speaking, have been taken. Their scarcity has been attributed by the fishermen to torching them at night, by which the shoals are broken, and the fish frightened away.

The *Alosa vulgaris—Shad*—is taken in several of our rivers in large quantities, at some seasons of the year, and quite a number of them are packed. In 1832, 100 bbls. were inspected; 1833, 321; 1834, 3; 1835, 310; 1836, 527. The quantities taken in Charles river at Watertown, for the five last years, have averaged about 6000 per annum; from 3000 to 4000 are yearly caught at Taunton. Those taken at the former place, are usually sent to Boston market, and sold at 25 cents each. Those caught at the latter locality are for the most part disposed of at the seines (fresh) and cured by the purchasers. When first taken, they sell for 100 cents per hundred; and as the season advances, diminish gradually in price to 50 cents.

No family of fishes, however, found in the state, presents a greater number of species of real utility, than that of the Gadites; and no species in the whole catalogue of our Ichthyology, is of greater importance than the *morrhua vulgaris—common Cod*; supplying our markets with an excellent food throughout the year, and giving employment to thousands. In some portions of the state this fishery is entirely superseded by the taking of whales. Thus, while every town in the county of Barnstable, is more or less engaged in this business, and collectively exhibit an aggregate of 212 vessels, but a single fishing-smack was licensed in Dukes county in 1836—and not one in the county of Nantucket—the attention of the inhabitants of the last two counties, being entirely engrossed in whaling.

Imperfect as are the following data, they may not be thought valueless. I have been able to ascertain that, in 1836, there were engaged in the cod fishery, from Gloucester, Marblehead, Provincetown, South Wellfleet, Cohasset, Duxbury, Plymouth, Manchester, Salem, and Beverly, being ten towns, 561 vessels, having crews of 3,816 men—and that by these vessels there were taken 263,454 quintals of fish. To these may be added the towns of Newburyport, Lynn, Falmouth, Holmes Hole, and Sandwich, (in which I have not been able to learn the number of vessels exclusively employed in this fishery,) which furnished in 1836, 16,265 quintals. Thus exhibiting 279,718 quintals of cod fish, taken by the enterprise of the citizens of 15 towns. When it is observed, that about 2,500 of the cod fish from the Grand Bank, (which are generally much larger than those from the Straits of Bellisle,) constitute a single quintal, some conception may be formed of the immense number taken. At the usual price of these prepared fish, the above mentioned number of quintals would sell for $839,154.

Besides these fishing vessels, a great number of boats are constantly employed in supplying the markets with fresh fish. Thus, at Duxbury, in 1836, there were 10 market boats, having 40 men on board, which took from 38 to 40,000 fish. At Provincetown, there were 10 boats thus engaged. Boston market is supplied with cod fish by about 15 or 20 small schooners, and a large number of boats. By the kindness of Capt. Nathaniel Blanchard of Lynn, master of one of these smacks, I am enabled to furnish the following table, by which some idea may be formed of the amount of fresh cod fish, brought to our market. He has presented me the result of his labours with a vessel of 25 tons, and a crew of 6 men, for nearly 5 months, commencing October 24, 1836, and terminating March 20, 1837. His account exhibits the number of fish taken, and the price obtained for the same for each day during that period. From this minute statement, I am able to ascertain that the largest quantity taken any one day, was 7,121 pounds—December 13th—which sold for 5 shillings per hundred = $59.39.

The smallest quantity taken any one day, was 337 pounds—January 16th—which sold for 12 shillings = $6.67.

The smallest receipts were March 20th, when 359 pounds taken, sold for 10 shillings 6 pence = $5.92.

The whole number of pounds taken during the period mentioned, were 194,125.

The entire receipts for the same, were $3,026.14.

Besides the value of the fishes themselves in a fresh and dried state, large quantities of oil are extracted from their livers, which is sold for about $15 per barrel.

Immense shoals of the *Morrhua æglefinus—Haddock*—are found on our coast in spring, and continue through the season until autumn. Large numbers are sold in the market—and during the entire summer it is generally eaten by the poorer classes, who are often able to obtain a fine fish weighing several pounds for one or two cents. When taken in larger quantities than can be disposed of in market, they are frequently strewed over the earth for manure. . . . . .

Several valuable species are furnished us by the family, *Plani*—the most important, however, is the *Hippoglossus vulgaris—Halibut*. The flesh of this fish is rather coarse and dry, but is by many highly esteemed. An unusual number of this species were brought to Boston market in the early part of 1837, and were all sold at considerable profit. Eighty large schooners, from 60 to 80 tuns burden, belonging to Cape Ann, were thus employed. Smoked, this fish is quite a delicacy; and when dried, as is the usual habit of the Greenlanders, it is, I can affirm, far from uninviting.—*Am. Ed.*]

FUNDS (American). We beg leave to lay before the reader the following statements with respect to the loans contracted by the different American states; they are taken from the *American Almanac* for 1840, and are the fullest and most comprehensive that we have seen.

The following tables show the total amount of stock issued and authorised to be issued by each of the eighteen states, which have resorted to this mode of raising money. Where the returns from the financial officer did not afford all the information which was desired, the state laws have been examined, to ascertain the extent of the authorised loans. The operations of many of the states have been so extensive and varied, that it is not an easy matter to get at the precise amount of stock issued and authorised to be issued. It is probable, however, that the aggregate amount of stock authorised by all the states is even greater than the amount stated in the tables.

Statement of the Amount of Stocks and Bonds issued, and authorised by Statute to be issued, by the several States named below, giving the Year in which each State commenced issuing Stock, the Object for which it was issued, and the Rate of Interest.

State.	Year.	For what Object issued.	Per cent.	Amount for each Object.	Total.
				Dollars.	*Dollars.*
Maine	1830	Insane hospitals, primary schools, bounty on wheat, and general expenditures	5, 5 3-4, & 6	554,976·00	554,976·00
Massachusetts	1837	Loans to railroads	6	4,290,000·00	4,290,000·00
N. York	1825	For canals	6	548,000·00	
		Ditto	5	11,998,674·41	
		Lent to Hudson and Delaware canal	5	800,000·00	
		Loans to railroads	4 1-2 5	3,787,700·00	
		To river navigation	5	10,000·00	
		General fund debt	6	596,532·43	
		Astor stock	6	561,500·00	18,292,496·84
Pennsylvania	1821	For canals	5	16,576,527·00	
		For railroads	5	4,984,484·00	
		For turnpikes and bridges	5	2,595,992·00	
		For miscellaneous	5	3,156,787·00	27,306,790·00

Statement of the Amount of Stocks and Bonds issued—continued.

State.	Year.	For what Object issued.	Per cent.	Amount for each Object.	Total.
				Dollars.	*Dollars.*
Maryland	1804	Medical University	6	80,000·00	
		Penitentiary	5	97,347·36	
		Tobacco inspection	5	75,000·00	
		For railroads	5 & 6	5,000,000·00	
		For canals	5 & 6	5,776,000·00	
		Washington monument	6	15,000·00	
		Expense of riots	6	77,036·45	11,422,383·73
Virginia	1820	For canals and river navigation	5, 5½, 6	3,486,260·00	
		For railroads	5 & 6	2,125,500·00	
		For turnpikes		324,800·00	
		For Revolutionary debt	6	54,018·00	
		For war debt of 1814	6	312,000·00	6,302,578·00
S. Carolina	1839	Public improvements	5 & 6	1,450,000·00	
		To Mrs. Randolph	6	10,000·00	
		Cincinnati and Charleston railroad	6	2,500,000·00	
		To re-build Charleston	6	3,000,000·00	
		Revolutionary debt	6	193,770·12	5,753,770·12
Alabama	1839	For banking	6	7,000,000·00	
		For railroad	6	3,000,000·00	
		For banking	6	32,500,000·00	
		For railroad	6	500,000·00	
		New Orleans Draining Company	6	80,000·00	
		Heirs of Jefferson	6	10,000·00	
		Charity hospital	6	125,000·00	
		State-house	6	100,000·00	23,738,000·00
Tennessee	1838	For banking	5 & 6	3,000,000·00	
		For turnpikes	5 & 6	118,186·68	
		Railroads and turnpikes	6	3,730,000·00	
		Improving rivers	6	300,000·00	7,148,186·68
Kentucky	1834	For banking	6	3,000,000·00	
		For improving rivers, by locks, &c.	6	2,810,000·00	
		For turnpikes and M'Adam roads	6	2,470,000·00	
		For railroads	6	320,000·00	7,399,000·00
Ohio	1837	For canals	6	6,101,000·00	6,101,000·00
Indiana	1834	For banking	6	1,750,000·00	
		For canals	6	6,750,000·00	
		For railroads	6	2,800,000·00	
		For M'Adam turnpikes	6	1,150,000·00	
		For river navigation	6	50,000·00	11,500,000·00
Illinois	1821	For banking	6	3,000,000·00	
		For railroads	6	7,400,000·00	
		For canals	6	600,000·00	
		For payment of state debt	6	100,000·00	
		For river navigation, &c.	6	800,000·00	11,900,000·00
Missouri	1837	For banking	6	2,500,000·00	2,500,000·00
Mississippi	1831	Ditto	6	7,000,000·00	7,000,000·00
Arkansas	1836	Ditto	6	3,000,000·00	3,000,000·00
Michigan	1836	Controversy with Ohio		100,000·00	
		Internal improvements	6	5,000,000·00	
		Lent to railroads	6	120,000·00	
		State Penitentiary		30,000·00	
		University		100,000·00	5,340,000·00
					170,806,179·35
If to the above be added the amount deposited by the United States in the treasuries of the several states for safe keeping,					28,101,644·97
It makes the aggregate debt of all the states, existing and authorised					198,907,824·32

Summary of the Amount of Stock issued, and authorised to be issued, for Banking, Canals, Railroads, Turnpikes, and Miscellaneous Objects.

States.	For Banking.	Canals.	Railroads.	Turnpikes.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
New York	.	13,316,674	5,767,700	.	1,158,032	18,282,406
Pennsylvania	.	16,579,527	4,384,484	2,986,393	3,186,787	27,336,700
Massachusetts	.	.	4,290,000	.	.	4,290,000
Maine	.	.	.	.	554,976	554,976
Maryland	5,700,000	5,500,000	.	.	292,980	11,492,980
Virginia	2,833,850	2,128,900	354,800	.	343,139	5,662,089
South Carolina	1,550,000	2,000,000	.	.	2,203,770	5,753,770
Ohio	6,101,000	.	.	.	.	6,101,000
Kentucky	2,000,000	2,619,000*	350,000	2,400,000	.	7,369,000
Illinois	3,000,000	900,000*	7,400,000	.	500,000	11,800,000
Indiana	1,300,000	6,750,000	2,800,000	1,150,000	.	11,880,000
Tennessee	3,000,000	300,000*	3,730,000	118,186	.	7,148,186
Alabama	7,800,000	.	3,000,000	.	.	10,800,000
Missouri	2,500,000	.	.	.	.	2,500,000
Mississippi	7,000,000	.	.	.	.	7,000,000
Louisiana	*21,950,000	80,000	500,000	.	236,000	23,735,000
Arkansas	5,000,000	.	.	.	.	5,000,000
Michigan	.	2,500,000	2,690,000	.	250,000	5,340,000
Total	52,540,000	62,201,515	42,271,084	6,618,966	8,474,684	170,806,177

* Whole or part for improvement of river navigation.

MAINE.—The stock issued by this state is to be redeemed under the direction of the legislature, by the sale of public lands, from the debts due to the state, by taxes, or new loans, as may be deemed expedient from time to time. The amount of notes due from individuals to the state (August, 1838) is 225,791 dollars. The whole amount of located lands belonging to the states, 1,400,000 acres, valued at 1,500,000 dollars; the undivided lands belonging to Maine are estimated at 3,011,000 acres; making the total numbers of acres 4,411,000. This total includes half of the land north of the St. John's river in the king of Holland's award. The stock of this state is negotiable and transferable by the holder, and the interest in all cases is payable by the state. The interest on 235,000 dollars is payable at Boston annually, and the interest on the residue at the state treasury, annually and semi-annually; the stock bears interest at 5, 5½, and 6 per cent. The value of the taxable property of the state in 1830 was 28,807,687·94 dollars.

NEW HAMPSHIRE has issued no stock. The expenses of government are defrayed by a direct tax.

VERMONT.—This state has issued no stock.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Interest on 2,000,000 dollars of stock payable in London, by the Railroad Corporation, in whose favour the stock is created, the interest on the rest is payable at the state treasury, the several corporations reimbursing the treasury for the interest so paid out. The scrip in all cases is made payable to the bearer, and no form is necessary in transferring the same. The real and personal property within the state (1830) is 308,360,407 dollars.

RHODE ISLAND.—This state has issued no stock. Valuation in January, 1834, 32,510,000 dollars.

CONNECTICUT.—This state has issued no stock, or bills of credit, since the revolutionary war. "The amount of the grand list is 97,122,697 dollars," in 1837.

NEW YORK.—This state commenced issuing stock in 1817 for the construction of the Erie and Champlain canals. The sum of 600,000 dollars was issued prior to 1820. The law of 1817 created a Board of Commissioners of the Canal Fund, consisting of the state officers, and placed under the management of the Board of Specific Revenues, which were pledged for the payment of the money borrowed. There has been derived from the auxiliary funds thus set apart, since the first organization of the canal fund, the sum of 5,894,761 dollars; which exceeds by 276,000 dollars the whole amount paid for interest on all the money borrowed for the Erie and Champlain canals for 21 years, from 1817 to 1838. From 1821 to 1838, these two canals have yielded in tolls 15,094,275·97 dollars. The result is, that the whole of the original debt is provided for, and, except about 2½ millions, has been paid off, and the stock cancelled. The laws authorising money to be borrowed previous to 1825, contained the following provision, viz. "that it shall not be lawful for the commissioners of the canal fund to make loans under this act, beyond such amounts as, for the payment of the interest thereof, the canal fund, at the time, shall be deemed ample and sufficient."

In 1825, the financial policy in regard to moneys borrowed, was changed; and loans from that time to the present have been authorized without setting apart specific funds for the payment of interest. In each case, however, the payment of the interest is made a charge on the treasury; and provision has been made to borrow from the Erie and Champlain canal fund, to meet this demand on the treasury. In 1837, after the suspension of specie payments, this state paid the interest on its whole debt in coin, and redeemed about 1,000,000 of the stock due in 1837, by paying 109 dollars in New York city paper for each 100 dollars of stock redeemed. For six years, from 1833 to 1838, the revenue from the tolls of the canals, after defraying all expenses of repairs, and paying interest on the whole amount of the outstanding debts, has yielded an average surplus of 810,000 dollars per annum. This surplus will sustain a debt of 12,000,000 dollars.

The stocks issued by the state of New York are transferable in the city of New York, either by the owner in person, or by a power of attorney. The original certificate in all cases to be produced when the transfer is made.

The aggregate valuation of real and personal estate in 1837 was 627,554,784 dollars.

NEW JERSEY has not issued stock of any kind, or lent her credit to any company.

PENNSYLVANIA.—This state pays the interest on its stock at the Bank of Pennsylvania, where the stock is transferable. The following revenues are set apart for the payment of interest on the stock loans, viz. canal and railroad tolls, dividend on turnpike and bridge stock, auction duties, collateral inheritances, county rates and levies, tax on personal property, and escheats. Whenever the revenues arising from the above sources is not sufficient for the payment of the interest on the stock loans, the deficiency is taken out of the treasury proper. The acts of assembly directing the loans to be made, direct also that the governor shall borrow on the credit of the commonwealth, and such fund or funds as have been or shall be created, for securing the punctual payment of the interest, and the reimbursement of the principal.

The aggregate valuation of real and personal estate in 1835 was 904,509,187 dollars.

MARYLAND.—This state, in all cases, pays the interest on the stock, half yearly and quarterly; but the companies which the state has aided by its loans reimburse the treasury for the amount of interest paid from time to time. A sinking fund has been established, from premiums and other sources, which now (1838) amounts to 1,070,306·63 dollars, which is applied to the purchase of the state stock.

During the suspension of specie payments, this state did not pay the interest on its stock either in specie or its equivalent. Some of the holders of the stock refused to receive depreciated bank paper for the dividends; and the treasurer, in December, 1837, reported this fact to the legislature; and in March, 1838, an act was passed, which provides that the state treasurer shall cause the interest on the state stock, that shall hereafter accrue, and that which has accrued since the 1st of April, 1837, to be paid, "either in coin, or its equivalent in current bank notes, to be determined by the commissioners of loans by the price of coin in Baltimore on the quarter day."

The private, real, and personal property, other than merchandise, and rights and credits of all sorts, is estimated at over 100,000,000 dollars. No uniform mode of valuing property throughout the state is observed. In most of the counties, the valuations are made under acts of 1785 and 1797, which require all lands to be put down at 3 dollars per acre; male slaves, at the highest, 100 dollars; and females at 80 dollars each.

VIRGINIA.—The interest on the stock issued by this state is payable semi-annually at the treasury, in gold or silver. The profits of the improvements for which the stock is issued are pledged for the payment of interest and principal; and, if necessary, the general revenues of the commonwealth are pledged for the payment of the interest.

The aggregate valuation of the real property of the state in 1818 was 206,893,078 dollars; and is now probably 300,000,000. There is no mode of ascertaining the personal property.

NORTH CAROLINA.—This state has set apart a large amount of funds for internal improvements, and for the establishment of public schools, which are placed under the direction of two boards, styled the Literary and Internal Improvement Boards. These funds, until required to meet specific appropriations by the legislature, are lent out to individuals and corporations at 6 per cent. The state of North Carolina owes no debt.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—The faith of the state and the capital of the bank of the state of South Carolina and the annual dividends thereof, are pledged for the payment of 800,000 dollars issued from 1822 to 1836; and the annual dividends have been formed into a sinking fund for that purpose; and at this time (October, 1838) they amount to upwards of 800,000 dollars, so that the 6 per cents. redeemable in 1840, will no doubt then be paid. The interest on 2,000,000 dollars to be lent to the Louisville, Cincinnati, and Charleston railroad, is payable semi-annually in London. The 2,000,000 dollars for rebuilding a part of Charleston is to be lent to individuals, and the stock to be reimbursed from the mortgages of individuals. The interest on the state stock is payable semi-annually in London.

Valuation of property, 200,000,000 dollars.

MISSISSIPPI.—This state has issued bonds on the faith of the state, to the amount of 7,000,000 dollars, and has subscribed that amount in the stocks of two banks.

LOUISIANA.—The interest on the state bonds is paid by the respective banks to which they were originally issued. The interest on other state stocks is paid out of any moneys in the treasury.

The Bank of Louisiana, 2,000,000 dollars of stock; the profits retained for redemption of the instalment of 1839, sufficient to cover the amount, 600,000 dollars.

Consolidated Association.—These bonds are guaranteed by mortgages on real productive property, amounting to 3,000,000 dollars. No stockholder can borrow more than 50 per cent. on his stock; and

this amount is returned by yearly instalments to meet the payment of the bonds by the bank. The state for its guarantee is considered as stockholder for 1,000,000 dollars, and, on the payment of the bonds, will divide accordingly with the stockholders. Dividends are only declared as the bonds are paid, and in the same proportion. The profits, until then, are retained as a sinking fund to meet the redemption of the bonds.

The Union Bank has bonds to the amount of 7,000,000 dollars, and is conducted on similar principles as the above. The original guarantee on mortgages of productive property is 8,000,000 dollars. The state for its guarantee is to receive one sixth of the nett proceeds.

The Citizens' Bank has received bonds to the amount of 8,000,000 dollars, and can demand 4,000,000 more; it is conducted on the same principles as above described. The guarantee is on 14,000,000 dollars of mortgages on real productive property. The state holds one sixth of the nett profits, which are only to be divided as the bonds are paid by the banks, and in the same proportion.

TENNESSEE.—The interest on the state bonds subscribed to the Union Bank were paid by the dividends on the stock, until the revulsion of 1837, after which the state paid the interest from the ordinary resources of the treasury. The interest on the bonds issued to railroad and turnpike companies is paid by the state, and the companies are required to reimburse the treasury for the sums from time to time paid.

KENTUCKY.—This state, in all cases, pays the interest on her own stocks. Auxiliary funds are set apart for the payment of the interest; but if these funds should prove insufficient, the state is bound to resort to direct taxes. In 1836, the legislature established a sinking fund for the payment of the debt; to which fund are appropriated bonuses and dividends on bank stock, premiums on scrip, state dividends in turnpike stock and all internal improvements, profits of the commonwealth's bank, proceeds of state stock in the old Bank of Kentucky, and the excess in the treasury over 10,000 dollars of each year. The governor, by an act passed in 1838, is authorised to borrow any sum not exceeding the capacity of the sinking fund, to pay the interest, and ultimately the principal, of the state bonds, at an interest not exceeding 6 per cent. per annum.

Taxation is confined to specific subjects. The aggregate value of such as are chargeable with revenue is 217,453,041 dollars, upon which a tax of 10 cents on the 100 dollars is paid.

OHIO.—The interest on the stock of this state is payable in New York, where the stock is transferable. Auxiliary funds are set apart for the payment of the interest, and, in case of a deficiency therein, it is made the duty of the auditor of state to levy an adequate amount by direct taxation. The loans were invariably made on pledges of specific revenues for the payment of both principal and interest.

The state of Ohio, at the commencement of its loans, organised a system of finance on a firm foundation, providing by direct taxation for the payment of the interest and the ultimate redemption of the principal. In 1837, after the suspension of specie payments, Ohio paid the interest on its debt in New York city paper, at the rate of 109 dollars for each 100 dollars of interest.

Aggregate valuation of real and personal property, 110,000,000 dollars.

INDIANA.—The canal lands granted to the state by the general government on the Wabash river, are pledged for the payment of the loans made on account of the Wabash canal. The interest on the bonds issued to the state bank is paid by the bank.

In 1837, after the suspension of specie payments, this state purchased coin to pay the interest on its debt; and for the July quarter paid 111 dollars in New York paper for each 100 dollars in coin.

Aggregate valuation in 1837 estimated at 95,000,000 dollars.

ILLINOIS.—The state in all cases pays the interest on the stock. In addition to the usual pledge of the faith of the state, lands, revenues, &c., there are specifically pledged for the redemption of the canal bonds, the lands granted by the general government to aid in constructing the canal; the estimate of which is equal to the whole cost of the canal. There is also pledged for the interest and final redemption of the bank bonds, the dividends and the stock owned by the state in the banks, which amounts to nearly half a million of dollars more than the amount of these bonds.

MICHIGAN.—The proceeds of the public works, as well as the faith of the state, is pledged for 5,000,000 dollars—the lands set apart for the University is pledged for the loan for that object. The loans to railroads are secured by pledge of the roads, &c. The interest on 100,000 dollars issued to defray the expenses of the controversy with Ohio, is to be paid by a direct tax.

MISSOURI has issued bonds to the amount of 2,500,000 dollars to the state bank of Missouri.

ARKANSAS has issued 3,000,000 dollars of bonds to two banks in that state.

Statement showing the Amount of Stocks issued, and authorised by Law to be issued, by the several States named below, in each Period of Five Years, from 1820 to 1835, and from 1835 to 1838.

States.	1820 to 1825.	1825 to 1830.	1830 to 1835.	1835 to 1838.	Total.
	Dollars.	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*	*Dollars.*
New York	6,872,781*	1,624,000	2,204,979	12,229,288	22,931,048
Pennsylvania	1,890,000	6,900,000	16,130,000	3,166,787	27,306,790
Massachusetts	-	-	-	4,290,000	4,290,000
Maine	-	-	554,976	-	554,976
Maryland	57,947	576,689	4,210,311	6,648,033	11,492,980
Virginia	1,030,000†	469,000	686,500	4,132,700	6,318,050
South Carolina	1,250,000‡	310,100	-	4,000,000	5,560,000
Ohio	-	4,400,000	1,701,000	-	6,101,000
Kentucky	-	-	-	7,369,000	7,369,000
Illinois	-	-	600,000	11,000,000	11,600,000
Indiana	-	-	1,380,000	10,000,000	11,380,000
Tennessee	-	-	600,000	6,548,000	7,148,000
Alabama	100,000	-	2,300,000	8,500,000	10,900,000
Missouri	-	-	-	2,500,000	2,500,000
Mississippi	-	-	2,000,000	5,000,000	7,000,000
Louisiana	1,900,000	-	7,335,000	14,500,000	23,735,000
Arkansas	-	-	-	3,000,000	3,000,000
Michigan	-	-	-	5,340,000	5,340,000
Total	12,790,728	13,679,689	40,012,769	108,423,805	174,906,994

* Of this amount the sum of about 4 1-2 millions of dollars has been redeemed.
† Virginia has a war debt of 343,139-17 dollars, contracted previous to 1820.
‡ South Carolina has a revolutionary debt of 193,770-18 dollars.

Some doubts having been entertained as to the right of individual states to contract loans, Messrs. Baring, Brothers and Co. addressed a letter on the subject to the distinguished American senator and lawyer, Mr. Webster, lately on a visit to this country. We subjoin his reply:—

"London, Oct. 16, 1839.

"Gentlemen,—I have received your letter, and lose no time in giving you my opinion on the question which you have submitted for my consideration. The assertions and suggestions to which you refer, as having appeared in some of the public prints, had not escaped my notice.

"Your first inquiry is, 'whether the legislature of one of the states has legal and constitutional power to contract loans at home and abroad?'

"To this I answer, that the legislature of a state has such power; and how any doubt could have arisen on this point, it is difficult for me to conceive. Every state is an independent, sovereign, political community, except in so far as certain powers, which it might otherwise have exercised, have been conferred on a general government, established under a written constitution, and exerting its authority over the people of all the states. This general government is a limited government. Its powers are specific and enumerated. All powers not conferred upon it still remain with the states and with the people. The state legislatures, on the other hand, possess all usual and ordinary powers of government, subject to any limitations which may be imposed by their own constitutions, and with the exception, as I have said, of the operation, on those powers, of the constitution of the United States. The powers conferred on the general government cannot, of course, be exercised by any individual state; nor can any state pass any law which is prohibited by the constitution of the United States. Thus no state can by itself make war, or conclude peace, nor enter into alliances or treaties with foreign nations. In these, and other important particulars, the powers which would have otherwise belonged to the state can now be exercised only by the general government, or government of the United States. Nor can a state pass a law which is prohibited by its own constitution. But there is no provision in the constitution of the United States, nor, so far as I know or have understood, in any state constitution, prohibiting the legislature of a state from contracting debts, or making loans, either at home or abroad. Every state has the power of levying and collecting taxes, direct and indirect, of all kinds, except that no state can impose duties on goods and merchandise imported,—that power belonging exclusively to congress by the constitution. That power of taxation is exercised by every state, habitually and constantly, according to its own discretion, and the exigencies of its government.

"This is the general theory of that mixed system of government which prevails in America. And as the constitution of the United States contains no prohibition or restraint on state legislatures in regard to making loans, and as no state constitution, so far as known to me, contains any such prohibition, it is clear that, in this respect, these legislatures are left in the full possession of this power, as an ordinary and usual power of government.

"I have seen a suggestion, that state loans must be regarded as unconstitutional and illegal, inasmuch as the constitution of the United States has declared that no state shall emit bills of credit. It is certain that the constitution of the United States does contain this salutary prohibition; but what is a bill of credit? It has no resemblance whatever to a bond, or other security given for the payment of money borrowed. The term 'bill of credit' is familiar in our political history, and its meaning well ascertained and settled, not only by that history, but by judicial interpretations and decisions from the highest source. For the purpose of this opinion, it may be sufficient to say, that bills of credit, the subject of the prohibition in the constitution of the United States, were essentially paper money. They were paper issues, intended for circulation, and for receipt into the treasury as cash, and were sometimes made a tender in payment of debts. To put an end at once, and for ever, to evils of this sort, and to dangers from this source, the constitution of the United States has declared, that 'no state shall emit bills of credit, nor make any thing but gold and silver a tender in payment of debts, nor pass any law which shall impair the obligation of contracts.' All this, however, proves, not that states cannot contract debts, but that, when contracted, they must pay them in coin, according to their stipulations. The several states possess the power of borrowing money for their own internal occasions of expenditure, as fully as congress possesses the power to borrow in behalf of the United States, for the purpose of raising armies, equipping navies, or performing any other of its constitutional duties. It may be added, that congress itself fully recognises this power in the states, as it has authorized the investment of large funds which it held in trust for very important purposes in certificates of state stocks.

"The security for state loans is the plighted faith of the state, as a political community. It rests on the same basis as other contracts with established governments—the same basis, for example, as loans made to the United States under the authority of congress; that is to say, the good faith of the government making the loan, and its ability to fulfil its engagements. These state loans, it is known, have been contracted principally for the purpose of making railroads and canals; and in some cases, although I know not how generally, the income or revenue expected to be derived from these works is directly and specifically pledged for the payment of the interest and the redemption of the debt, in addition to the obligation of public faith. In several states, other branches of revenue have been specifically pledged; and in others, very valuable tracts of land. It cannot be doubted that the general result of these works of internal improvement has been, and will be, to enhance the wealth and ability of the states.

"It has been said that the states cannot be sued on these bonds. But neither could the United States be sued, nor, as I suppose, the crown of England, in a like case. Nor would the power of suing, probably, give the creditor any substantial additional security. The solemn obligation of a government, arising on its own acknowledged bond, would not be enhanced by a judgment rendered on such bond. If it either could not, or would not, make provision for paying the bond, it is not probable that it could, or would, make provision for satisfying the judgment.

"The states cannot rid themselves of their obligations otherwise than by the honest payment of the debt. They can pass no law impairing the obligation of their own contracts,—they can make nothing a tender in discharge of such contracts but gold and silver. They possess all adequate power of providing for the case, by taxes and internal means of revenue. They cannot get round their duty, nor evade its force. Any failure to fulfil its undertakings would be an open violation of public faith, to be followed by the penalty of dishonour and disgrace,—a penalty, it may be presumed, which no state of the American Union would be likely to incur.

"I hope I may be justified by existing circumstances to close this letter with the expression of an opinion of a more general nature. It is, that I believe the citizens of the United States, like all honest men, regard debts, whether public or private, and whether existing at home or abroad, to be of moral as well as legal obligation; and I trust I may appeal to their history, from the moment when those states took their rank among the nations of the earth to the present time, for proof that this belief is well founded; and if it were possible that any of the states should at any time so entirely lose her self-respect and forget her duty as to violate the faith solemnly pledged for her pecuniary engagements, I believe there is no country upon earth—not even that of the injured creditors—in which such a proceeding would meet with less countenance or indulgence than it would receive from the great mass of the American people.

"I have the honour to be, gentlemen, your obedient servant,

"Messrs. Baring Brothers & Co." "DANIEL WEBSTER."

There can, of course, be no further doubt as to the law on this important subject; and we trust that the states will respectively evince that high moral sense, and determination to pay their just debts, for which their distinguished countryman gives them credit. We confess,

however, that we are not without our misgivings on this point. The extreme facility with which loans on American account have recently been raised in Europe, and especially in this country, on all manner of securities, will turn out, in the end, a serious loss to America; inasmuch as it has tempted her citizens to engage, without sufficient consideration, in the most gigantic undertakings, and to generate and diffuse a spirit far more akin to gambling than to the pursuits of sober industry. In consequence, a vast amount of capital has been unprofitably expended, and to little better purpose, in fact, than if it had been absolutely thrown away. Now, the question which our countrymen, who are so fond of investing in American securities, would do well to ponder, is, will the states continue, after the excitement of the period of expenditure is gone by, regularly to pay the interest of these debts? Suppose that a system of universal suffrage were established in this country, and that we had several millions a year to pay to France or Russia, for loans borrowed from them, and expended less, perhaps, for the public advantage than for the private benefit of the parties who negociated the loans: under such circumstances, we rather incline to think, should any thing occur to excite our prejudices against our foreign creditors, that there would be no small risk of a serious interruption taking place in the payments due to them. And if such a thing might, in the supposed case, be not unreasonably predicated of England, it is not uncharitable to suppose that it may also occur in America.—*S.*

GALACZ. To the conclusion of the paragraph, vol. i., page 701, of this edition, annex the following:—

Navigation of the Danube.—Steam navigation was first established on the Danube in 1830, since which the undertaking has gone on prospering, so much so, that the communication between Vienna and Constantinople is now maintained by a line of seven steam vessels. The Austrian steam company, which was the first in the field, have extended their scheme by starting vessels between Vienna and Linz, and a Bavarian company commenced in 1838 running a vessel between Ratisbon and Linz. It is probable that in a year or two steamers may ply from Ulm downwards.

At present steam boats ply on the Danube as long as the river remains free from ice (usually from February or March to November), from Ratisbon to Linz, once a week; Linz to Vienna, 10 hours, once a week; Vienna to Presburg and Pesth, twice; Pesth to Drenkova, once a week; Gladova to Galacz, once a week; Galacz to Constantinople, once a fortnight.

The voyage from Vienna to Constantinople, including stoppages, is seldom performed in less than fourteen days, and sometimes occupies seventeen; in returning against the stream it takes at least a month, including ten days' quarantine at Orsova. The fare, first place, is 134fl., about 13*l.*; second place, 94fl.

The navigation of the Danube by steamers is unfortunately interrupted for a length of about fifty miles, between Drenkova and Gladova, by rocks and rapids, the lowest and most considerable of which is a sort of cataract, called the "Irongate," about three miles below the Hungarian frontier. It is worthy of remark that the most illustrious of the Roman emperors, Trajan, alive to all the advantages to be derived from the easy navigation of the Danube, had with equal industry and sagacity formed a road, or towing path, along the river's edge for facilitating the operation of towing, of which the remains are still extant, with an inscription commemorative of the completion of the works. It has been proposed to overcome the difficulties in the way of the navigation by renovating the old Roman road, and deepening the channel contiguous to it. But it rarely happens that attempts to improve the navigation in the bed of a river, under any thing like similar circumstances, are even tolerably successful. The better way undoubtedly would be, were it practicable, to construct a lateral canal, or rather a canal from the mouth of the Bereska to Palanka, which would not only avoid the rapids, but also shorten the navigation by getting rid of the bend of the river by Orsova. But the difficulties in the way of such an undertaking, from the nature of the ground, are said to be insuperable; and it is, therefore, probable that the distance of 50 miles along the rapids will continue, if not always, at least for some considerable time, a *portage*. The evil, however, of this break in the navigation has been diminished, as far as possible, by the construction of an admirable carriage road (recently finished), at great expense, by the Hungarian diet, from Moldova to Orsova. In the extent of excavations in the rock, and terraces of masonry, upon which it is carried, it is not inferior as a specimen of engineering to the finest roads over the Alps. Several steamers have been transported down these rapids at the season of floods, small barges pass them at all times, and little boats, laden with wax and wool, are towed up by men and oxen. The passengers and goods conveyed by the steamers are transferred from Moldova in row-boats, to Gladova, below the Irongate, where they embark on another steamer.

A *railroad* is nearly completed from Brunn, the capital of Moravia, to Vienna; another railroad diverges, from the Danube, at Linz, north to Budweis in Bohemia, where it reaches the banks of the Muldau, and through it communicates with the Elbe.—*A.*

GUAYAQUIL.

Account of the Export of Cocoa from Guayaquil, during each of the Six Years ending with 1838, specifying the Countries to which it was exported, and the Quantities sent to each.

Countries.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	Total.
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*
Spain	2,108,166	6,709,861	8,979,379	4,970,996	4,439,816	2,149,902	24,355,920
England	.	.	.	.	626,447	105,566	732,013
France	388,745	276,021	555,275	806,204	.	786 723	2,[illegible]68
United States	880,598	747,627	4,388,150	688,041	1,516,363	994,[illegible]	9,[illegible]10
Mexico	1,276,629	1,891,194	2,999,506	1,014,063	276,949	1,221,491	[illegible]39,832
Central America	961,096	995,979	990,297	480,199	64,070	431,821	[illegible]23,432
New Grenada	50,954	2,106	60,932	49,963	54,718	33,939	[illegible]06,962
Peru	975,901	605,270	958,167	2,137,472	711,821	767,278	5,866,909
Chili	259,847	228,047	966,711	460,253	266,750	160,899	1,740,307
Manilla	159,933	165,778	.	67,483	.	206,370	687,443
Hamburg	.	.	.	.	.	400,002	400,002
Genoa	.	.	.	.	325,377	.	325,377
San Tomas	.	.	405,000	.	.	.	405,000
Rio Janeiro	.	.	308,454	485,871	248,000	.	983,325
Total	6,995,776	10,999,982	15,900,851	10,916,565	8,520,125	7,196,075	60,131,354

The district in which Guayaquil is situated has, for a considerable period, formed a part of the republic of Ecuador or Æquator. Like the other S. American states it has been subjected to perpetually recurring revolutions; but Guayaquil has notwithstanding continued to enjoy a considerable commerce. Its principal article of export is cocoa, of which large quantities are shipped; and next to it are timber, tobacco, ceibo wool used in stuffing mattresses, &c. The principal articles of import are British manufactured cottons and hardware, silks, wine, flour, &c.—*S.*

HAMBURGH.

Table of the Principal Imports, Stocks, Exports, and Consumption at the Port of Hamburg, from 1836 to 1839, both inclusive.

		Stock, Jan. 1.	Import.	Consump. and Exp.	Price in December.
		Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Domingo. Schillings.*
Coffee	1836	14,000,000	47,500,000	48,500,000	4-375 to 5 1-4
	1837	13,000,000	51,625,000	49,625,000	4·125 - 4 3-4
	1838	15,000,000	53,250,000	56,250,000	4·375 - 5·125
	1839	12,000,000	47,500,000	50,000,000	5 - 5 1-4
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840		- -	- -	9,500,000	

		Stock, Jan. 1.	Import.	Consump. and Exp	Price in December.
		Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Br. & yri Hav. Grotes.*
Sugar	1836	21,000,000	83,000,000	81,000,000	5 1-2 to 7
	1837	23,000,000	86,000,000	100,000,000	5 1-4 - 7 1-2
	1838	9,000,000	99,750,000	95,750,000	5 1-2 - 7
	1839	13,000,000	83,250,000	94,250,000	5 1-4 - 6 1-2
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840		- -	- -	11,000,000	

		Pieces.	*Pieces.*	*Pieces.*	*Buenos Ayres Schillings.*
Hides	1836	29,000	89,749	104,549	6 1-4 to 7 1-4
	1837	8,200	111,071	111,871	6·625 - 7 1-2
	1838	8,000	142,535	142,035	6 1-2 - 7 1-2
	1839	8,300	164,994	167,294	7 1-2 - 8 1-4
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840		- -	- -	6,000	

		Hogsheads.	*Hogsheads.*	*Hogsheads.*	*Kentucky. Schillings.*
Tobacco	1836	1,280	3,498	4,048	1·875 to 4 1-2
	1837	780	4,914	5,144	1·875 - 4 3-4
	1838	500	4,444	4,494	2 3-4 - 6 1-2
	1839	280	1,917	1,767	3 - 7
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840		- -	- -	400	

		Bales.	*Bales.*	*Bales.*	*Geo. Upland. Schillings.*
Cotton	1836	9,145	66,106	56,751	7 3-4 to 10 1-4
	1837	18,500	55,450	57,350	8 - 9
	1838	16,600	42,324	50,864	6 - 7 3-4
	1839	7,960	40,956	40,036	6 1-4 - 9
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840		- -	- -	8,880	

		Chs.	*Ser.*	*Chs.*	*Ser.*	*Chs.*	*Ser.*
Indigo	1836	470	350	7,118	480	7,128	6-0
	1837	460	150	4,929	615	4,564	600
	1838	895	165	6,236	163	6,476	223
	1839	595	105	5,923	944	6,273	984
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840		- -		- -		345	65

		Bls.	*Bgs.*	*Bls.*	*Bgs.*	*Bls.*	*Bgs.*	*Carolina Marcs.*
Rice	1836	2,300	6,000	8,707	13,884	9,107	7,884	12 to 14½
	1837	1,900	11,000	9,320	11,840	10,870	12,240	13 - 15
	1838	450	10,000	5,771	30,902	5,471	30,902	16½ - 19
	1839	750	10,000	10,067	27,112	7,317	26,212	13 - 14½
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840		- -	- -	- -	- -	3,500	10,800	

		Lbs.	*Lbs.*	*Lbs.*	*Sumatra. Schillings.*
Pepper	1836	250,000	2,300,000	1,950,000	3-625
	1837	570,000	950,000	1,270,000	3-875
	1838	250,000	1,260,000	1,110,000	4
	1839	400,000	1,900,000	2,000,000	3 3-4
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840		- -	- -	300,000	

		Bags.	*Bags.*	*Bags.*	*Schillings.*
Pimento	1836	14,000	14,815	12,813	3-625 to 3-925
	1837	16,000	8,053	18,053	3-375 - 3-625

		Bags.	*Bags.*	*Bags.*	*Schillings.*
Pimento	1838	11,000	5,803	6,803	3·375 to 3 1-2
	1839	10,000	5,446	8,446	3 1-4 - 3·375
Stock, Jan. 1. 1840		- -	- -	7,000	

Shipping.—The ships arriving at Hamburgh in the undermentioned years (ending 30th of September) have been as under:—

From the	1837.	1838.	1839.
East Indies	19	17	17
Brazil	121	136	140
West Indies	139	160	143
United States	55	39	40
Mediterranean	65	77	80
Spain	33	23	38
Portugal	21	35	34
France	125	118	138
Great Britain	1,160	1,249	1,490
Netherlands	634	654	619
Baltic	513	484	494
Totals	2,884	2,992	3,233

A.

[HAVANNAH.

Number of vessels which entered the port of Havannah from foreign ports, from the 1st of January to the 30th September, 1839:

651	American,	113,373 tons.
55	British,	9,649 "
398	Spanish,	50,710 "
11	Dutch,	1,691 "
10	Belgian,	2,268 "
23	French,	5,109 "
23	Hamburgh,	4,008 "
19	Bremen,	3,522 "
8	Danish,	1,373 "
52	others,	6,130 "
1229		197,763

The coasting vessels, from 30 to 200 tons each, are not included; nor are they reported among the arrivals and departures in the daily papers.—*Am. Ed.*]

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

I. Table exhibiting the different Countries to which Articles of the Produce or Manufacture of the United Kingdom have been exported during the Six Years ending with 1838, arranged in the Order of the Magnitude of the Exports to them; and specifying the average annual Amount of the Exports to each during the said Six Years, and the Portion of such Exports destined for each, supposing the whole Exports to be 1,000.

Countries.	Average annual Amount of Exports, 1833–38.	Average annual Proportion exported to each Country, supposing the whole Exports to be 1,000.	Countries.	Average annual Amount of Exports. 1833–38.	Average annual Proportion exported to each Country, supposing the whole Exports to be 1,000.
	£.			£.	
United States of America	8,283,298	181·260,779	Hayti	308,913	6·628,557
Germany	4,462,721	101·595,311	Mauritius	251,165	5·496,171
East India Company's territories and Ceylon	3,375,204	73·858,606	Egypt (ports on the Mediterranean)	208,877	4·570,795
British West Indies	3,183,832	69·666,491	Malta	164,832	3·602,594
Italy and the Italian Islands	2,738,161	59 918,379	Columbia	164,004	3·588,852
Holland	2,733,274	59·811,638	Prussia	152,728	3·342,018
Brazil	2,521,391	55·174,964	Denmark	113,113	2·475,219
British North American colonies	2,131,260	46·637,741	Ionian Islands	95,166	2·082,490
Russia	1,686,391	36·902,803	Sweden	90,813	1·987,234
France	1,494,597	32·706,891	Philippine Islands	84,821	1·856,113
Turkey and Continental Greece (exclusive of the Morea)	1,277,464	30·142,843	Norway	70,945	1·552,469
Portugal Proper	1,242,114	27·180,819	Azores	66,231	1·151,709
China	966,170	21·680,071	Madeira	40,451	·893,330
Cuba and other Foreign West Indies	863,584	18·897,557	Syria and Palestine	37,016	·810,010
Belgium	861,196	18·845,301	Canary Islands	35,911	·785,829
New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land and Swan River	844,100	18·471,194	Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	33,926	·742,393
Chili	703,385	15·391,969	Morea and Greek Islands	23,275	·511,508
States of the Rio de la Plata	676,872	14·277,441	St. Helena	21,253	·465,073
Gibraltar	667,570	14·608,240	Guatemala	8,354	·182,808
Peru	427,154	9·346,128	Arabia	3,935	·086,108
Cape of Good Hope	428,659	9·380,220	Ports of Spain	2,290	·071,994
Mexico	416,452	9·113,198	Isle of Bourbon	1,814	·039,696
Sumatra and Java	391,617	8·251,470	Eastern coast of Africa	1,763	·038,557
Western coast of Africa	316,953	7·811,077	New Zealand and South Sea Islands	786	·017,200
Spain and the Balearic Islands	356,898	7·809,786	Cape Verd Islands	635	·013,896
Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	340,118	7·442,896	Ascension Island	179	·003,917
			African Ports on the Red Sea	83	·000,723
			Total	45,698,183	1·000,000,000

II. Account of the Quantities of the principal Articles of Foreign and Colonial Merchandise imported into, exported from, and retained for Consumption in, the United Kingdom, with Nett Produce of the Revenue accruing thereon, during the Years 1837 and 1838.

Description.		Quantities imported.		Quantities exported.		Quantities retained for Consumption.		Nett Revenue.	
		1837.	1838.	1837.	1838.	1837.	1838.	1837.	1838.
								£.	£.
Ashes, pearl and pot	cwt.	147,329	127,101	19,910	5,097	128,098	122,290	193	233
Cocoa	lbs.	2,853,000	4,096,409	253,276	696,267	1,416,613	1,601,787	13,922	15,255
Husks and shells	—	511,757	884,842	—	—	491,170	421,548		
Coffee, viz. —									
British plantation	—	15,194,418	17,436,623	329,017	93,27	17,188,158	15,493,639	666,645	686,092
East India and Mauritius	—	2,950,005	3,415,593	1,320,255	246,578	2,905,634	10,263,843		
Foreign plantations	—	11,278,096	14,080,068	6,411,703	10,963,455	3,169	3,191		
All sorts	—	26,412,514	29,932,279	8,060,975	11,293,290	26,346,961	25,765,673		
Cor', unmanufactured	cwt.	60,915	51,852	246	295	60,076	57,522	24,124	23,119
Cotton wool, from foreign countries, viz. —									
The U. S. of America	lbs.	320,611,716	431,437,888						
Brazil	—	20,940,145	24,464,505						
Turkey, Syria, and Egypt	—	7,981,540	5,412,476						
Other foreign countries	—	4,616,829	4,759,980						
Total		354,090,230	466,074,551						
Cotton wool, from British possession, viz. —									
East Indies and Mauritius, the growth of	—	51,577,141	40,329,495						
— — Foreign	—	50	569						
British West Indies, the growth of	—	1,196,162	928,435						
— — Foreign	—	266,540	600,931						
Other British possessions	—	23,654	16,606						
Total quantities		407,296,783	507,850,577	99,722,031	80,644,469	368,446,095	455,096,765	450,658	557,892
Indigo	lbs.	6,545,873	7,004,998	5,567,561	5,143,891	2,926,194	3,003,720	29,889	34,819
Lac dye	—	1,011,674	1,068,552	126,949	400,937	433,335	275,089	1,140	1,693
Logwood	tons	14,699	16,992	3,316	4,937	12,023	13,798	2,543	2,881
Madder	cwt.	84,841	97,411	242	2,274	79,230	107,291	9,037	10,912
Madder roots	—	109,335	73,701	3	169	100,506	82,841	2,532	2,070
Flax and tow, or oodilla of hemp and flax	—	1,000,365	1,626,277	6,270	4,690	998,654	1,615,905	4,234	6,427
Currants	—	217,921	192,733	17,241	22,981	174,246	169,424	109,230	104,498
Lemons and oranges	chests	349,990	262,107	1,686	1,308	311,490	229,848	66,431	50,980
Raisins	—	169 590	185,466	11,536	15,653	152,163	155,174	114,095	116,330
Hats of straw	No.	26,228	14,472	12,714	9,778	5,624	4,522	1,612	1,292
Plaiting of straw	lbs.	30,862	40,110	7,548	11,026	23,962	34,663	20,003	29,054
Hemp, undressed	cwt.	773,621	730,376	16,574	36,458	651,613	733,378	4,768	5,184

Table II.—*continued.*

Description.	Quantities imported.		Quantities exported.		Quantities retained for Consumption.		Nett Revenue.	
	1837.	1838.	1837.	1838.	1837.	1838.	1837.	1838.
							L.	*L.*
Hides, untanned, viz.—								
Buffalo, bull, cow, ox, or horse - cwt.	338,652	348,962	46,849	36,492	290,730	316,369	29,492	41,551
Hides, tanned, viz.—								
Buffalo, bull, cow, ox, or horse - lbs.	97,678	165,955	19,903	121,142	63,895	20,862	314	216
Molasses - - cwt.	582,283	650,529	1,641	1,291	592,019	526,210	268,324	236,588
Oil, olive - - gallons	1,721,914	2,009,110	209,472	200,763	1,498,656	2,026,148	34,986	45,116
— palm - - cwt.	223,337	297,312	16,732	8,329	211,919	272,991	13,299	17,102
— train, spermaceti, and blubber - tons	21,803	23,281	393	1,192	20,278	26,808	14,370	6,605
Saltpetre and cubic nitre - - cwt.	349,993	396,535	86,969	68,289	240,222	290,890	6,329	7,505
Flax and linseed - bushels	3,321,049	3,304,969	6,979	146,926	3,941,643	3,136,695	21,118	19,921
Tares - - —	130,036	88,015	183	437	107,498	71,955	5,532	4,210
Silk, raw - - lbs.	4,140,441	3,458,959	345,971	184,453	3,520,105	3,595,816	15,454	15,396
Waste and hanks - —	943,281	945,395	21,268	32,284	867,456	852,305	389	427
Cassia lignea - - —	964 674	980,655	760,141	557,702	105,485	100,897	2,642	2,521
Pepper - - - —	3,291,993	3,694,342	4,768,860	3,077,109	2,625,075	- -	65,641	
Pimento - - - —	2,113,300	905,866	1,276,645	807,530	535,406	- -	4,193	
Sugar, viz.—			Raw.					
West India, of British possessions - cwt.	3,906,238	3,521,434	448,392	274,697				
East India, of British possessions - —	296,979	423,854	- -	- -				
East India, of foreign possessions - —	77,697	199,677	- -	- -	3,954,810	3,909,665	4,760,565	4,656,892
Mauritius - - —	537,961	604,671	- -	- -				
			Refined actual weight.					
Foreign - - —	226,073	231,788	227,807	233,648				
Tallow - - - —	1,314,649	1,122,449	52,375	12,513	1,289,514	1,160,167	203,977	183,669
Tea - - - lbs.	36,973,931	40,413,714	4,716,249	2,577,877	30,625,206	33,351,583	3,323,940	3,362,035
Timber, viz.—								
Battens and battens ends - - gt.	hhds. 15,983	15,020	128	95	14,451	17,640	133,806	161,112
Deals and deal ends - —	72,934	72,797	946	1,906	66,651	76,978	580,570	622,351
Masts, 6 and under 8 ins. in diameter - No.	9,474	11,240	199	303	9,763	10,969	2,685	3,331
Masts, 8 and under 12 ins. in diameter - —	3,623	3,943	160	121	3,444	3,690	2,313	2,635
Masts, 12 inches and upwards - - —	4,273	4,339	19	75	4,077	4,393	4,571	6,494
Oak planks - - —	1,968	3,996	6	- -	2,199	3,889	8,813	15,552
Staves - - gt.	hhds. 35,731	75,191	1,638	1,876	34,454	75,461	51,693	58,738
Fir, 8 ins. square and upwards - - loads	579,960	647,081	848	543	491,036	633,899	456,416	572,595
Oak - - - —	31,636	34,690	2	- -	30,940	36,154	41,475	46,766
Unenumerated - —	48,484	43,413	30	45	48,026	43,523	12,073	10,979
Wainscot logs - —	5,593	5,737	3	- -	4,020	4,518	10,938	12,353
Tin - - - cwt.	28,102	30,732	29,216	29,094	2	72	6	61
Tobacco, viz.—								
Unmanufactured - lbs.	27,144,107	30,162,024	17,241,587	11,540,495	22,221,489	23,149,726	3,417,663	3,561,812
Manufactured or cigars - - —	602,186	1,445,084	309,969	652,926	144,395	189,716		
Snuff - - - —	4,153	567	3,472	791	351	294		
Wine, viz.—								
Cape - - - galls.	618,105	342,372	6,766	2,712	500,737	538,528	68,834	74,037
French - - —	725,140	544,129	106,935	131,823	438,594	417,281	120,386	113,942
Portugal - - —	2,683,365	3,183,725	199,518	245,166	2,560,252	2,900,467		797,243
Madeira - - —	299,400	284,920	148,107	139,113	111,376	110,294		30,288
Spanish - - —	2,802,585	3,375,847	492,345	663,248	2,278,393	2,497,538	1,497,957	685,812
Other sorts, including wine mixed in bond —	904,850	857,491	381,122	408,988	502,319	526,173		144,643
All sorts -	5,083,480	5,518,454	1,384,793	1,568,427	6,391,581	6,990.27	1,687,097	1,846,057

III. Account of the Value of the various Articles of the Produce and Manufacture of the United Kingdom exported to Foreign Ports, according to the real or declared Value thereof, in the Years 1836, 1837, and 1838.

Articles.	1836.	1837.	1838.
Great Britain.	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*
Alum - - - - - -	2,998	2,761	5,753
Apparel, slops, and negro clothing - - - -	604,963	531,301	584,934
Arms and ammunition - - - -	411,296	299,142	353,697
Bacon and hams - - - -	42,319	35,840	43,226
Beef and pork, salted - - - -	136,886	118,117	118,498
Beer and ale - - - -	264,560	268,235	311,792
Books, printed - - - -	178,034	147,430	143,915
Brass and copper manufactures - - - -	1,072,092	1,165,089	1,251,078
Bread and biscuit - - - -	8,184	9,991	9,849
Butter and cheese - - - -	205,866	179,073	230,674
Cabinet and upholstery wares - - - -	75,511	67,357	77,201
Coals and culm - - - -	329,789	428,690	481,870
Cordage - - - -	84,475	73,231	92,986
Corn, grain, meal, and flour - - - -	51,227	34,731	31,519
Cotton manufactures - - - -	19,982,586	15,632,146	16,709,158
yarn - - - -	6,120,326	6,955,936	7,431,848
Cows and oxen - - - -	3,072	6,107	4,314
Earthenware of all sorts - - - -	337,493	363,062	451,096
Fish of all sorts - - - -	181,433	194,120	209,601
Glass of all sorts - - - -	351,599	475,995	375,859
Haberdashery and millinery - - - -	621,980	414,687	514,053
Hardwares and cutlery - - - -	2,270,630	1,460,404	1,497,525
Hats, beaver and felt - - - -	147,907	104,400	91,256
of all other sorts - - - -	41,759	48,290	61,594
Hops - - - - -	11,782	10,547	17,397
Horses - - - - -	99,302	75,315	65,389
Iron and steel, wrought and unwrought - - -	2,940,207	2,005,706	2,550,895
Lard - - - - -	26,585	14,782	22,433
Lead and shot - - - - -	224,921	155,210	154,102
Leather, wrought and unwrought - - - -	316,322	250,808	267,103
saddlery and harness - - -	63,588	57,097	60,841

Table III.—continued.

Articles.	1836.	1837.	1838.
	L.	*L.*	*L.*
Linen manufactures	3,249,053	3,103,897	3,795,236
Yarn	315,633	415,736	587,891
Machinery and mill work	200,862	493,298	647,146
Mathematical and optical instruments	25,030	27,259	24,474
Mules	5,366	5,104	6,131
Musical instruments	76,120	71,518	85,292
Oil, train, of Greenland fishery	5,836	5,700	10,463
Painters' colours	210,911	151,307	177,078
Plate, plated ware, jewellery, and watches	238,809	257,728	240,393
Potatoes	4,915	7,030	12,570
Salt	171,483	190,444	221,111
Saltpetre, British refined	14,411	19,393	28,079
Seeds of all sorts	8,920	7,466	10,331
Silk manufactures	916,777	803,653	777,173
Soap and candles	276,223	230,835	334,248
Spirits	24,227	10,485	17,385
Stationery of all sorts	207,046	197,483	218,178
Sugar, refined	253,327	453,994	553,223
Tin, unwrought	81,547	78,157	101,800
and pewter wares, and tin plates	397,523	371,518	456,798
Tobacco, manufactured, and snuff	13,654	13,124	12,446
Tongues	2,599	3,744	5,490
Umbrellas and parasols	62,336	39,464	50,702
Whalebone	10,550	6,347	6,201
Wool, sheep's	223,549	185,350	291,356
Wool of other sorts	29,267	10,076	24,390
Woollen and worsted yarn	345,690	337,140	394,536
Woollen manufactures	7,636,117	4,654,397	5,799,417
All other articles	1,233,932	1,117,909	1,835,546
Total real or declared value of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom exported from *Great Britain* to foreign parts	42,940,838	41,705,205	49,640,896
Ireland. Total declared value of the produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom exported from *Ireland* to foreign parts	368,141	303,040	420,074
United Kingdom. Total	43,308,979	42,008,245	50,060,970

IV. Account of the Declared Value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported from the United Kingdom, specifying the various Countries to which the same were exported, and the Values sent to each, in 1838.

Countries.	1838.	Countries.	1838.	Countries.	1838.
	L.		*L.*		*L.*
Russia	1,663,243	Syria and Palestine	188,440	New Zealand and South Sea Islands	1,086
Sweden	102,647	Egypt (Ports on the Mediterranean)	242,505	British North American Colonies	1,992,457
Norway	77,485	Tripoli, Barbary, and Morocco	74,013	— West Indies	3,363,441
Denmark	181,404	Western Coast of Africa	413,354	Hayti	290,139
Prussia	155,223	Cape of Good Hope	633,325	Cuba and other Foreign West Indies	1,085,392
Germany	4,986,900	Eastern Coast of Africa	10,589	United States of America	7,885,760
Holland	3,549,429	African Ports on the Red Sea	196	Mexico	438,778
Belgium	1,068,010	Ascension Island	1,075	Columbia	174,318
France	2,314,141	Cape Verd Islands	1,392	Brazil	2,606,604
Portugal Proper	1,165,395	St. Helena	12,990	States of the Rio de la Plata	680,345
— Azores	36,525	Mauritius	467,342	Chili	413,647
— Madeira	34,407	Mauritius	197	Peru	412,195
Spain and the Balearic Islands	243,639	Arabia		Isles of Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, and Man	543,854
— Canaries	47,693	East India Company's Territories and Ceylon	3,878,196		
Gibraltar	894,096	China	1,204,356		
Italy and the Italian Islands	3,078,251	Sumatra and Java	506,302		
Malta	236,040	Philippine Islands	31,780		
Ionian Islands	96,190	New South Wales, Van Diemen's Land, and Swan River	1,336,652	Total	50,060,970
Turkey and Continental Greece (exclusive of the Morea)	1,797,110				
Morea and Greek Islands	20,987				

Remarks on the above Tables.—Foreign Competition.—The falling off in the exports in 1837, (see p. 36.) was almost entirely owing to the decline in the exports to the United States, which fell off from 12,425,605*l.* in 1836, to 4,695,225*l.* in 1837. But this extraordinary decline was wholly owing to accidental causes, or to the pecuniary difficulties in which the mercantile class in the United States were involved in the latter part of 1836 and 1837, through the previous abuse of credit, and the revulsion occasioned by the universal stoppage of the banks. It was clear, that how severe soever in the meantime, any check to commerce originating in such circumstances would be of a temporary description; and, in point of fact, its influence soon ceased to have any very perceptible operation, and our exports to the United States were, in 1838, almost as large as ever.

But this is not all. Since the foregoing tables were published, an account has been printed exhibiting the declared value of the principal articles of native produce and manufacture exported from the United Kingdom in 1839. We subjoin this account, and it is seen from it, that the increase in the value of the exports of the 19 articles which it embraces in 1839 over the value of the same articles exported in 1838, amounts to nearly 2,000,000*l.* (See p. 797.)

It is obvious, therefore, that the statements that have recently been put forth with so much misplaced confidence, as to the injurious influence of foreign competition on our trade, and the consequent decline of our exports, are not mere exaggerations, but are wholly without any real foundation. The competition of Saxony, Rhenish Prussia, and Belgium, is represented as the most formidable; and if we might credit the statements put forth at public

Account of the declared Value of the principal Articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufacture exported in the Years ending the 5th of January, 1839 and 1840.

Articles.	1838.	1839.
	L.	*L.*
Coals and culm	486,950	543,156
Cotton manufactures	16,715,537	17,664,303
yarn	7,431,899	6,857,526
Earthenware	611,344	768,496
Glass	277,283	371,270
Hardware and cutlery	1,495,327	1,819,000
Linen manufactures	2,730,272	3,423,489
yarn	836,103	914,607
Metals, viz.—Iron and steel	2,536,692	2,702,738
Copper and brass	1,231,752	1,283,977
Lead	154,138	195,640
Tin, in bars, &c.	101,848	112,620
Tin plates	436,577	545,442
Salt	223,456	219,069
Silk manufactures	777,280	965,769
Sugar, refined	553,247	213,736
Wool, sheep's or lambs'	434,706	561,879
Woollen yarn	884,585	401,188
Woollen manufactures	5,795,069	6,378,099
Total of the foregoing articles	43,344,631	45,281,254

meetings, and circulated by the press, as to the wonderful progress of manufactures in these countries, and the destructive influence of the Prussian League on our trade, it might be supposed that our exports to Germany had been reduced to little or nothing. But, how stands the fact? The declared value of our exports to Prussia, Germany, Holland, and Belgium, since 1830, has been—

	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.
	L.	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*	*L.*
Prussia	177,923	192,816	218,558	144,179	136,423	169,273	160,722	151,536	155,221
Germany	4,463,905	3,642,952	5,063,907	4,355,548	4,547,168	4,672,966	4,463,729	4,998,016	4,989,001
Holland	2,024,459	2,062,536	2,792,898	2,181,493	2,470,457	2,819,402	2,509,622	3,040,029	3,589,423
Belgium				886,429	750,059	815,487	839,276	801,917	1,068,910
Totals		5,918,304	8,116,951	7,568,049	7,903,915	8,359,128	7,973,349	8,974,499	9,761,555

It appears, therefore, that so far from there having been any falling off in our trade with Germany, and the countries through which Germany is supplied with manufactured goods, our exports to them have decidedly increased, and are greater at this moment than they were before the League was organised, or those improvements of which we have heard so much, had made any progress. It is not competition of the foreigner but of the home manufacturers against each other, that reduces prices and profits, and gives rise to perpetually recurring complaints of the decay of trade. Provided tranquillity be maintained at home, and Britain continue to be exempted from that political agitation that is the bane of industry and the curse of every country in which it prevails, we have nothing to fear from foreign competition. Our natural and acquired advantages for the prosecution of manufactures and trade, are vastly superior to those of every other country; and though foreigners do excel us in a few departments, and may come to excel us in others, so that the character and channels of our trade may, in consequence, be partially changed, there is not so much as the shadow of a foundation for supposing that its amount will be at all affected. On the contrary, it is all but certain that it will continue to augment with the augmenting wealth and population of the innumerable nations with which we have commercial relations.

But it has been said, that though the declared value of our exports in 1839 be considerably greater than in 1838, the quantities of raw cotton, foreign wool, &c. entered for home consumption in 1839 were decidedly less than in 1838; and that, consequently, the extension of the export trade has been owing to the decline of the home demand for manufactures, originating in the depressed state of the manufacturing population. But we doubt whether there be much in this. The quantity of any article entered for home consumption is a totally different thing from the quantity *actually consumed*; and it is this only that is of the least importance. Now it is plain, that to determine the quantity consumed, we must not only know the quantities entered for consumption, but we must further know the stocks on hand at the beginning and end of the year; and before it can be truly affirmed that there has been any decline in the consumption of cotton goods, it would be necessary to know whether the stocks of such goods in the manufacturers' and dealers' hands had increased or diminished.

It appears from the *Parl. Paper*, No. 80. sess. 1840, that the cotton entered for consumption, in 1838, amounted to 460,756,013 lbs., whereas in 1839 it only amounted to 355,781,960 lbs., being a decline of about 105,000,000 lbs. But the actual consumption did not fall off in any thing like this proportion: on the contrary, it is stated in the most valuable document published on the state of the cotton trade—the annual circular of Messrs. Holt & Co. of Liverpool, for the 31st of December, 1839 (vol. i., p. 522.)—that the consumption of cotton in 1838 amounted to about 416,700,000 lbs., and in 1839 to about 381,700,000 lbs., being a decline of only 35,000,000 lbs., which was wholly owing to the increase in the price of raw cotton; and we have been assured by those well acquainted with

the facts, that this diminution of the consumption has been fully balanced by a proportionate diminution of the stocks of manufactured goods held by the manufacturers and dealers; so that it would appear that the supposed decrease of the home demand is about as visionary as the supposed disastrous influence of Prussian and Saxon competition. The decline in the entries of foreign sheep's wool in 1839, as compared with 1838, is too inconsiderable to deserve notice; but, such as it is, it is certainly to be accounted for in the same manner.

No doubt, however, there has been considerable mercantile and manufacturing distress during the last twelve months; but its extent has been ridiculously exaggerated, and it is besides clear that foreign competition had nothing to do with it. The distress that has existed is wholly, or almost wholly, ascribable to domestic causes—to the rise in the rate of interest, and the pressure on the money market, occasioned by the abuses that periodically and necessarily grow out of our vicious banking system, and to the indifferent harvests of 1838 and 1839. But the reader may be assured that there is nothing in the situation of the manufactures and commerce of the country that should excite any alarm.

Although, however, we attach no weight to the exaggerated and unfounded statements that have been so perseveringly circulated as to the decay of trade, we are not certainly of the number of those who think that no change should be made in the commercial policy of the country, or that it may not be very materially improved. Restrictive regulations and oppressive duties, though much diminished of late years, still continue to exert a very powerful and mischievous influence over many departments of industry; and are, in fact (supposing tranquillity to be preserved), the only thing from which it is at all reasonable to apprehend any serious injury. It is in all respects of the utmost importance that every practicable effort should be made for their modification and reduction. They not only diminish exportation, by diminishing importation, but inflict a grievous injury on the consumer, without producing any corresponding advantage to the revenue, to which, indeed, they are decidedly hostile. Perhaps, however, their worst effect consists in the handle and pretence which they afford for all sorts of misrepresentation and abuse. This has been strikingly evinced in the recent discussions as to the Corn Laws. All parties, manufacturers, and agriculturists, seem generally to entertain the most erroneous notions as to the influence of these statutes. The truth is, that, in ordinary years, it is now, thanks to the spread of agricultural improvement, all but imperceptible. During the six years ending with 1837, the average price of wheat in Great Britain was 50*s.* 2*d.* a quarter; and we are bold to say, that not a tittle of evidence has been, or can be produced, to show that this price would have been reduced 5*s.* a quarter had the ports been all the while open to unconditional importation from abroad. Hence, were our manufactures really declining, or in a perilous state, which happily they are not, it is idle to suppose that this decline or danger could be obviated by the repeal of the Corn Laws. The influence of the latter is now little felt, except in unfavourable years, when the home crops are deficient; but then it is extremely injurious. This arises not only from the restrictions which they lay on importation at the time, but also from the discouragement which they give to warehousing in ordinary years, and, consequently, forcing the required supply to be suddenly introduced, to the great derangement of the ordinary channels of trade and of the currency. Such a state of things should not be allowed to exist; and seeing that the agriculturists have really nothing to fear from the opening of the ports, sound policy would suggest that foreign corn should be admitted at all times for home consumption, under such a reasonable constant duty (5*s.* or 6*s.* on wheat, and other grain in proportion) as may be required to countervail the burdens peculiarly affecting the land. The exclusion of foreign sugar, and the regulations as to the timber trade, are productive of nothing but mischief, and have not, in fact, a single redeeming quality about them: their effect is to add very materially to the price of a most important necessary of life, and of our houses, ships, and machinery, and to deprive the Treasury of at least 1,500,000*l.* a year of revenue. But were the corn laws and those relating to timber and sugar placed on a proper footing, and some of the more oppressive duties in our tariff, as those on brandy and hollands, adequately reduced, the foreign competition to which we might be exposed would be productive of nothing but advantage. Such competition is, in reality, the vivifying principle of industry, *curis acuens mortalia corda.* It gives a new stimulus to the inventive powers, at the same time that it supplies new products and new modes of enjoyment to reward the labour of the industrious. It must ever be borne in mind, that the amount of the exports from a country always depends upon, and is, in fact, measured by, the amount of its imports; and while the magnitude of the latter continues to increase, and we freely open our ports to the products of all countries and climates, we may be sure that our exports will equally increase, and be found in every market.—*S.*

[LIGHT-HOUSE.—The following six new light-houses have been erected on the coast of France:—

1. *Island of St. Marcouf*, in latitude of 49 deg. 29 min. 55 sec., longitude 3 deg. 29 min. west of Paris; the light situated on the fort, about 55 feet above the level of the sea, and may be perceived, in fine weather, at the distance of three leagues.

2. *Port Navalo*, on the right side of the entrance of the Morbihan; the light situated on the point, about 70 feet above the sea, and is visible, in fine weather, at the distance of 3 leagues.

3. *Cape Ferret*, about one mile north of the entrance of the Basin of Arcachon, in latitude 44 deg. 38 min. 43 sec., longitude 3 deg. 35 min. 15 sec., west of Paris; the light situated about 200 feet above the level of the sea, and visible at the distance of 6 leagues.

The above are on the Atlantic coasts. The following are on the Mediterranean, near the mouths of the Rhone:

4. *La Camargue.*—In place of the small light-houses on the east bank of the entrance of the old Rhone, a new one, of the first order, with a fixed light, has been established on a tower, at the height of about 90 feet above the level of the sea, in latitude of 43 deg. [illegible] min. 30 sec., longitude 3 deg. 20 min. 30 sec. east from Paris; the light visible at the distance of 6 [illegible]gues.

5. *Port de Cassis*, in latitude of 43 deg. 12 min. 30 sec., longitude 3 deg. 11 min. 40 sec. east from Paris, on the left side of the entrance of the port, 90 feet above the level of the sea; visible at the distance of 3 leagues.

6. *Port de la Ciotat.*—Another light on a tower at the end of the new mole, on the right side of the entrance of the port, in latitude of 43 deg. 10 min. 55 sec., longitude 3 deg. 16 min. 28 sec. east of Paris, visible at the distance of 3 leagues. This second light will prevent all possibility of mistaking Ciota, for Cassis. *Am. Ed.*]

[LIVERPOOL. The American editor originally intended to have given a separate article under this head, as well as under that of London; but, on further consideration, he has judged this to be unnecessary, on account of the very full description by the author of the commerce of these cities, in the article Docks, in the body of the work.—*Am. Ed.*]

[LONDON. (See Liverpool in this supplement.)—*Am. Ed.*]

NAUPLIA. (See Greece.)

NEWSPAPERS.

Return of the Number of Stamps issued to the different Newspapers in England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, during each of the Three Years ending the 5th of January, 1839. (Compiled from the *Parl. Paper*, No. 548. Sess. 1839.) N. B. The reduced rate of duty took effect on the 15th of September, 1836.

	1836.				Total.	1837.		Total.	1838.		Total.
England.	4d. Stamps.	2d. Stamps.	1d. Stamps.	1-2d. Stamps.		1d. Stamps.	1-2d. Stamps.		1d. Stamps.	1-2d. Stamps.	
London papers	13,367,852	85,125	8,324,239	43,040	21,720,256	29,464,920	204,730	29,669,650	28,510,291	171,086	28,681,367
Provincial papers	5,744,623	33,000	2,754,662	27,300	9,559,585	14,937,843	198,590	15,036,873	15,989,432	258,244	16,247,676
Scotland.	Newspapers.		Supplements.			Newspapers.	Supplements.		Newspapers.	Supplements.	
Scotch papers	2,941,883		2,100		2,943,983	3,893,710	79,400	3,973,110	4,116,942	111,284	4,228,270
Ireland.	2d. Newspapers.	1d. Newspapers.	1-2d. Supplements.			1d. Newspapers.	1-2d. Supplements.		1d. Newspapers.	1-2d. Supplements.	
Dublin papers	1,497,323	745,825	5,800		2,248,749	2,990,488	53,025	3,043,513	2,929,455	62,616	2,992,071
Irish country papers	1,205,707	836,950	2,000		2,044,657	2,223,933	26,340	2,249,693	2,206,136	12,791	2,308,927
Total stamps	.	.	.		36,517,229	.	.	53,972,339	.	.	54,458,411

Return of the Amount of Advertisement Duty paid by the Different Newspapers in England and Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, during each of the Three Years ending the 5th of January, 1839 (Compiled as above.)

	1836.	1837.	1838.
	L. s. d.	*L.* s. d.	*L.* s. d.
London papers	40,640 3 0	39,025 3 6	44,448 17 0
English provincial papers	44,441 6 8	48,879 10 7	50,625 5 5
Scotch papers	10,666 13 6	11,687 2 6	13,006 7 6
Dublin papers	4,409 14 0	4,500 8 0	4,505 17 0
Irish country papers	4,085 4 0	4,056 6 8	4,136 6 0
	104,243 1 2	108,148 11 3	116,721 12 11

It is seen from the first of the above returns, that the principal increase has been in the circulation of English provincial papers, which has risen from 9,559,585 in 1836, to 16,247,676 in 1838, being a rise of about 70 per cent. In Ireland, the stamp duty, previously to the reduction, was lower than in Britain, and the measure has consequently had comparatively little influence in that part of the empire.—S.

OPIUM. The opium trade, as the readers of the Dictionary are aware, has been, for a lengthened period, prohibited by the Chinese government, and has, in consequence, been conducted as a sort of smuggling speculation. There would seem, however, to be good grounds for thinking that the prohibition of the importation of opium was all along intended to be more apparent than real. At all events, it is certain that the trade has grown gradually up, from a small beginning, to be one of great extent and value; and it is contradictory and absurd to suppose that this should have been the case, had it encountered any considerable opposition from the Chinese authorities. But the truth is, that these functionaries, instead of opposing the trade, or even merely conniving at it, were parties to its being openly carried on; and received certain regulated and large fees on all the opium that was imported. It has even been alleged that a part of these fees had found its way into the imperial treasury at Pekin, though that is more doubtful. The appetite for the drug increased with the increasing means of gratifying it; and there appeared to be no assignable limits to the quantity that might be disposed of in the empire.

The rapid extension of the trade seems at length to have awakened the attention of the court of Pekin to the subject. We doubt, however, notwithstanding what has been alleged to the contrary, whether a sense of the injurious consequences of the use of the drug had much to do in the matter. This, indeed, is a part of the subject as to which there exists a great deal of misapprehension; and we are well assured, that, provided it be not carried to excess, the use of opium is not more injurious than that of wine, brandy, or other stimulants. In truth and reality, the alarm of the Chinese government was not about the health or morals of its subjects, but about their bullion! They are still haunted by the same visionary fears of being drained of a due supply of gold and silver, that formerly haunted the people of this country. The imports of opium having increased so rapidly as to be no longer balanced by the exports of tea and silk, sycee silver began also to be exported! The court of Pekin could have tolerated what are called the demoralising effects of opium with stoical indifference, but the exportation of silver was not a thing to be endured.—It is, however, only fair to state, that the Chinese statesmen are not all of the Bexley school; and that some of them appear to have taken an enlightened view of the question, and to have emancipated themselves from the prejudices that still influence a majority of their colleagues. The statesmen in question contended, that the taste for the drug was far too deeply seated and too widely diffused to admit of its effectual prohibition; and they, therefore, proposed that its importation should be legalised, subjecting it, at the same time, to a heavy duty. There cannot be a doubt that this was the proper mode of dealing with the subject. In the end, however, the government of Pekin, influenced by unfounded theories, as to the mischievous effect of the export of the precious metals, came to a different conclusion, and resolved to put a stop to the traffic.

No sooner had this resolution been adopted, than a most extraordinary change appears to have taken place in the conduct of the Chinese authorities; and their usual caution seems to have wholly deserted them. They now became as precipitate and violent as they had previously been slow and circumspect; and resolved at all hazards to attempt forcibly to put down the trade. To accomplish this, all foreigners were, in March, 1839, prohibited from leaving Canton; and compulsory measures were at the same time resorted to for compelling them to deliver up the opium in their possession.

How the affair might have ended, had our countrymen at Canton been left to the exercise of their own judgment in this crisis, it is impossible to say; but we have been assured by those on whose statements we are disposed to rely, that they would most probably have succeeded in getting out of it with comparatively little loss. Instead, however, of acting for themselves, they had to act in obedience to the orders of Mr. Elliot, chief superintendent of the British trade in Canton; and he, while under constraint, occasioned by confinement to the factory, and without supplies of food, which was withheld by the Chinese, commanded all the opium belonging to British subjects to be given up to him for delivery to the Chinese authorities; declaring, at the same time, that "failing the surrender of the said opium," the British government should be free "of all measure of responsibility or liability in respect of British-owned opium."

We do not presume to offer any opinion as to the necessity or policy of this proceeding on the part of the superintendent; but, in consequence thereof, and of the unjustifiable proceedings of the Chinese, above 20,000 chests of opium, worth upwards of 2,000,000*l.* sterling, were delivered up to Mr. Elliot by British subjects, and by him to the Chinese authorities; and the latter, not satisfied with the possession of the opium, which it was their duty to have placed in a state of security till the matters with respect to it should be arranged, immediately proceeded to destroy it! Having succeeded thus far, the Chinese next insisted that the foreign merchants should subscribe a bond, pledging themselves not to import opium into any part of China; or that, if they did, they were to be justly liable to the penalty of *death*. But this condition being refused, and no arrangement having been come to, Mr. Elliot suspended the trade on the 22d of May; and a collision has since taken place between a British sloop of war and some Chinese junks, when several of the latter were sunk.

Sundry grave questions will, no doubt, arise out of these extraordinary proceedings. That the Chinese have the same right to exclude opium from their empire, that we have to prohibit the importation of beef, or ammunition, or to lay a duty on corn, does not admit of any question. But in endeavouring to suppress a trade that had been carried on under the sanction of the authorities at Canton, all of whom had largely participated in its profits, justice required that notice should have been given to the parties concerned of the intentions of government. It is necessary to bear in mind, that the Chinese were in the habit of frequently issuing proclamations against the importation of opium; but as no attempt was ever made to give the slightest effect to these proclamations, the parties engaged in the trade were naturally led to conclude that such would always be the case. Hence the necessity for a distinct intimation being made, that the laws against the importation of opium were, in future, to be *bonâ fide* and truly carried into effect, and for fixing some period after which all parties found engaged in the trade would be subject to certain penalties. No valid objection could have been made to such a course of proceeding. The Chinese are clearly entitled to prohibit th

importation of opium; but neither the Chinese nor any other nation are entitled, after having, by a long connivance at and participation in the trade, induced foreigners to import a large amount of valuable property into their territories, to pounce upon and seize such property on pretence of its being contraband! The Chinese are a remarkably clever people; and it is impossible that they should not see that, in this instance, their government has been guilty of the grossest injustice; and that it has rendered itself liable for the full value of the property it has so unwarrantably seized and destroyed.

Suppose the British parliament had, in 1796, passed an act prohibiting the importation of tea; and suppose farther, that the collector of customs and other authorities in Liverpool had paid no attention whatever to this act, but that, from 1796 down to the present day, they had openly countenanced the trade, that it had rapidly increased; and that every year hundreds of Chinese ships laden with tea had arrived in the Mersey, safely unloaded their cargoes, and sailed either with silver or other British produce on board: what, under these circumstances, would the Chinese have said, had the British government suddenly turned round and declared, "You are engaged in an illegal trade;" and without farther intimation have proceeded to seize and destroy all the tea belonging to them in England? Would not the Chinese, the Russians, French, and, in short, the whole world, have declared such an act to be flagrantly unjust? And would not every honest man in England have said that the Chinese had been swindled; and that the government of China did not deserve to be treated with ordinary respect, if it did not endeavour to procure redress for its subjects.

Now, this is precisely the case of England against the Chinese. The morality or immorality of the opium trade is wholly beside the question. Though opium were ten times more injurious than has ever been represented, that would not alter the fact that the trade in it had been openly countenanced by the Chinese authorities for a period of more than forty years; and such being the case, foreigners were certainly entitled to infer that that countenance would not suddenly be withdrawn; and that, at all events, their property would be respected. This, in fact, is not a question about which there is any real room for doubt or difference of opinion. The conduct of the Chinese has been most unwarrantable; and the government of this country has not only a well-founded claim for redress, but is called upon to enforce it by a just regard for the national honour and the interests of the British subjects, whose rights have been so outrageously violated at Canton.

It is laid down by all writers on public law, that it depends wholly on the will of a nation to carry on commerce with another, or not to carry it on, and to regulate the manner in which it shall be carried on. (*Vattel*, book i. § 8.) But we incline to think that this rule must be interpreted as applying only to such commercial states as recognise the general principles of public or international law. If a state possessed of a rich and extensive territory, and abounding with products suited for the use and accommodation of the people of other countries, insulates itself by its institutions, and adopts a system of policy that is plainly inconsistent with the interests of every other nation, it appears to us that such nation may be justly compelled to adopt a course of policy more consistent with the general well-being of mankind. No doubt, the right of interference, in cases of this sort, is one that should be exercised with extreme caution, and requires strong grounds for its vindication. But that this right does exist, seems sufficiently clear. We admit that a slight degree of inconvenience, experienced from one nation refusing to enter into commercial transactions with another, or from its insisting that these transactions should be carried on in a troublesome and vexatious manner, would not warrant any interference with its internal affairs; but this, like all other questions of the same kind, is one of degree. Should the inconvenience resulting from such anti-social vexatious conduct become very oppressive on others, the parties so oppressed would have as good a right to interfere to enforce a change of conduct, as if the state that has adopted this anti-social offensive policy had openly attacked their territory or their citizens. A state has a *perfect* right to enact such rules and regulations for its internal government and the conduct of its trade as it pleases, provided they do not exercise any very injurious influence over others. But should such be the case—should the domestic or commercial policy of any particular state involve principles or regulations that trench on the rights or seriously injure the interests of other parties, none can doubt that these others have a right to complain; and, if the injury be of a grave character, and redress be not obtained on complaint being made,—no reasonable doubt can be entertained that the aggrieved party is justified in resorting to force.

These principles appear to us to apply with peculiar force in the case of China. Tea, a peculiar product of that country, has now become a necessary of life in England; and no one can doubt that a most serious injury would be inflicted on the people of Britain, were any considerable impediment thrown in the way of its importation; and as the arbitrary policy of the Chinese government, which is not influenced by the maxims, and is regardless of the forms, that prevail among civilised states, has already interrupted this trade, and constantly exposes it to great dangers, it certainly appears that this is a case for forcible intervention—*dignus vindice nodus*,—and that we are entitled to demand that the trade should

be placed on a solid footing, that the import and export duties should be rendered intelligible and moderate, and that an end should be put to the extortion and interference of the Chinese authorities.—*S.*

PAPER. The following is to be read as a conclusion of the article *Paper* in this edition of the Dictionary.

This measure has, also, in part obviated the injustice done to authors and publishers, by compelling them to pay a duty on the paper used in printing books previously to their publication; and, consequently, before it can be known whether the books will sell. When they do not sell, the tax has obviously to be paid out of the capital of the authors or publishers, and the loss arising from an unsuccessful publishing speculation is increased by its amount. (See vol. i., p. 200.) It is true that every duty on paper, how limited soever operates in this way, and is, therefore, objectionable on principle; but the hardship inflicted on an unsuccessful author by the existing paper duty being only half its former amount, is no longer of any very material importance.

As respects revenue, too, the measure promises to be most successful. In 1835, the nett produce of the duties on paper, in the United Kingdom, amounted to 715,743*l.*, of which the duty on stained paper produced 60,141*l.* The latter duty, as already seen, was totally repealed in 1836, and deducting it, the duty on printing and writing papers, paste-board, &c., in 1835, amounted to 655,602*l.* Now, the rates on the latter descriptions having been reduced a half, it follows, that had the consumption continued stationary, the duty would now have amounted to 327,801*l.*; whereas, it amounted, in 1838, to 539,789*l.*, being an increase of 65 per cent., and we understand that the increase last year was still greater. The fair presumption, therefore, is that in a year or two, the consumption of taxed paper will be doubled, and that the revenue will have lost nothing by the reduction. This, in fact, is almost always the case. An oppressive tax on an article in general demand is never effectually reduced, without the revenue being in a very short time benefited by the measure It may be truly said of taxation,—

———ab ipso
Ducit opes animumque ferro.

The only thing to be regretted, is that the pruning knife is seldom vigorously and skilfully applied.—*S.*

STOCKS.

[We give the following Tables, exhibiting the fluctuations in stocks in two of the principal markets of the United States during the year 1840.—

The following prices of some of the principal stocks sold in the NewYork market at or near the close of each month in the year 1840:

Stocks.	Jan.	Feb.	March	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.
United States Bank	76½	73	72	74	70½	73½	62½	65	63	66½	65½	64½
Bank of New York	113	- - -	117	•117	•117	125	‡125	‡125	123	120½	123	‡124
Manhattan Bank	112	85	85	86	82	86	91	96½	92	95½	96	96
Merchants' Bank	110½	- - -	‡110	109	110½	110	‡110	•100	112	114	115	‡115
Mechanics' Bank	94	96	97½	100	100½	102	99½	100½	101	100½	101½	103
Union Bank	109	110	109	‡107	108	110	•111½	•111	113	110	110	110
Bank of America	118	118	116	114½	114	111½	114	114	116½	115	116	116½
Phœnix Bank	79½	75	78½	79	79	81½	81½	84	86	‡85½	84	‡82
Dry Dock Bank	60	50	44	53½	47½	46½	40	44½	60	75	62	‡62
Delaware and Hudson Canal	69½	73½	67½	73	73	78½	75½	76	77½	79	86	83½
Lafayette Bank	66	68	68	73	•73	78	‡78	78	80	90	89	•90
Mechanics' Banking Asso.	64	69½	68	69	68½	76	76	73½	76	79½	80½	83½
American Exchange Bank	41½	83½	80	86	83	90	90½	92	95	97½	94½	93
Bank of Commerce, scrip	96½	98½	97½	97½	98	99½	98½	98	98½	99½	99½	98½
North American Trust Co.	41½	48½	43½	49½	34	32	26½	26½	26	32½	28½	29½
Mohawk Railroad	62½	64½	65	69	67½	74	70	71½	68½	69½	70	69
Paterson Railroad	43	40½	41	42	40	41	38	39	39	45	50½	52
Boston & ProvidenceRailroad	101	102½	96	94	94	98	92	93½	96	94	93½	93
New Jersey Railroad	76½	81½	77½	82	80½	81	74½	74	76	78	76	76
Stonington Railroad	15½	16½	13½	18½	15½	18	17½	24	29	54	28½	26½
Harlem Railroad	44½	46	45½	45½	40½	41½	36½	39	37	40½	39½	38
Utica Railroad	115	118½	122	124½	130	130	122½	125	126½	129	129	131½
Long Island Railroad	50½	50½	50½	54	50½	49½	48½	50	49½	56½	55½	55½
Syracuse Railroad	107½	107½	109½	114	119	121	120	119½	116	117	120	124
Farmers' Trust Company	77½	83	83½	82½	78½	82	73	76	76½	84	84½	88½
Canton Company	27½	26	23	27	24½	24½	21½	22	24	28½	24½	23½

• Offered. ‡ Asked.

The Prices of some of the principal Stocks sold in the Philadelphia Market at or near the close of each Month in the Year 1840.

Stocks.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan. 1841.	Diff. Jan. 1840 & 1841.
United States Bank - -	80½	78	78½	78½	78	74½	69	69	66	67½	67	64½	50	30½
Mechanics Bank - -	33	33½	33½	36½	35½	36½	36	36½	36½	36½	35½	35½	34	1 adv.
Girard Bank - - -	33½	33½	36½	40	39½	40½	38	38	39½	40½	39	36½	34	½ —
Farmers and Mech. Bank	54½	52½	53	56½	53	-	54½	54½	54½	56½	56½	55½	53½	2 —
Penn Township Bank -	52	51	51½	55	53	51½	51½	51½	51	53	53½	53½	53½	½ —
Pennsylvania Bank -	402½	400½	400½	411	410	410½	402	405	406	416	415	412	395	7½
Merchants and Mechanics' Bank of Pittsburg -	51	48	45½	49	41	45	-	-	47	47½	-	47½	47	4
Exchange Bank - -	37	-	-	35	-	-	-	-	43	43	-	44	42	6 —
Commercial, Cincinnati -	85	89	89½	96	96	96½	88	99½	93	92	94½	-	88½	3½ —
Northern, Kentucky -	83½	83½	82	85	90	89	87½	93	87½	90	93½	91	85	2½ —
Union, Tennessee - -	67½	65	61½	66	66	67½	64	66½	67½	69½	70	70	65½	2
Vicksburg R. R. Co., Miss.	15	15½	15½	17½	15	13½	10½	9½	7½	15½	13	10½	9½	5½
New Orleans Gas - -	13	10	10	10½	11	9½	11	10½	10½	13	13	-	9½	3½
N. Am. Ins. Co. Philada.	9	7	9½	9½	9½	9	-	9½	9	10½	9	10½	10	1 —
Girard Life and Trust -	22½	21	22½	23	24½	24½	24½	23½	24½	24½	25	25	24½	2½ —
Schuylkill Navigation Co.	93	81½	80½	78½	83½	87	77½	75	78	77	79½	78	63	30
Lehigh Coal and Nav. Co.	54	53	53½	47	45	45½	36	44	44	40	40	39½	24½	29½
Delaware & Hudson Canal	78	75	71½	75	70	76	-	78	78	-	87	-	95	23 —
Morris Canal - - -	13	18	13	10	15	10	10	9	9	8½				
Camden and Amboy R. R.	110	107	103	119	118½	116½	106	107	108	113	110	104½	96½	13½
Philada. and Trenton do.	95½	99	100½	105	110	-	-	102½	103	100½	100½	-	96	1 —
Philadelphia, Wilmington, and Baltimore - -	44	41½	42½	42½	46½	46	43½	44	43½	44	45	48½	39½	4½
Stonington Rail Road -	15	16½	16	15	15	19½	19½	21½	27½	53	34	-	30	15 —
Reading do. - -	32	33	35	32	32½	29	26	27	25	27½	25	22	22	10
Harrisburg and Lancaster	30½	30	26	27	23	24	26	27½	25	32½	30	25	23	7½
Exchange on New York -	106½	106½	105½	105½	105½	104½	103½	104	103½	103	102½	100½	100½	5½
Penn'a. State 5 per cts. -	95	93½	90	91	91	97½	95	97½	94	94	94½	93½	86	9
City 5 per cents - -	100	100	101	105½	105½	103	-	-	-	101½	102	-	101	1 —

Am. Ed.]

THE END.

THE

REVENUE BOOK:

CONTAINING

THE NEW TARIFF OF 1846,

TOGETHER WITH

The Tariff of 1842,

Reduced to Ad Valorem Rates as far as practicable.

ALSO,

THE SUB-TREASURY, WAREHOUSING, AND CANADIAN TRANSIT BILLS, OF 1846,

AND THE ACT ALLOWING DRAWBACK ON GOODS EXPORTED TO SANTA FE, AND OTHER PLACES, PASSED IN 1845.

WITH THE

Treasury Circulars in Relation thereto.

LIKEWISE,

THE NEW BRITISH TARIFF,

AS AMENDED BY THE PASSAGE OF THE NEW CORN LAWS AND SUGAR DUTIES, AT THE LATE SESSION OF PARLIAMENT:

TOGETHER WITH

A CONDENSED CAMBIST,

OR TABLE OF ALL FOREIGN GOLD AND SILVER COINS REDUCED TO FEDERAL CURRENCY

COMPILED FROM THE MOST AUTHENTIC SOURCES,

BY A. JONES.

New York:

PUBLISHED BY GEO. H. BELL, 158 NASSAU STREET,
BOOKSELLERS AND STATIONERS,
PRINTERS AND LAW BLANK PUBLISHERS,

1853.

Entered according to the Act of Congress, in the year 1946, by
GEORGE H. BELL,
In the Clerk's Office of the District Court for the Southern District of New York.

THE NEW TARIFF OF 1846,

TOGETHER WITH

The Tariff of 1842,

REDUCED TO AD VALOREM RATES, AS FAR AS PRACTICABLE.

Compiled from Official Copies supplied from Washington.

A	1846.	1842.
Absynth	pr ct 100	60 cts gal
Accordions	20	30 pr ct
Acetous acid	20	20
Acetate of lead, or white lead	20	4 cts lb
—— of potasse	20	20 pr ct
Acete acid	20	20
Acetate of quicksilver	20	20
Acid boracic	20	5
—— benzoic	20	25
—— citric, white or yellow	20	20
—— muriatic	20	20
—— nitric, or nitric [illegible]	20	20
—— oxalic	20	20
—— pyroligneous	20	20
—— tartaric, in crys[illegible] powder	20	20
—— surphuric, or o[illegible]	10	1 ct lb
Acorns	20	20
Acids, all kinds of, used for chemical or medical uses, or in the fine arts, not otherwise provided for	20	20
Adhesive felt, for covering ships' bottoms	free	free.
Adhesive plaster, salve	30	20
Adianthum	20	20
Adzes	30	30
Agates, and bookbinders' do	10	7
Alabata, in sheets or otherwise	30	30
Alabaster and spar ornaments	40	30
Alba, canella	20	20
Alconorque bark	5	free.
Ale in bottle or otherwise	30	20 cts gal
Alkanet root	20	20 pr ct
Alkermes	20	20
Alspice, oil of	30	20
Almonds	40	3 cts lb
—— oil of, sweet, and bitter	30	9 "
—— paste	30	25 pr ct
Aloes	20	free.
Alum	20	11.37
Amber	20	20
—— beads, and oil of	30	25
Ambergris	20	20
Amethyst	10	7
Ammonia	10	20
—— salts of	20	20
Ammoniac, crude, refined, bole	20	15
Ammunition, cannister shot, cannon balls, chain shot, grape shot, langrel shot	30	1 ct lb
Anatomical preparations	30	free.
Anchors, and all parts thereof	30	2½ cts lb
Anchovies, (in oil) in bottles or kegs	40	$1 barr'l
Angelica root	20	20 pr ct
Angora, goats' wool or hair	20	1 ct lb
—— gloves and mits	30	20 pr ct
Animals imported for breed	free.	free.
Animal oil, not otherwise enumerated	20	20
Animal carbon	20	
Annatto	10	20
Annealed iron wire	30	11 cts lb
Anise seed	20	20 pr ct
Anise seed, oil of	30	20
Anthos, oil of	30	20
Antimony, crude	20	free.
Antique oil	30	25
Antiquities	free.	free.

	1846.	1842.
Anvils	pr ct 30	2½ cts lb
Any goods, wares or merchandise of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States, or of its fisheries, upon which no drawback, bounty, or allowance have been paid	free	free.
Apothecaries' vials and bottles, 6 oz. and under	30	51.33
Apothecaries' vials and bottles exceeding the capacity of six, and not exceeding the capacity of sixteen oz. each	30	$1.75 gro
Apparatus, philosophical, imported for any Society incorporated for philosophical or literary purposes, or for the encouragement of the fine arts, or for the use of any seminary of learning within the United States, *according to the material of which it is composed*		
Apparatus, philosophical, not specially imported *according to the materials of which they are composed.*		
Apparel, wearing, and other personal baggage in actual use	free.	free.
Aprons silk	30	30 pr ct
Aqua ammonia, or hartshorn	30	20
Aqua fortis	20	20
—— mellis, or honey water	30	20
Arabic, gum	10	free.
Arrack	100	60 cts gal
Armenian, bole, and stone	20	20 pr ct
Archella, archil	20	free.
Argent vivum, or quicksilver	20	5
Argentine, or German silver	20	30
Argol, crude tartar	5	free.
Arms, fire and side	30	30
Arrow root	20	20
Arsenic, all	15	20
Articles embroidered with gold, silver, or metal	20	20
Articles of the growth or manufacture of the United States, brought back in the same condition as when exported	free	free.
Articles, all, not free, and not subject to any other rate of duty	20	20
Articles worn by men, women, or children of whatever materials composed, made up in whole or in part, by hand	30	40
Articles, all imported for the use of the United States, according to materials of which composed		free.
Asphaltes	20	
Assafœtida	20	free.
Asses skin, and imitation of	30	25
Aubuysson carpetings	30	28.70
Augers	30	30
Auripigmentum, or orpiment	10	30
Ava root	20	free.
Awl hafts	30	30
Awls	30	30
Axes	30	30
Axletrees, iron	30	4 cts
Ayr-stones	20	20 pr ct

ar 1846, by

District of New York.

B

	1846.	1842.
Bacon	20	3 cts lb
Baggage, personal, in actual use	free.	free.
Bagging, called cotton bagging	20	4 cts s y'd
Bags, bead-made in part by hand	30	30 pr ct
—— grass	30	25
—— gunny	20	20
—— woolen	30	40
—— flax	20	25
—— hemp	20	20
—— carpet, woolen	30	40
—— worsted, silk, carpet, worsted	25	30
—— carpet, wool, or worsted and leather	30	35
Baizes	25	14 cts s yd
Balls, billiard	30	20 pr ct
—— cannon	30	4 cts lb
—— musket	20	4 "
—— wash	30	30 pr ct
Balm of Gilead	30	25
Balsam copaiva and Tolu	30	25
Balsam, all kinds of cosmetic	30	25
Bamboos, unmanufactured	10	free.
Bark of cork trees, unmanufactured	15	free.
—— Peruvian	15	free.
—— all not specially mentioned	20	20
Barrege, cotton	25	see cot'ns
—— wool	30	40 pr ct
—— worsted or silk and worsted	25	30
Barley	20	20 cts bu'l
—— pearl or hulled	20	2 cts lb
Barytes, sulphate of	20	¼ "
Band iron, slit or rolled	30	2¼ "
Bar iron	30	$25 pr ton
Bar wood	5	free.
Barilla	10	free.
Baskets, wood, osier, palm leaf, straw, grass, or whalebone	30	25 pr ct
Bast ropes	25	4½ cts lb
Battledores	30	30 pr ct
Bay water, or bay rum	30	25
Bayonets	30	30
Bdellium	20	
Beads	30	25
Beans	20	20
Beaver, fur undressed on the skins	10	5
Beam knives	30	30
Beams, scales	30	30
Bed feathers	25	25
—— ticking, linen, flax, and hemp	20	25
—— ticking, cotton	25	see cott'n
Beef	20	2 cts lb
Beer in bottles or otherwise	30	15 cts gal.
Bees' wax	20	15 pr ct
Bellows pipes	30	30
Bell cranks, levers, and pulls	30	30
Bellows	30	35
Belts, sword leather	30	35
Benzoates	30	20
Benzoic acid, or flor. benzoin	20	20
Benzoin, (a Gum)	30	25
Bed spreads, or covers	25	30
Bells, of bell metal, fit only to be remanufactured	5	free.
Bell metal, manufactured	30	free.
Bells, silver, and gold	30	30
Bergamot, essence of	30	25
Berries, used for dyeing, all exclusively, in a crude state	5	free.
Berries not otherwise provided for	20	20
Bezoar stones	20	20
Bichromate of potash	20	20
Blck irons	30	30
Binding, carpet	25	30
Binding, cotton, worsted and quality	25	30
—— woolen	30	30
—— silk	25	$2.50 lb
—— leather	30	35 pr ct
—— linen	20	25
Bird's eye stuff, linen	20	25
—— worsted stuff	25	30
Birds	20	20
Bismuth	20	20
—— oxide of	20	20
Birts, carpenters'	30	30
Bitter apple	20	20

	1846.	1842.
Bitumen	20	20
Black, ivory	20	¼ ct lb
—— lamp	20	20 pr ct
—— lead, pots	30	20
—— lead, powder	20	20
Blacking	20	20
Bladders	20	20
Blacksmiths' hammers and sledges	30	62.46
Black lead pencils	30	25
—— Frankfort	20	20
Blankets, all	20	75 cts ea
Blankets of mohair or goats' hair	20	
Bleaching powders	10	25.75
Blue, Prussian	20	25
—— vitriol	20	4 cts lb
Boards, planed and rough	20	30 pr ct
Bobinet lace	25	20
Bobbin	25	30
—— wire, covered with cotton	30	8 cts lb
Bocking	25	38 55
Bodkins	30	20
Boiler plates	30	20 cts lb
Bologna sausages	30	25 pr ct
Bolting cloths	25	20
Bolts, iron, for fastenings	30	30
—— brass, for do	30	30
—— copper	20	4 cts lb
—— composition	30	30 pr ct
Bolt rope, as cordage (tarred)	25	5 cts lb
—— rope, as cordage (untarred)	25	4½ "
—— iron, not manufactured in whole or in part by rolling	30	$17 pr ton
—— iron, when manufactured in whole or in part by rolling	30	25 "
Bole ammoniac, or Armenian bole	20	20 pr ct
Bone, black	20	¾ ct lb
Bonnets, Leghorn	30	35 pr ct
—— chip, grass, fur, leather, straw, and muslin	30	35
—— silk or satin	30	$2 each
—— wire, covered with silk	30	12 cts lb
—— wire, covered with cotton	30	3 "
Boucho leaves	20	20 pr ct
Bone alphabets, chessmen	30	20
—— whale, rosettes	30	30
—— tip and bones	5	5
—— whale, other manufactures of	30	20
—— whale, not of Am. fisheries	20	12½
—— manufactures of	30	20
Boots	30	$1.25 pair
—— laced, silk or satin for children	30	25 "
Bootees, for women or men, silk	30	75 "
Boots and bootees, men's, of leather	30	$1 25 "
—— women's, of leather	30	50 "
—— children's, of leather	30	15 "
Book binders' agates ferrules	30	7 pr ct
Books, blank, when bound	20	24.34
—— blank, when unbound	20	20.00
Books, periodicals and other works in the course of printing and republication in the U. S.	20	
Books, printed magazines, pamphlets, periodicals, and illustrated newspapers, bound or unbound, not otherwise provided for	10	19 44
Books, Hebrew, or of which that language forms the text, when bound	10	11.88
Books, do. do. unbound	10	8.39
—— all, in foreign languages, except Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, bound or in boards	10	7.01
Books, do. do. in sheets or pamphlets	10	21.77
Books, editions of works in Hebrew, Greek, Latin, or English, which have been printed 40 years prior to date of importation	10	6.60
Books, all reports of Legislative Committees, appointed under foreign governments	10	5.93
Books, Polyglotts, Lexicons, and Dictionaries	10	6.11
Books of Engravings, bound or unbound	10	20.09

	1846.	1849.
Books and instruments, professional, of persons arriving in the United States	free.	free.
Boot webb linen	20	25
Borax, or tincal	25	25
Botany, specimens in	free.	free.
Bottles, apothecaries', exceeding the capacity of 6 and not exceeding the capacity of 16 ounces each	30	2.25 gross
Bottles, black glass, one quart	30	3.00 "
Bottles, perfumery and fancy, not exceeding 4 ounces each	30	2.50 "
Bottles, perfumery and fancy, exceeding 4 ounces	30	3.00 "
Bougies	30	30 pr ct
Boxes, gold or silver, japanned dressing, all wood	30	30
—— musical	20	30
—— shell, not otherwise specified	30	25
—— if paper only, not japanned	30	25
—— snuff, paper	30	25
—— fancy not otherwise specified	30	25
Box boards, paper	30	3 cts lb
Bracelets, gold or set	30	20 pr ct
—— gilt	30	25
—— hair	30	25
Braces, carpenters'	30	30
Braces or suspenders	30	35
Brackets	30	30
Brads, not exceeding 16 oz. to the 1000	30	5 cts 1000
Brads, exceeding 16 oz. to the 1000	30	5 cts lb
Braids, cotton	25	25 pr ct
—— in ornaments for head dresses	30	25
—— hair, not made up for do	25	25
—— hair, made up for do	30	25
—— straw, for making hats	30	35
Brandy	100	$1 pr gal
Brass, manufacture of, not otherwise specified	30	30 pr ct
—— in plates or sheets	30	46.88
—— in bars or in pigs	5	free.
—— old, only fit to be re-manuf.	5	free.
—— wire	30	25
—— rolled and battery	30	12 cts lb
—— studs	30	30 pr ct
—— screws	30	30 cts lb
Braziers' rods, of 3-16 to 10-16 of an inch diameter	30	2½ cts lb
Brazil paste, or pasta de Brazil	15	free.
—— pebble	10	7 pr ct
—— wood	5	free.
—— pebbles prepared for spectacles	30	$2 gross
Bread baskets, japanned, plated, and silver	30	30 pr ct
Brecia	20	
Bricks	20	25
Britannia ware	30	30
Bridles	30	30
Brimstone, crude, or flour of sulphur	15	free.
—— rolled	20	25
Bristol stones	20	free.
—— boards and perforated	30	15 cts lb
Bristles	5	1 "
Brodequins, woolen	30	40 pr ct
—— leather	30	35
Bronze casts, and all manufact. of	30	30
—— metal in leaf	20	20
—— powder	20	20
Bronze, pale, yellow, white, red, liquid, and gold	20	20
Brown, rolls, linen	20	25
—— Spanish, dry, and in oil	30	1 ct lb
—— smalts	20	20 pr ct
Brooms, all kinds	30	20
Brucine	30	20
Brushes of all kinds	30	30
Buckles	30	30
Buckram	20	25
Bugles, musical instruments	20	
—— glass, if cut	40	30
—— glass, if not cut	30	30
Building stones	10	20
Bullets	20	4 cts lb
Bulrushes	20	20 pr ct
Bulbs, or bulbous roots	free.	free.

	1846.	1849.
Bullion	free.	free
Bunting	25	30
Burlaps	20	25
Burr stones, unwrought or wrought	10	free.
Burgundy pitch	25	25
Busts, lead	30	4 cts lb
Buttons, metal, and all other kinds	25	25 pr ct
Button moulds, of whatever material	25	25
Butter	20	5 cts lb
Butchers' knives	30	30
Butt hinges, cast iron	30	2½ cts lb

C

Cabinet wares	30	30 pr ct
Cables	25	5 cts lb
—— iron or chain, or parts of	30	4½ "
Caddie bulls	30	30 pr ct
Cadmium	20	20
Cajeput, or cajeputa, oil of	30	20
Cakes, linseed	20	20
Calamine	20	20
Calx	20	20
Caliminaris lapis	20	20
Calcined magnesia	30	20
Calfskins, raw, or salted in a raw state	5	5
—— tanned	20	$5 pr doz
Calomel, and all other mercurial preparations	25	25 pr ct
Cambletts, of mohair or goats	25	20
Cameos, real or imitation of	10	7½
—— real or imitation set	30	30
Camels' hair	10	20
—— pencils, in quill or other	30	30
Camomile flowers	20	20
Camphor, refined	40	20 cts lb
—— crude	25	5 "
Camwood	5	free.
Canary seed	20	20 pr ct
Cancrorum oculi, or crab's eye	20	20
Canella, alba	20	20
Candlesticks, alabaster	40	20
—— bone, earthenware, brass, bronze, gilt, gold	30	30
—— glass cut	40	45 pr lb
—— not cut, iron, japanned, marble, plated, pewter, porcelain, silver	30	30
—— spa	40	30
—— stone ware, tin, washed	30	30
Candles, tallow	20	4 cts lb
—— wax, spermaceti, stearine	20	8 "
Candy, sugar	30	6 "
Canes, walking, finished or not	30	30 pr ct
Cannetille, a wire ribbon	30	30
Cannon, brass and iron	30	30 cts lb
Cantharides	20	free.
Canton crapes	25	$2.50 lb
Canvas, for floor cloths or wearing apparel	20	25 pr ct
Canvas, for sails, such as sail duck	20	7 cts lb
Caoutchouc gums	20	free.
Cap [illegible]	30	30 pr ct
Cap [illegible] covered with silk	30	12 cts lb
—— covered with cotton thread	30	8 "
Caps, cotton wove	20	35 pr ct
—— of cotton, if jointly made by hand	30	40
—— of fur, of chip	30	35
—— Kilmarnock, wove	30	30
—— of lace trimmed	30	40
—— of lace not trimmed	30	40
—— leather	30	35
—— linen	30	40
—— silk, wool, worsted wove	30	30
—— gloves, leggins, mits, socks, stockings, wove shirts and drawers, and all similar articles made in frames, and worn by men, women, or children, and not otherwise provided for	30	30
Cap pieces for stills	30	30
Ca[illegible] lace sewed and not sewed	30	40
Capsules	30	25 per ct

	1846.	1842.
Carbines or carabines	30	30
Carbonate of magnesia	30	20
—— —— sal or brimal of soda	20	20
—— of Ammonia	10	20
Carboys, of the capacity of half a gal.	30	30
—— above half, and not above 3 gallons	30	50
Carboys, exceeding 3 gallons	30	30
Carbuncles	10	20
Cardamom seed	20	
Card cases	30	20
Cards, playing	30	25 ea pck
—— visiting and blank	30	12 pr pck
Wool and cotton	30	30 per ct.
Carmine	30	20
Caroline plaids, cotton and wool	30	65 sq y'd
Caroline plaids, stripes, cotton	25	65
Carpeting, Aubuysson	30	65
Carpet binding	25	35
Carpets and carpeting, Brussels	30	55
—— ingrained	30	20
—— treble ingrained	30	65
—— Turkey	30	55
—— Venetian	30	20
—— Wilton	30	65
—— oil cloth	30	35
Carpet Saxony	30	65
Carpet bags, woolen	30	40 per ct
—— if part leather	30	35 " "
—— worsted	30	30
Carriages, all kinds, and parts thereof	30	30
Carriage springs	30	30
Carui, or caraway, oil of	30	20
Carvers	30	30
Cascarilla	20	20
Cashmere, borders of wool, whole or part	30	40
Cashmere of Thibet	25	20
—— cloth	30	40
—— gown patterns, wool being a component material	30	40
Cashmere gowns, made	30	50
—— shawls, Thibet	30	20
Casement rods, iron for	30	2½ c p pd
Cases, fish skin	20	20 per ct.
Cassimere, woolen	30	40
Cassimere, cotton, wool being a component part, chief value	30	
Casks, empty	30	30
Cassada, or meal of	20	20
Cassia, Chinese, Calcutta and Sumatra	40	1 c p pd
Cassia buds and fistula	20	20 per ct
Castanas, or castinai	30	
Castings of plaster	30	20
——of iron, (except vessels) all other, not specified	30	2½ cts lb.
Casting, iron vessels	30	1½ "
Castor beans	20	20 per ct.
—— oil	20	40 c. gal.
Castors, brass or iron, wood	30	30 per ct
Castors or cruets, silver, plated, wood	30	30
Castor Glasses, not in the frames or cruets, out	40	see glass
Castor glasses, not in cruets, not cut	30	see glass
Castorine lize, woolen cloth	30	40 pr. ct.
Castorum	20	20
Cast shoe bills	30	1 ct. lb.
Cast iron vessels, not otherwise specified	30	1½ "
Catches, brass, copper, or iron	30	30 pr. ct.
Catechu	10	free.
Catgut	20	15 pr. ct.
Catsup	30	30
Caulking mallets	30	30
Caustic	30	20
Cayenne pepper	30	10 ct. lb.
Cedar wood	20	15 pr. ct.
Celtz water	30	20 per lb
Cement, Roman	20	20
Cerise, or cherry water, a cordial	100	60
Ceruse, dry or in oil	20	4 cts lb
Chafing dishes, copper, iron, or tin	30	30 pr. ct.
Chain cables	30	2½ cts lb.
Chains, coil, under ¼ inch	30	30 per ct.

	1846.	1842.
Chains, coil, ¼ of an inch and over in diameter, the links of the form peculiar to chain cables	30	2½ " "
Chain breeching, iron curbs, gilt	30	30
Chains, hair	30	
—— iron, tinned, washed	30	20
—— plated, silver, steel	30	30
Chains, brass and copper	30	30
—— iron, suitable for cables	30	30
—— iron, not otherwise specified	30	2½ cts lb.
—— gold or silver	30	30 per ct
—— gold or silver, if jewelry	30	20
—— gilt, if jewelry	30	53
—— gilt, plated, steel, tinned, washed, dog, ox, trace	30	30
Chairs, sitting	30	30
Chalk, red, French	20	30
—— red, pencils	30	25
—— white	5	free.
Chambray gauze, cotton, as cotton	25	
—— if wool is a component part	30	
—— of silk only	25	2.50 lb.
Chamomile flowers	20	20 pr. ct.
Chandeliers, brass	30	30 "
—— glass, cut	40	45 cts lb.
Charbon, animal	20	20 pr ct.
Charts and books of	10	20 "
Checks, cotton, (see cottons)	25	
—— princess, wool	30	40 per ct
—— princess, worsted	25	30 "
—— linen	20	25
Cheese	30	9 cts lb.
Chemical preparations, not otherwise specified	30	20 per ct
Chemical salts, not otherwise specified	20	20
Chenille, cords or trimming of, cotton	25	30
Cheroots, (Indian segars)	40	40 per lb
Chessmen, bone, ivory, or rice	36	20 "
—— wood	30	30
Chest handles	30	30
Childrens' shoes	30	15 c. pair
Childrens' slippers	30	15 "
China ware	30	30 per ct
—— root	20	20
Chinchilla skins, undressed	10	5
—— dressed	20	25
Chip hats or bonnets	30	30
Chisels, socket, and all other	30	30
Chloride of lime	10	1 c p lb.
Chocolate	20	4 "
Choppa romals, silk	25	2,50 ct. lb.
Chowdagary, a manufacture of cotton	25	see cott'n
Chromate of potash, do. of lead	20	20 per ct
Chronic, yellow	30	1 ct. lb.
—— —— acid	20	20 per ct
Chronometers, and parts	10	20
Chrysolites	20	20
Chrystals of tin	20	20
Ciar, or colar, rope	25	4½ c. lb.
Cicutar	20	20
Cigars	40	40 cts lb.
—— paper	40	20
Cinchona	15	20
Cinchonine	20	20
Cinnabar	25	20
Cinnamon and oil of	30	25 cts lb
Circingle webb, (woolen)	30	40
Circassians, (worsted)	25	30
Citrate of lime	20	20
Citric acid	20	20
Citron, in its natural state	20	20
—— preserved	40	25
—— oil of	30	20
Civit, oil of	30	20
Clasps, brass	30	30
—— gold or silver	30	30
—— gilt or plated, steel, set, gold or silver, iron	30	30
Clay, ground or prepared	20	20
—— unwrought	5	free.
Clayed suga., white	30	4 cts. lb
Clonks	30	50 per ct

	1846.	1842.
Cloak pins, gilt or plated, iron or steel	30	30
Clocks	30	25
Cloth, India rubber, wool being a component part	30	40
Cloth, India rubber, linen being a component part	30	30
Cloth, woollen	30	40
—— leopard spot, woollen	30	40
—— bolting	25	20
Cloth, hemp	20	20 per ct
Clothing, ready made	30	50
—— all articles worn by men, women, or children, not otherwise specified, of whatever material composed, made wholly or in part by hand	30	40
Cloves	40	8 c.
—— oil of	30	30
Coaches, or parts thereof, and furniture	30	30
—— lace, according to material		35
Coal	30	$1.75 ton
Coal-hods, copper and iron	30	30 pr ct
Coatings, mohair or goats' hair	25	20
Cobalt	20	20
Cochineal	10	free.
Coculus indicus	20	20 per c
Cocoa and cocoa shells	10	20
Cocoa-nuts, West India	20	free.
Codilla, or tow of hemp or flax	15	$20 pr ton
Codfish, dry	20	$1 pr cwt
Coffee, when imported in American vessels, from the place of its growth	free	free.
Coffee, the growth or production of the possessions of the Netherlands, imported from the Netherlands	free.	free.
Coffee-mills	30	free.
Coins, gold or silver	free.	free.
Coins, copper	free.	20 pr ct
Coir	25	
Coke	30	5 cts lb.
Colcother, dry	30	1 ct lb
—— in oil	30	1½ "
Cold cream	30	25 pr ct
Colocynth	20	20
Cologne water	30	25
Colombo root	20	20
Coloquintida	20	20
Colors, water	30	20
Colts' foot	20	20
Cols, sanglier, cravat stiffners	30	40
Combs, curry	30	30
—— all for the hair, of whatever material	30	25
Commode handles and knobs	30	30
Comforters, made of wool	30	30
Comfits, preserved	40	25
Compasses, brass, iron, steel and mariners'	30	30
Composition of glass or paste, set	30	
—— not set	10	
Conoans, India	25	$2,50 lb
Coney wool	10	25 pr ct
Confectionery, not otherwise specified	30	25
Contrayerva root	20	20
Copper, in plates or sheets, called Braziers' copper, and other in sheets, not otherwise provided for	20	30
Copper bottoms	30	30
—— still bottoms, & parts thereof	20	30
—— plates engraved	30	30
Copper, manufactures of, not otherwise specified	30	30
Copper ore	free.	free.
—— wire	30	25
—— for the use of the mint	free.	free.
—— suited to the sheathing of ships; 14 inches wide and 48 inches long, and weighing from 14 to 34 oz. per square foot	free.	free.
Copper rods, bolts, spikes, nails	20	4 cts lb
Copper in pigs and in bars	5	free.

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Copper, fit only for re-manufacture	5	free.
Copperas	20	2 cts lb
Copper, chafing dishes	30	30 pr ct
Copper, sulphate of	20	4 cts lb
Coral	20	20 pr ct
—— cut or manufactured	30	
Cordage	25	5 cts lb
Cordials, all kinds	100	60 cts gal
Coriander seed	20	20 pr ct
Corks	30	30
Cork, manufactures of	30	25
Cork-tree, bark of, unmanufactured	15	free.
Cornelian stone	10	7
Corn fans	30	30
Corn, Indian or maize	20	10 cts bsl
Corrosive sublimate	25	25 pr ct
[illegible]	30	20
[illegible]	30	25
Cotton, ging	20	a y'd
—— embroidery, or floss	25	30 pr ct
Cotton	free.	3 cts lb
—— cord, gimps, and galloons	30	30 pr ct
—— braces, or suspenders	30	35
—— all manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated	25	30
Cotton caps, gloves, leggins, mits, socks, stockings, wove shirts, and drawers, made on frames	20	30
Cotton mits and gloves	30	30
—— thread, twist, and yarn	25	25
Cotton twist, yarn, and thread, all other on spools or otherwise	25	30
Cotton lace, trimming or bobbinet	25	30
—— lace all other	25	30
—— stockings	20	30
Counters, bone, ivory, pearl, or rice	30	20
—— gold or silver	30	30
Counting-house boxes, entirely paper	30	25
—— with brass rings	30	30
Court plaster	30	20
Cow-hides, raw	5	5
Cow-hides, tanned	20	6 cts lb
Cowhage or cowitch	20	20 pr ct
Cowries (shells)	5	20
Crab-claws	20	20
Crapes, silk	25	2.50 lb
Crash	20	25 pr ct
Cranks, mill, of wrought iron	30	4 cts lb
Cravats and stiffeners	30	40 pr ct
Crayons	30	25
Crayon pencils	30	25
Creas, cotton, as cottons	25	
do. linen	20	25
Cream of tartar	20	free.
Crocus powder	20	20
Crockery	30	30
Crowns, leghorn hat	30	35
Crucibles, black lead	30	30
do. sand	30	30
Crystals, watch	30	2.00 gross
Cubebs	20	20
Cudbear	10	free.
Cummin seed	20	20
Cupboard turns	30	30
Curls, hair	30	25
Curriers' knives	30	30
Currants	40	3 cts lb
Curtain rings	30	30 pr ct
Cutch	10	free.
Cut iron nails	30	3 cts lb
Cutting knives	30	30 pr ct
Cut glass ware, not otherwise specfd.	40	see glass
Cutlasses	30	30 pr ct
Cutlery, all kinds	30	30
Cyanide of iodine, potassium and zinc	30	20

D

Daggers	30	1 ct lb
Dates	40	do.
Decanters, cut glass	40	see glass
do. plain do	30	30 pr ct
Delf	30	20
Delphine	20	20
Demijohns, of half gallon or less	30	15 ct eac
do. above half and not exc. 3	30	30 do
do. exceeding three	30	30 pr ct

	1846.	1842.
Denmark satin, or satteens, entirely stuff	25	30
Dentifrice	30	25
Devonshire kerseys	30	40
Diamonds	10	7½
do. set	30	25
do. glaziers'	15	25
Diaper linen	20	25
Diapers, cotton	25	see cotton
Dice, ivory or bone	30	20
Dimities and dimity muslin	25	see cotton
Dimity, furniture, and all other	25	do.
Directions for patent medicines	20	20 pr ct
Dirks	30	30
Dishes, chafing, copper, iron or tin	30	30
Distilled vinegar, medicinal	30	20
Diuretic, sal	20	20
Dividers, brass, iron, steel, silver, or wood	30	30
Dog chains	30	30
Dolls, of every description	30	30
Dowlas	20	25
Doyleys cotton	25	30
do. linen	20	25
do. woollen	30	40
Down, all kinds	25	25
Dragon's blood	15	25
Drawing pencils	30	25
Drawings	10	20
Drawer knobs	30	30
do. if entirely of cut glass	40	25see gla
do. ivory or bone	30	20
Drawing knives	30	20
Drawers, guernsey wool or worsted	30	30
do. knit, without needle work	30	30
do. silk, wove	30	40
do. cotton, wove	20	30
Dressed furs, on the skin	20	25
Dried pulp	20	20
Drillings, linen	20	25
Drugs, dyeing, not otherwise enum	20	20
Drugs, medicinal, not otherwise enumerated, in a crude state	20	20
Duck, Holland, English, Russia, half-duck, and all other sail duck	20	7 c sq yd
Duck, Ravens, of hemp	20	20 pr ct
do. do. of flax	20	25
Dutch metal, in leaf	20	25
Durants, worsted stuff	25	30
Dustpans	30	30
Dutch pink	20	20
Dyeing articles, used principally for, not otherwise enumerated	20	free.
Dye woods	5	free.

E

Earth, in oil	30	1¼ ct lb
Earthenware	30	30 pr ct
Ebony, unmanufactured	20	free.
Do. manufactures of, or of which it is the material of chief value	40	30
Elastic garters, made of elastic wire, covered	30	30
Elephants' teeth	5	free.
Elecampane	20	20
Embroideries, of gold or silver, or other metal	30	30
Emeralds	10	7
Emery	20	free.
Emetic, tartar	20	20
Engravers' copper, prepared or polished	30	30
Engravers' scrapers and burnishers	30	30
Engravings, books of, bound or not	10	free
Epaulets	30	free.
Epsom salts	20	20
Equalising files	30	30
Escutcheons	30	30
Do. pins	30	30
Essence, all kinds	30	25
Estopillas, linen	20	25
Etchings or engravings	10	20
Ether	20	20
Etoile, or stars for ornaments, gold	30	15
Ether sulphuric	20	25
Extracts, all kinds of	30	25
Extracts and decoctions of dye woods not otherwise provided for	20	25
Eyes and rods for stairs	30	30

F

False collars	30	50
Fans, all	30	25
Fancy, or perfumed shaving soap	30	30
Fastenings, shutter or other, of copper, iron, steel, brass, gilt, plated, or japanned	30	30
Fearnought cloth	30	40
Feathers, ornamental	30	25
Do. for beds	25	25
Felts, or hat bodies made in whole or in part of wool	20	18 ct ea
Feltings, paper	30	
Ferri, rubigo	20	30
Fiddles	20	30
Fids	30	30
Fifes, bone and ivory	20	30
Fifes, of wood	20	30 pr ct
Figures, alabaster	40	30
do. brass, bronze, gold or silver, gilt or plated, marble, plaster	30	30 "
Figs	40	2 ct lb
Fig blue	20	20 pr ct
Filberts	30	1 pr lb
Files	30	30
File cuts	30	30
Filtering stones	30	30
——— unmanufactured	20	20
Fire arms, other than muskets and rifles	30	30
Fire crackers, irons, screens	30	20
Fish, pickled, other than in barrels or half barrels not specified	20	20
Fish, foreign caught, dry	20	100 pr cwt
——, mackerel, and herring picked	20	150 "
——, salmon, pickled or dry salted	20	200 "
——, salmon, smoked	20	100 "
——, all other pickled	20	100 "
——, fresh, for daily consumption, foreign	20	free.
——, other, in oil	40	20 pr ct
——, hooks and sauce	30	30
—— skins, raw, and skin cases	20	20
Fisheries of the United States and their territories, all products of	free.	free.
Fishing nets, other than dip or scoop	30	7 cts lb
Flags	25	25 pr ct
Flageolets	20	30
Flannels, all	25	14 c sq yd
Flap hinges	30	30
Flasks, powder	30	30 pr ct
Flat irons	30	2½ cts lb
Flats, for making hats or bonnets	30	35 pr ct
Flax, unmanufactured	15	$20 pr tn
——, all manufactures of, or of which flax is a component part, not otherwise specified	20	25 pr ct
Flaxseed	20	5 "
Fleams	30	10
Flies, Spanish, or cantharides	20	free.
Flints and flint stone and do. ground	5	free.
Float files	30	free.
Floor cloth, stamped, printed or painted	30	15 c sq yd
Floor cloth, dish, or table mats of	30	25 per ct
—— cloth, lined with woollen or wool	30	10 c sq yd
—— matting, all	25	25 pr ct
Flor Benzoin	30	25
Floss silk, purified from the gum	25	
Floss cotton, (see cotton thread)	25	see cott'n
Flour, of wheat	20	10 pr cwt
——, of other grain	20	20 pr ct
Flour-sulphur	15	free.
Flower water, orange	30	25 pr ct
Flutes	20	30
Flushings	30	40
Foils, fencing	30	30
Fol. digitalis	20	20
Forks	30	20
Forge hammers	30	2½ cts lb
Fossils	free	20 pr ct
Fox glove	20	20

	1846.	1842.
Frames, or sticks for umbrellas		30
Frames, plated cruet, quadrant, silver cruet		30
Frankfort black		20
Frankincense, a gum		20
French green		25
Fringes, cotton		25
Fringes, wool		30
Fringes, merino		25
Frize, or ratteens, of wool		30
Frizettes, hair, silk		30
Frocks, gurnsey		20
Frosts, (glass)		20
Fruits preserved in brandy or sugar		40
—— pickled		30
—— green or ripe		20
Frying pans		30
Fullers' boards		30
Fullers' earth		10
Fulminates, or fulminating powders		20
Furniture, coach and harness		30
Furniture, brass, copper, iron or steel, not coach or harness		30
Furniture, household, not otherwise specified		30
Furs, undressed, all kinds, on the skin		10
Furs, dressed, all on the skin		20
Furs, hatters', not on the skin		10
Fustic		5

G

Galanga		20
Gallengal, or gallengal root		20
Galloons, gold or silver, fine or half fine		30
Gamboge, crude		20
——, refined		20
Garance, or madder		5
Garden seeds, not otherwise specified		free.
Garters		30
Gelatine		30
Gems		10
——, set		30
Gentian, or gentian root		20
German silver, manufactured or not		30
Gig hames, springs, handles		30
Gilt articles		30
Gimblets		30
Gimps, cotton, silk, thread		30
Gin		100
Ginger, ground		30
——, roots		40
Gin cases		30
Ginghams, as cottons		25
Ginseng		20
Girandoles		30
Glass of antimony		30
Glass, all manufactures of cut glass		40
——, all others not specified		30
——, apothecaries' vials and bottles not exceeding 6 oz. each		30
——, apothecaries' vials, above 6 oz. and not exceeding 16 oz each		30
——, bottles, black, not exceeding the capacity of one quart		30
——, bottles, black, exceeding 1 qt.		30
——, broken		20
——, buttons, cut, entirely of		40
——, colored		30
——, green, pocket bottles		30
——, looking, plates, silvered		30
Glasses, hour		30
——, looking, with frames		30
Glass, paintings on		30
—— shades for mantel ornaments		30
—— tumblers, plain or moulded		30
—— articles, plain or moulded		30
——, watch, or watch crystals		30
——, window, broad or cylinder		20
——, window crown		20
——, polished plate		30
——, all articles not specified, connected with other materials so as to prevent its being weighed		30

	1846.	1842.
Glauber salts		20
Glaziers' diamonds		15
Globes		30
Gloves, angora		30
——, worsted		30
——, cotton		20
——, linen		30
——, silk		30
——, silk, sewed		30
——, woollen, and woollen, lined and sewed		30
——, men's leather		30
——, women's leather habit		30
——, children's leather habit		30
——, women's leather extra demi-length		30
——, children's extra demi-length		30
——, hair		25
Glue		20
Goats' hair, or wool		20
—— skins, raw		5
—— skins, tanned		20
Gold epaulets		30
—— beaters' skins		10
—— coin or bullion, and dust		free.
—— embroideries		30
——, muriate and oxide of		30
—— ornaments		30
—— paper, in sheets, strips, or other forms		30
—— size		20
—— shell for painting, and studs		30
—— watches, and parts of		10
Golo shoes and clogs		30
Gouges		30
Gowns		30
Gown patterns, wool being a component part		30
Grains of Paradise		20
Grain tin		20
Granella, or grana, cochineal		10
Grapes, not dried		30
Grasshopper springs		30
Grease		10
Green French, mineral and olympian		20
—— turtle		20
Gridirons		30
Grindstones		5
Guava jelly, or paste		30
Gurnsey frocks		30
Guano		free.
Guinea grains		20
Guitars		20
Guitar strings, gut		20
Gum, Senegal, Arabic and Tragacanth, Barbary, East India, and Jeddo		10
——, all other resinous substances		20
Gumelastic, all articles		30
Guns, (except muskets and rifles		30
Gun locks		30
Gunpowder		20
Gun wadding of paper		30
Gunny cloth		20
Guts, sheeps', salted		20
Gypsum, or plaster of Paris		free.

H

Hackles, flax		30
do. hemp		30
do. ropemakers'		30
Hair, Angora, goats', Thibet or mohair, unmanufactured		20
Hair, all other manuf. of goats' or mohair		25
do. for head dresses, bracelets, &c.		30
do. nets		30
do. cloth, and seating		25
do. curled for beds		20
do. belts		30
do. brooms		30
do. gloves		20
do. unmanufactured		10
do. prepared and cleaned for use		30
do. pins		30
do. pencils		30
Halter chains		30

1846.	1842.
	30
	25
	30
	30
	30
	30
	25
	$2.50 lb
	30 pr ct
	30
	$1.25 doz
	$1.00 "
	50 cts "
	$1.50 "
	75 cts "
	25 pr ct
	5 cts lb
	1 "
	5 pr ct
	$2.50 doz
	free.
	20
	free.
	20
	20
	30
	12½ ct lb
	20 pr ct
	20
	7½
	30 cts pair
	30 pr ct
	50
	40
	20 pr ct
	20
	free.
	20
	30 pr ct
	10 "
	20 "
	30
	20
	30
	15
	25
	30
	30
	30
	8 cts lb
	20
	20
	free.
	.0
	30
	30
	1 ct lb
	20 pr ct
	20
	25
	25
	10
	25
	30
	30
	25
	10
	25
	10
	30
	30

	1846.	1842.
Hames	30	see sad'ry
Hams, bacon	20	30
Hand hammers	30	30
Handkerchiefs, linen	20	30
Do. bandanna and choppa, silk, cotton, Madrass	25	30
Hangers	30	30
Hangings, paper	20	30
Hares' hair or fur	10	25
Hare skins, undressed	10	5
do. skins, dressed	20	25
Harlaem oil	30	30
Harness	30	35
Harp strings, gut	20	15 pr. ct.
do. strings, wire	30	30
Harps and harpsichords	20	30
Hartshorn	30	20
Hatchets	30	30
Hat felts or bodies, not put in form or trimmed	20	25
Hat bodies, cotton	30	
do. in whole or in part wool, and wool of chief value	20	18 c each
Hats, Leghorn	30	35 per ct.
Hat linings, cotton, as cottons	25	as cottons
Hats of chip, straw or grass	30	35 pr ct
do. cotton cloth, complete with the exception of the lining and band	30	30
Hats of wool	20	18 c each
do. fur	30	35 pr ct
do. leather	30	35
do. palm leaf	30	35
do. rattan	30	35
do. japanned	30	35
do. silk, men's	30	$1 each
Hatter's irons	30	2½ cts lb.
Hats, of any material not specified	30	35 pr ct
Hautboys	20	30
Haversacks, of leather	30	35
Hayknives	30	30
Head-dresses, ornaments for	30	25
Head matter, if fisheries of the United States	free.	free.
Head pieces, for stills	30	30
Hearth rugs, all	30	40
Hellebore root	20	20
Hemlock	5	free.
Hemp seed	10	20
do. all manufactures of, not otherwise specified	20	20 per ct.
Hemp unmanufactured	30	$40 pr ton
Henbane	20	20 pr. ct.
Herrings, pickled	20	$1.50 bbl
do. smoked or dried	20	$1.00 cwt
Hessians, German flax	20	25 pr. ct.
do. hemp	20	20
Hides, raw or salted	5	5
do. tanned	20	6 cts lb
Hinges	30	30 per ct
Hobby horses	30	30
Hods, coal, iron, copper	30	30
Hoes	30	30
Hoisting chains	30	30
Hollands, brown	20	25
Hollow ware, tinned	30	2½ cts lb.
Hones	20	20 per ct.
Honey	30	20
Hooks	30	30
do. and eyes	30	30
Hoop iron	30	2½ cts lb.
Hoops, iron, fit for use	30	30 pr. ct.
Hops	20	20
Horn combs	30	25
do. tips	5	5
do. plates, for lanterns	30	20
Horns	5	5
Horse hair	10	10
Hose, cotton	20	30
do. wool, worsted, and silk, sewed	30	30
do. leather, and linen thread	30	25 per ct
Household effects, old and in use of persons from foreign countries, if not intended for sale	free.	
Household furniture	30	30
Hungary water	30	25
Hyacith roots	free.	free.

	1846.	1842.
Hydriodate of potash	20	20
Hydrometers, of glass	30	30
I		
Imitation of precious stones	10	7½
Implements of trade of persons arriving in the United States	free.	free.
India grass	25	$25 pr ton
do. rubber, unmanufactured	10	free.
India rubber oil cloth, and shoes, or other manufactured articles, of India rubber	30	30 per ct.
India rubber cloth	30	30
do. webbing	30	30 pr ct
Indian meal and corn	20	20 cts cwt
Indigo	20	5 cts lb
Indispensables, or bags, leather	30	25
Do. cotton, merino stuff, silk, bead	25	30
Do. bead, or silk, with clasps	30	25
Ink and ink powder	30	25
Ink stands	30	30
Instruments, philosophical	30	free.
do. musical	20	30 pr ct
do. philosophical, not specially imported, duty according to the materials they are composed of.		30
Iodine, and salts of	20	20
Ipecac, or ipecacuanha	20	20
Iris root	20	20
Iron, articles not enumerated, manufactured from iron, or of which iron is a component part	30	30 pr ct
Iron, in bars or bolts, made wholly or in part by rolling	30	$25 pr ton
Iron, in bars or bolts, not manufactured in whole or in part by rolling	30	17 "
Iron boiler plates, with holes for rivets	30	2½ cts lb
Iron boiler plates, without holes for rivets	30	2½ "
Iron band, and cables, or parts thereof	30	2½ "
Iron castings	30	1 ct. lb
Iron in slabs, blooms, bolts, loops, pigs, rods, &c., not otherwise provided for	30	2½ "
Iron nail plates	30	2½ "
Iron, old, in scrap	30	$10 pr ton
Iron, rolled or hammered	30	2½ cts lb
Iron in pigs	30	$9 pr ton
Iron, round, or braziers' rods, of 3-16 to 10-16 of an inch diam. inclusive	30	2½ cts lb.
Iron, sad or flat irons	30	2½ "
Iron screws, for wood	30	12 cts lb
Iron, vessels of, cast, even with wro't rings, hoops, handles, &c. not otherwise specified	30	1½ cts lb.
do. wrought for ships, locomotives, and steam engines	30	4 cts. lb
do. weights, cast, even with wrought rings, hoops, handles, &c. &c., not otherwise specified	30	1½ c. lb.
Iron railroads to pay as rolled iron	30	Act, § 4
do. wheels for cars	30	4 ct. lb
do. chains, all others not otherwise specified	30	30 per ct
do. malleable, or castings	30	4 cts lb.
do. tubes or pipes, for steam, gas, or water, made of band or rolled iron	30	5 "
do. sulphate of	20	2 "
do. manufactures of	30	30 per ct
Iridium	20	20
Isinglass	20	20
Issue peas	30	20
do. plaster	30	20
Ivory	5	free.
do. manufactured	30	20
do. unmanufactured	5	free.
do. black	20	3½ cts lb.
do. nuts	5	20
do. vegetable, manufactures	30	30
J		
Jacks, jack chains and jack screws	30	30
Jalap	20	20

	1846.	1842.
Jallalpore Mamoody, cotton goods	25	see cotton
Japanned wares, of all kinds	30	30 per ct
Jars, black glass, not exceeding 1 qt.	30	$3 gross
do. do. exceeding one quart	30	4 "
Jessamine, or Jasmine, oil of	30	20 per ct
Jeanette, cottons	25	30
Jean, cottons	25	30
Jellies, and all similar preparations	30	30
Jerk beef	20	2½ cts lb.
Jet, real	30	7 per ct
Jet, composition	30	7½
Jet, stones	30	20
Jet, beads	30	25
Jewelry	30	20
Jewelry, false, so called	30	25
Joints, India	30	free.
Jostic, or jos light	20	20 pr ct
Juglandium, oil of	30	20
Juice of limes, lemons, oranges	10	25
Juniper berries	20	20
do. plants	free.	free.
Junk, old	free.	free.
Jute and jute matting, carpeting	25	30

K

Kaleidescopes	30	30
Kalydor	30	25
Kelp	10	free.
Kentledge	30	1½ cts lb
Kermes	5	free.
do. (mineral)	15	
Kerseys and kerseymere	30	40
Kerstes	20	free.
Kettles, brass in nests	30	12 per lb
do. cast iron	30	1½ " "
do. copper	30	30
Keys, watch	30	20
do. all other	30	30
Kilmarnock caps	30	30
Kings yellow	20	20
Kirschenwasser	100	60 c. gal
Knitting needles	20	20 pr ct
Knives, all of gold, silver, iron, steel, copper, brass, pewter, lead, or tin	30	30
Knobs, brass, gilt, plated, or washed, iron, steel, copper, or brass	30	30
Knockers	30	30
Knots and stars, of gold and silver	30	15
Krems white, or white lead	20	4 cts lb

L

Labels, printed	30	20
Labels, decanter or other	30	30
Lac dye	5	30
Lac, spirits and sulphur	20	20
Lace, all kinds made into wearing apparel	30	50
Lace, bobbinet	25	20
do. coach	25	35
do. gold, silver, plated	30	15
do. silk	25	2,50 ct. lb.
do. do. not sewed, cotton	25	20
do. shawls, if sewed	30	40
do. edgings, cotton	25	20
do. insertings, thread	20	15
do. do. cotton	25	20
do. quillings, and tatting, cotton	25	20
do. purling, cotton	25	20
do. bobbinet veils, cotton, chemisettes, collars, pelerines, collarets, canezons, caps, handkerchiefs, trimmed	30	40
do. handkerchiefs not trimmed	25	30
do. veils, cotton	25	30
Laces, all thread	20	15
do. gold and silver, invoiced fin, mi fin, argent fin, and argent mi fin	30	15
Laced boots or bootees	30	1.25 pair
Lacets, or lacings, silk	25	2.50 lb.
Lacquered ware	30	30
Ladles, and ladle heads	30	30
Lake, drop, paints	20	20
Lampblack	20	20
Lamp hooks and pulleys	30	30
Lamps, brass, copper, tin	30	30
Lamps, cut glass	40	see glass
Lancets	30	30
Lancet cases, shagreen, paper	30	20
Lantern leaves, or horn plates	5	20
Lanterns	30	30
Lapis	20	20
Lard	20	3 c p lb.
Larding pins	30	30 pr ct
Lasting, in strips or patterns of the size and shape for buttons, shoes, or bootees	5	5
Latches	30	30
Lath	20	20
Lattin, brass	30	30
Laudanum	30	20
Laurel, oil of	30	20
Lavender, essence of	30	25
Lavender, dry, flower of	20	20
do. oil of, and water	30	20
Lawn, cotton	25	see cotton
do. linen, or long lawn	20	25
Lead, all manufactures of, not otherwise specified	30	4 cts lb
Lead	20	4 "
do. in bars	20	3 "
do. black	20	20 pr ct
do. powder of black	20	20
do. pencils and combs	30	25
do. old and scrap	20	1½ pr lb
do. in pigs	20	3 "
do. sugar of	20	4 "
do. pots, black	30	30 pr ct
do. white, red, dry or ground in oil	20	4 cts lb
do. nitrate of	20	20 pr ct
do. in sheets	20	4 ct lb
do. acetate or chromate of	20	4 "
do. pipes	20	4 "
do. ore	20	20 pr. ct.
Leaders, leather	30	35
Leaders, worsted	35	30
Leaf, Dutch metal	20	25
Leaf, gold	15	20
Leaves, medicinal, in a crude state	20	
do. silver	15	20
do. all manufactures thereof, or of which it is the material of chief value, not otherwise specified	30	35
Leather, sole	20	6 cts lb
do. upper not otherwise specified	20	3 cts lb
Leaves of trees, for dyeing, in a crude state	20	free.
Leaves not used in dyeing, not otherwise provided for	20	20
do. bocos	20	20
do. palm	10	free.
Leeches	20	free.
Lees, wine, liquid	20	20
do. do. crystalized or crude tartar	5	free.
Leghorn hats or bonnets, and flats	30	35
do. braids, crowns or brims, and plaits	30	35
Lemons in bulk	20	free.
do. in boxes, barrels, or casks	20	20
Leno, linen	20	25
do. muslin	25	see cotton
Leopard skins, raw	5	5
do. do. dressed	20	25
do. do. spot cloth	30	40
Lime, and chloride of	10	1 ct lb
Limes	20	free.
Limets oil of	30	20 pr ct.
Lime, acetate of, and citrate of	20	20
Lines, fishing, a twine	30	6 cts lb
do. worsted	25	30 pr ct
Linens, bleached and unbleached	20	25
do. all manufactures of, not otherwise specified	20	25
Linen canvas, black, in strips, or patterns, of the size exclusively for buttons, shoes, or bootees	5	5
Linseed	10	5
Linseed cakes	20	20
do. meal	20	20
do. oil	20	25 cts gal
Linsey woolsey	30	40 pr ct

	1846.	1846.
Lint	20	25 pr ct
Liqueurs or cordials, all	100	60 pr gal
Liquor, iron, purple, red and tin	20	20 pr ct
Liquorice paste, root, and juice	20	25
Litharge	20	4 cts lb
Lithographic stones	20	20 pr ct
Lithontriptons	30	30
Litmus	20	20
Loadstones	30	20
Loaf sugar	30	6 cts lb
Lotions, all cosmetic	30	25 pr ct
Lozenges, all medicinal	30	25
Locks	30	30
Logwood	5	free.
Logwood, extracts of	20	free.
Long cloths, linen	20	25 pr ct
Looking-glasses	30	30
frames	30	30 per ct
Looking-glass plates	30	25
Looking-glass frames	30	30
Lump sugar	30	6 cts lb
Lunar caustic	30	20 pr ct
Lustres, glass, cut	40	15 cts lb.
do., brass and glass	30	30 pr ct
Lutes	20	30 pr ct
Lye, soda	20	20 pr ct

M

Macaroni	30	30
Mace	40	50 ct lb
Macassar oil	30	25
Machinery, models of	free.	free.
Mackerel, pickled	20	$1,50 bbl
Madder	5	free.
Madder root	5	free.
Madopollams, cotton	25	see cott'n
Madras handkerchiefs, cotton	25	see cott'n
Magic lantern, and similar articles	30	30 per ct
Magnesia	20	20
Magnesia, carbonate of	30	20
do. sulphate of	20	20
Mahogany	20	15
Mails, an iron article used in weaving	30	30
Mallets, wood	30	30
Malt	20	20
Manganese	20	20
Mangoes	20	20
Mangroves, or shells of	20	20
Manilla grass	25	$25 pr ton
Manna, (a crude gum)	20	15 pr ct
Mantillas, silk	30	30
Mantles	30	30
Manufactured tobacco	40	10 cts lb
Manufactures of the United States and its territories	free.	free.
Manufactures, all, of the U States, brought back	free.	free.
Manufactures of articles, vessels and wares, not otherwise provided for, of brass, copper, gold, iron, lead, pewter, platina, silver, tin, or other ware	30	25 pr ct
Manufactures of bark of cork tree, except corks	30	30
Manufactures of bone, shell, horn, pearl, ivory, and vegetable ivory	30	30
Manufactures of cotton, if tamboured or embroidered	30	30
Manufactures of cotton, wholly, not otherwise provided for	25	30
Manufactures of cloth, suitable for shoes, boots, bootees, and buttons, exclusively	5	30
Manufactures of flax, not otherwise provided for	20	25
Manufactures of fur, or of which fur is a component material	30	35
Manufactures of glass, articles, vessels, and wares, not otherwise provided for	30	25
Manufactures of hemp, not otherwise provided for	20	20
Manufactures of hair, not otherwise provided for	25	25

	1846.	1849.
Manufactures of linen, if embroidered	30	
Manufactures of leather, not otherwise provided for	30	
Manufactures of marble, more advanced than slabs or blocks, (rough)	30	30
Manufactures of mohair, or goats hair, not otherwise provided for	25	20
Manufactures of mohair cloth, for shoes, boots, bootees, and buttons.	5	
Manufactures of paper, not otherwise provided for	30	
Manufactures of papier machine, not otherwise provided for	30	
Manufactures of silk, embroidered	30	$2,50 lb
Manufactures of silk, or of which silk shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for	25	$2,50 lb
Manufactures of tobacco, all not otherwise provided for	40	snuff 12lb tob'co 10
Manufactures of wood, viz: cedar, granadilla, ebony, mahogany, rose, and satin	40	30 pr ct
Manufactures of wood, not otherwise provided for	30	30
Manufactures of wool, embroidered	30	40
Manufactures of wool, or of which wool is a component part of chief value, not otherwise provided for	30	40
Manufactures of worsted, embroidered	30	30
Manufactures of worsted, not otherwise provided for	25	30
Maps	10	20
Marble, manufactures of	30	30 pr ct
do. busts, not specially imported	30	30
do. unmanufactured	20	25
Marbles, (for children's play) baked	30	30
do. stones	30	20
Marine coal	20	
Marmalade, a sweetmeat	40	25
Marrow	10	10
Mascade, essence of	30	15
Marsh mallows	20	20
Mastic, crude	20	15
do refined	20	25
Matches, for pocket lights	30	30
Mathematical instruments, specially imported	30	free.
Mathematical instruments	30	30 pr ct
Mats, tables, straw, tow or flag	25	25
do. all other	30	25
Matting, all floor of flags, jute, or grass	25	25
Mattresses, hair, or moss, linen tick	20	25
Meal, cassada, linseed, oat,	20	20
Meats prepared	40	25
Mecklin lace, linen	20	15
Medals and other collections of antiquities	free.	free
Medical preparations, not specified	30	20 pr ct
Medicinal drugs, roots and leaves, in a crude state, not otherwise specified	20	20
Metal, plated	30	30
Metallic slates,	25	25
Metallic pens	30	25
Metals, unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for	30	30
Melting pots	30	30
Mercury or quicksilver	20	5
do. all preparations of	25	25
Merino shawls, (so called) body worsted or combed wool	30	30
Merino shawls, border woollen fringe sewed on	30	40
Merino cloth, entirely of combed wool	25	30
do. wool, not combed, being a component part	30	40
Merino stuff, fringe and trimmings	25	30
do. shawls made of wool	30	40
do. cloth, worsted stuff	25	30
do. cloth, woollen	30	40
Manilla hemp	25	$25 ton

	1846.	1842.
Mica, isinglass	20	20 pr ct
Milk of roses	30	25
Millinery of all kinds, cotton	30	40
Mill cranks, of wrought iron	30	4 cts lb
Mill irons, of wrought iron	30	4 do.
Millepedes	20	20 pr ct
Mill saws	30	1.00 each
Mills, coffee	30	30 pr ct
Miniature cases, ivory	30	20
do. sheets, ivory	30	20
Miniatures	free.	20
Mineral and bituminous substances, in a crude state, not otherwise provided for	20	
Mineral, green	20	20
do. water	30	20
do. salt, crude	20	20
Mirrors	30	30
Mitts, cotton	20	30
do. silk, woollen, leather, angora, linen	30	
Mock jewelry	30	
do. pearls, being of glass	10	7½
Modelling, specially imported	free.	free.
Moleilling, not specially imported	30	free.
Models of invention, or improvements	free	free.
Mohair in strips or patterns of the size exclusively for buttons	5	5 pr ct
Mohair, unmanufactured	20	1
Molasses	30	4½ ml's lb
Morocco skins	20	$2.50 doz
Morphine	20	20 pr ct
Mortars	30	30
Moss, Iceland	20	20
do. for beds	20	10
Mosaics, real or imitation, not set	10	7½
do. do. set	30	7½
Mother of pearl, shells	5	free.
do. do. articles made of, enumerated	30	20
Muffs, of fur	30	35
Munjeet, (a dyeing drug)	5	free.
Music in sheets, as pamphlets	10	30 pr ct
do. bound, as books	10	
Musical instruments	20	30
Mushrooms	40	20
Musk	30	25
Muskets and parts of	30	1.50 stand
Mustard, including the bottles	20	25 pr ct
do. seed	20	5
Myrrh, gum, crude	20	15
do. do. refined	20	25
Myrobalan	20	20

N

Nails, brass	30	30
Nails, copper	20	4 cts lb
do. composition	30	30 per ct
do. iron, cut	30	3 cts lb
do. do. wrought	30	4
do. ornamental	30	30 pr ct
Nail rods and plates	30	2½ cts lb
Nails, zinc	30	30 pr ct
Nankeens, imported directly from China (as cottons)	25	as cot'ns
Nankeens, not imported direct from China, subject to the regulations on the manufactures of cotton	25	"
Nankeen shoes and slippers	30	25 cts pair
Napkins, cotton	25	30 per ct
Narcorine	20	20
Natron	10	free.
Needles, all kinds	20	20 pr ct
Nests, brass kettles in	30	12 cts lb
do. birds	20	20 pr ct
Nets, fishing, other than dip or scoop	30	7 cts lb
Nets, fishing, dip or scoop nets	30	30 pr ct
Nickel	5	free.
Nippers	30	30 pr ct
Nitrate of potash, or saltpetre, unrefined	5	free.
Nitrate of potash, or saltpetre, refined	10	2 cts lb
Nitrate of potash, partially refined	10	½ ct lb
Nitrate iron,	20	
tin, lead	20	20 pr ct
Nitre, mur, tin	20	20
do. refined	10	2 cts lb
do. unrefined	5	free.
Nitric acid and nitrous acid	20	20 cts lb
Norfolk latches	30	30
Noyeau	100	60 cts gal
Nutria skins, if undressed	10	5 pr ct
Nut-galls	5	free
Nutmegs	40	30 cts lb
Nuts used in dyeing, specially, in a crude state	5	free.
do. all not specially mentioned	30	1 ct lb
Nux vomica	10	free.
Nyanzonks, (cottons)	25	as cot'ns

O

Oakum and junk	free.	free.
Oats	20	10 cts bsl
Oatmeal	20	20 pr ct
Ochor, dry	30	1 ct lb
Ochers, all, or ochry earths, used in painters' colors, when dry	30	1
Ochers, all, or ochry earths, in oil	30	1½
Ochor, in oil	30	1½
Oil cakes	20	20 pr ct
Oil cloth, table mats	30	25
Oil cloth, patent floor	30	35 c sq yd
Oil cloths, such as hat covers, &c	30	12½ "
Oil cloth, furniture	30	10 "
Oil, Harlæm	30	20 pr ct
Oil stones,	20	20
Oil absynth, or wormwood	30	20
do. bears'	30	25
do. cajaput, or cajaputa	30	20
Oil of cassia	30	20
do. caryophil, (oil of cloves)	30	30 cts lb
do. cloves	30	30 pr ct
do. cocoa-nuts	10	20 pr ct
do. palm bean	10	free.
do. palm	10	free.
Oil of succini, (drug)	30	20 pr ct
do. Macassar	30	25
do. neats' foot	20	20
do. Neroli, or orange flower	30	20
Oil of roses, or otto of roses	30	25
Oil of ricini, or palma Christi	20	40 c gal
Oil, castor	20	40
do. hemp seed	30	25 pr ct
do. linseed	20	25
do. in bottles or flasks	30	30
do. rape seed	30	20
do. salad	30	10
do. all used in painting	20	
Oil, spermaceti, of foreign fishing	20	25
do. fish, and all other of American fisheries, all articles the production of said fisheries	free.	free.
Oil of vitriol	10	1 ct gal
do. whale and other (not sperm) of foreign fishing	20	15
Oils, all not specified	30	20 pr ct
Olives	30	30 pr ct
Onions	20	20
Opium	20	75 cts lb
Opium extract of	30	25 pr ct
Orange crystal	20	20
do. flowers	20	20
Oranges	30	fr. in b'l's
do. otherwise	20	20
Orchilli, or orchello	20	free.
Ore, specimens of	20	20 pr ct
Organs	30	30
Origanum, oil of	30	20
Ornaments	30	30
Ornaments, cut glass, for mounting chandeliers	40	45 cts lb.
Ornamental feathers	30	25 pr ct
Orpiment	10	20
Orris root, or iris root	20	20
Ostrich plumes and feathers	30	25
Otto of roses	30	25
Oxalic acid	20	20
Oxide of bismuth	20	20
Oxymuriate of lime	20	20

	1846.	1842.
do.	or chlorate of potasse, or potash	20	20
Oysters		20	free.
Osnaburgs		20	25 pr ct

P

Pack thread	30	6 cts lb
Padding	30	40 pr ct
Paddy	20	
Pad screws	30	see sad'ry
Paint brushes	30	30 pr ct
Painted floor cloths, oil	30	35 sq y'd
Painting brushes	30	30 pr ct
Paintings, the productions of American artists residing abroad	free.	free.
Paintings, other, provided the same be imported in good faith as objects of taste, and not merchandise	free	30 pr ct
Paintings on glass, and porcelain	30	30
Paints, carmine	30	20
Paints, dry or ground in oil, not otherwise provided for	20	
Paints, all not otherwise specified	20	20
do. ivory black	20	20
do. red lead,	20	4 cts lb
do. rose pink	20	1
do. Spanish brown, dry	30	1
do. do. in oil	30	1½
do. terra umbra	30	1
do. white lead	20	4
Painters' colors	20	20 pr ct
Palm leaves, unmanufactured	10	free.
do. leaf hats	30	35 pr ct
do. leaf baskets	30	25
do. oil	10	free.
Pannel saws	30	30 pr ct
Pit saws	30	$1, each
Panilla grass	25	$25 pr tn
Paper, antiquarian, double elephant, atlas, columbier, elephant, imperial, super-royal, royal, medium, demy, and foolscap drawing and writing	30	15 cts lb
Paper, bank folio and quarto post of all kinds, letter and bank note	30	17
Paper, copper-plate, blotting, copying, colored for labels and needles, marble, and fancy colored	30	12¼
Paper, glass, morocco, sand and tissue	30	12½
do. pot and pith	30	15
do. pasteboard, pressing boards, and gold and silver paper in sheets or strips	30	12½
Paper, colored copper-plate, printing, and stainers'	30	10
Paper, binders' boards, box boards, mill boards, and paper makers' boards	30	3
Paper, sheathing, wrapping, and cartridge	30	3 cts lb
Paper envelopes and fancy note	20	30 pr ct
do. music with lines	10	25
do. gilt or metal, not gold or silver	30	25
do. for screens or fireboards	20	35 pr ct
do. all other not enumerated	30	15 cts lb
do. counting house boxes	30	25 pr ct
Paper boxes, fancy	30	25
do. hangings	20	35
do. segars	40	20
do. snuff-boxes	30	25
do. wadding	30	20
Parasols, silk	30	30
Parasol sticks or frames	30	30
Paving tiles	20	25
Parchment	30	25
Paris white, dry	20	1 ct lb
Pasteboard	30	12½ ct lb
Paste riggers	30	30 pr ct
do. almond, and perfumed	30	25
Paste work that is set in gold or silver	30	20
do. imitation of precious stones	10	½ pr ct
Pastel or woad	10	1 ct lb
Patent floor cloth, oil	30	5 c sq yd
do. mordant	20	
do. yellow	20	20 pr ct
Paving stones	20	20

	1846.	1842.
Pearl, mother of	5	free.
Pearls, set	30	7 pr ct
do. all	10	7
do. composition, set	30	7½
do. mock pearls	10	7½
Peas	20	20
Peanuts	30	20
Pelerines, lace	30	40
Pellitory root	20	20
Pelts, salted	5	5
Pencils, black lead	30	25
do. camels' hair	30	20
do. red chalk	30	25
do. slate	20	20
Pencil cases	30	20
Penknives	30	30
Pens	30	25
Pepper, black and white	30	5 ct lb
do. cayenne, and Chili or African	30	10 "
Percussion caps	30	30 pr ct
Perfumes	30	25
Perry	100	60 gal.
Peruvian bark	15	free.
Pestles and mortars	30	30 pr ct
Petershams, woolen cloth	30	40
Petticoats ready made	30	50
Pewter, old, fit only to be re-manufactured	5	free
Pewter, articles of, not enumerated, manufactured from, or of which pewter is a component part	30	30 pr ct
Phosphate of lime and soda	20	20
Philosophical apparatus, duty according to the material of which it is composed.		
Phosphorus lights, in glass bottles, with paper cases	30	25
Phosphorus	20	20
Phosphuret of lime	20	20
Pianofortes	20	30
Pianoforte ferrules	30	30
Pickled fish, other than mackerel, and salmon	20	$1,00 bbl
Pickles	30	30 pr ct
Picrotoxine, an extract	30	25
Picture glass (see glass, window)	30	see glass
Pictures	20	20
Pimento	40	5 cts lb
Pimento, oil of	30	20 pr ct
Pin or needle cases	30	30
Pin cushions	25	30
Pincers	30	30
Pine apples	20	30
Pink, Dutch, rose, root, saucers	20	20
Pins	30	40 pack
Piperine, an extract	30	25 pr ct
Pipes, clay, smoking	30	30
do. iron, not being castings	30	30
do. iron castings	30	1 ct lb
do. lead	20	4 cts lb
Pistols	30	30 pr ct
Pitch, Burgundy	25	25
Pitch	20	
Plaids, cotton	25	see cott'n
Plains	30	40 per ct
Plaintain, or Manilla grass, or Manilla hemp	25	$25 ton
Plaits, for making hats or bonnets	30	35 pr ct
Plaster of Paris, unground	free.	free.
do. ground	20	
Plaster, court, on silk	30	20
do. do. on cambric	30	30
do busts, casts, statues, and ornaments	30	20
Planks, wrought	20	30
do. rough	20	20
Plants	free.	free
Plaintain bark	20	20
Plane irons	30	30
Planes	30	30
Plata pina	free	free.
Plate, silver	30	30
Plated carriage and harness furniture	30	30
do. wares of all kinds, not otherwise specified	30	30
Plates boiler	30	2½ cts lb

	1846.	1842.
Plates, copper, suitable for sheathing ships, that is, 14 by 48 inches, and weighing from 14 to 34 ounces per square foot	free	free.
do. nail	30	2½ lb.
do. copper, engraved	30	30 pr ct
do do. prepared for engravers	30	30
Platillas, linen	20	25
Platina, unmanufactured	free	free.
do. manufactures of	30	20
do. crucibles	30	20
Playing cards	30	25 pack
Pliers	30	30 pr ct
Ploughs	30	30
Plums	30	
Plumes, ornamental, whether manufactured or not	30	25 per ct
Plush or shag	25	30
do. wool	30	40
do. hatters, of silk and cotton, cotton chief value	25	see col'ns
Poil de chevre, wool and cotton	30	"
Points merino	30	30 per ct
Pole caps	30	30
Pole carriage hooks	30	30
Pole ferrules	30	30
Polishing stones	10	free.
Polished or scraped brass	30	30
Polypodium	20	20
Pomatum	30	25
Pomegranates	20	20
Pomegranate peel	20	20
Pongees, white	25	$1.25 lb
Poplins, stuff	25	30 pr. ct.
Poppy heads	20	20
do. oil	30	20
Porcelain	30	20
Porcelain glass	30	30
do. slates	25	25
Pork	20	2 cts lb.
Porphyry	30	30 per ct
Porter in bottles	30	20 c. gal.
Porter, otherwise than in bottles	30	15 "
Potasse, or potash, prussiate of	20	20 per ct.
Potassium	20	20
Potash, all	20	20
Potatoes	30	10 cts bs'l
Pots, black lead	30	30 per ct
Pots, blue	30	30
Pots, cast iron	30	1½ cts lb.
Pots, melting, earthen	30	30 pr ct
Poultry or game, prepared	40	25
Pounce	20	20
Pound ribbon	25	$2.50 lb
Powder, black lead	20	20 per ct.
do. blue	20	20
do. of brass	20	30
do. of bronze	20	20
do. gun	20	8 cts lb
do. hair, plain, or not perfumed	20	20 pr. ct.
do. hair, perfumed	30	25
do. ink	30	25
do. puffs	30	30
do. subtil, for the skin, and tooth	30	25
Powdered sugar	30	6 cts lb
Precious stones	30	7 cts lb
do. of all kinds, not set	10	7 pr. ct.
do. glass, imitation of, set	30	7½
do. other imitations of	10	7½
Prepared clay	20	20
Pressing boards	30	12½ cts lb
Prepared vegetables, meats, poultry, and game	40	
Preparations, anatomical	30	free.
do. chemical, not otherwise enumerated	30	20 per ct.
Preserves, in molasses, and all others	40	25
Princess stuff, woolen	30	40
Prints or engravings	10	20
Prisms, cut glass, and parts of same	40	45 cts. lb.
Produce, of the growth, manufacture, or fisheries, of the United States and its territories	free	free.
Professional books of persons arriving in the U. S.	free	free.
Produce or growth, all of the United States, not otherwise mentioned, brought back	free	free.
Protractors, ivory, mounted	30	30 pr ct
Prunella	25	30
Prunella and similar fabrics, not specified, in strips or patterns of the size and shape suitable exclusively for shoes, bootees, and buttons	5	5 pr ct
Prunes	40	3 cts lb
Prussian blue	20	20 per ct
Prussiate of potash, or potasse	20	20
Pucheri	20	20
Pullies, iron, brass, and copper	30	30
do. wood	30	30
Pumice	10	20
Pumpkins	20	30
Pumps, stomach	30	30
Punches shoe	30	30
Punjums, Madras, cottons	25	as cottons
Putty	20	1½ cts lb.
Pyroligneous acid	20	20 pr ct

Q

Quadrants and sextants	30	30 pr ct
Quadrant frames	30	30
Quality binding, worsted	25	30
Quassa wood, in logs	20	free.
Quicksilver	20	5 pr ct
Quill baskets	20	25
Quilla bark	15	
Quills, prepared or manufactured	20	25
Quills, unprepared	20	15
Quiltings, or bed quilts, cotton	25	see col'ns
Quinine, and sulphate of	20	40 cts oz

R

Radix, or angelica root	20	20
Rag stones	20	20
Rags, of any kind of cloth	5	½ ct lb
Raisins	40	3 "
Rakes	30	30 per ct
Rape of grapes	20	20
Rape seed	10	20
Rape seed oil	20	25 cts gal
Rappers	30	30 pr ct
Rass, cornu cervi	30	20
Rasps	30	30
Rattans, unmanufactured	10	free.
do. split	20	20 pr ct
Rattles	30	30
Ravens duck, if hemp	20	20
do. if flax	20	25
Raw skins, that is, undressed	5	5
Raw silk, not more advanced in manufactures than singles, tram, thrown, or organzine	15	50 cts lb
Razors, cases and strops	30	30 pr ct
Reaping-hooks	30	30
Ready made clothing	30	50
Red liquor	20	25
Reeds, unmanufactured	10	free.
do. manufactured	30	30 pr. ct
do. weavers'	30	30
Reeves' colors	20	20
Regulus of antimony	20	20
Reindeer skins, dressed	20	25
do. undressed	5	5
do. tanned	20	8 cts lb
Reindeer tongues	30	20 pr ct
Reps, natural silk and cotton	25	see col't 4
Reps, silk	25	$2 50 lb
Resin	30	15 pr ct
Resin of jalap	20	25
Resin, nux vomica	20	free.
Rest pins	30	30
Returned cargo, of American growth or manufacture	free	free
Returned cargo, of foreign growth or manufacture, according to the material of which it is composed; and is liable to the same duty as on its first importation.		
Rhodium, oil of	30	20
Rhubarb	20	free.
Ribbon wire, or canetille	30	30

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Ribbons	25	$2.50 lb
do. Bordeloux, silk and cotton	25	30 pr ct
do. pou'd	25	$2.50 lb
Rice	20	20 pr ct
Rifles	30	$2.50 eh
Rigotine, a kind of woolen cloth	30	40 pr ct
Rings	30	30
Rivets	30	30
Robes, made up	30	50
Rochelle salts	20	20
do. or common salt	20	8 cts ba'l
Rock moss	20	10 pr ct
Rocoa	10	20
Rods, brasiers', of 3-16 to 10-16 of an inch diameter, inclusive	30	2½ cts lb
Rods and eyes, for stairs	30	30 pr ct
Rods, wood	30	30
do. copper	20	4 ct. lb.
do. composition	30	30 pr ct
do. casement, slit, slit or rolled	30	2½ cts lb.
do. steel	30	30 pr ct
Rolls, brown or white linen	20	25 pr ct
Roller buckles, as saddlery	20	25 "
Romals, cotton goods	25	as cott'ns
Roman cement	20	20 pr ct
do. vitrol	20	4 cts lb
Rope, made of hides cut in strips	20	20 pr ct
Rope or cordage of cocoa-nut hulls	25	4½ cts lb
Roots, arrow	20	20 pr ct
do. ava and madder	5	free.
do. medicinal, not specially mentioned, in a crude state	20	20
Roots, all not otherwise enumerated	free.	20
Rope, made of grass or bark	25	4½ cts lb
Rope, clar or colar	25	4½ "
Rose leaves	20	20 pr ct
Rose water	30	25 pr ct
Rose wood	20	15
Rosin	20	75
Rosolio, a cordial	100	60 cts gal.
Rotten stone	10	free.
Rouens, linen	20	25 pr ct
Rouge	20	20
Rubigo ferri	20	20
Rubrum, bark acer	20	20
Rubies	10	7
do. set	30	7½
Rue, essence of	30	25
Rugs for bed covering, cotton	25	see cot'ns
Rugs for bed covering, woolen	30	40 pr ct
Rugs, hearth, all	30	40
Rugs, for horses	30	40
Rules	30	20
Rum	100	60 cts gal
Rum, bay, or bay water	30	25 pr ct
Russia crash, hemp	20	20 pr ct
do. duck	20	7 c sq yd
do. diaper and linen	20	25
do. sheetings, and other of flax	20	25
Rust of iron	20	20
Rye	20	15 cts ba'l
Rye flour	20	

S

Sabres	30	30 pr ct
Saccharum saturni, S. of L	20	4 cts lb
Sacking, linen	20	25 pr ct
Saddlery, all not otherwise specified	30	30
do. tinned, japanned, and common	20	20
Saddle hooks	30	30
Saddles	30	35
Saddle trees	30	30
Sad irons	30	2½ cts lb
Safflower	5	free.
Saffron	20	free.
Saffron cake	20	20 pr ct
Sago	20	20
Sail duck	20	7 c sq yd
Sal ammoniac	10	20 pr ct
Sal diuretic	20	20
Sal nitre, or saltpetre, crude	5	free.
do. or saltpetre refined	10	2 cts lb
Sal succinic	20	20 pr ct
Salad oil	30	30

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Salempores, cottons	25	as cott'ns
Salep	20	20 pr ct
Salmon, preserved	40	$2 00 bb
do. pickled	20	2.00 bbl
do. dry or smoked	20	$1.00 cwt
Salt	20	8 c ½ cwt
Salt, crude mineral	20	20 pr c.
Salt, fossil, mineral salt	20	20
Salts, brown, epsom, glauber, Rochelle	20	20
Salts, all other chemical salts not enumerated	20	20
Salted skivers, roans, and pelts	5	5
Saltpetre, or sal nitre, or nitrate of potash, crude	5	free.
Saltpetre, refined	10	2 cts lb
do. partially refined	10	½ ct. lb
Sandarach, refined	20	25 pr ct
Sanders wood	5	free.
do. red	5	20
Sandal wood	30	free.
Sand stones	20	20
Sanguis dragonis	15	25
Sannas, cottons	25	as cott'ns
Sarcocolla, crude	20	15 pr ct
Sardines	40	$1 pr bbl
do. and all fish in oils	40	20 pr ct
Sarsaparilla	20	free.
Sarsnets, silk	25	$2.50 lb
do. cotton	25	as cott'ns
Sash fasteners	30	30 pr ct
Sashes, silk	25	$2.50 lb
Sassafras	20	20 pr ct
do. oil of	30	20
Satin, Denmark, (worsted stuff)	25	30
do. do. if any cotton	25	as cott'ns
Satin, gauze	25	$2 50 lb
do. silk	25	"
do. wood	20	15 pr ct
Satins, figured, when in strips, exclusively for buttons	5	5
Sauces, all kinds not otherwise specified	30	30
Saucepans	30	30
Sausages	40	25
Saws, mill	30	$1 each
Saws, cross-cut and pit	30	"
Saws, all not otherwise specified	30	30 pr ct
Saw sets	30	30
Sawns, cottons	25	as cott'ns
Scagliola tables or slabs	40	30 pr ct
Scale beams	30	30
Scales, bone	30	20
do. ivory	30	20
do. all other material	30	30
Scammoniate	20	25
Scantling	20	30
do. and sawed timber not planed or wrought into shape for use	20	20
Scarfs, silk	30	$2.50 lb
do. if any cotton	30	30 pr ct
do. if any wool	30	40
Scilla, or squills	20	20
Scissors	30	30
Scotch braces	30	30
Scrapers	30	30
Scrap lead	20	½ cts lb
do. iron	30	$10 pr tn
Screws, bed	30	30 pr c
do. brass	30	30 cts lb
Sea weed, and all other vegetable substances used for bed or mattresses	20	
Seeds, garden	free	free.
do. all other not specified	free	20
Seed lac	5	free.
Seines	30	7 cts lb
Segars	40	40 pr ct
Segars, paper	40	20
Seltzer water	30	20
Seneca, or radix root	20	20
Senegal gum	10	free.
Senna	20	20
Sepia	20	20
Serge, woolen	30	40
Sewing silk	30	$2 pr lb

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Sentants	30	30 pr ct
Shades, lace, sewed	30	40
Shaddocks	20	free.
Shaving soap	30	30
Shawls, cotton	30	as cott'ns
Shawls, Cashmere, real, or of the Thibet goat	30	20 pr ct
shawls, Cashmere, silk	30	$2.50 lb
do do. wool	30	40 pr ct
do. camels' hair	30	20
do. lace	30	30
do. lace, sewed	30	40
do. merino, made of wool	30	40
do. silk	30	$2.50 lb
do. silk and worsted	30	50 pr ct
do. Thibet	30	20
Shears	30	30
Sheetings, all kinds	20	various.
Shell, for painting	30	30
do. boxes, not otherwise enumerated	30	25
do. baskets	30	25
do. turtle or tortoise	5	5
Shellac	5	free.
Shells, cocoa	10	20
Shells, all other	5	20
Shirtings, cotton	25	as cottons
do. linen	20	25
Shirts	30	50
do. woolen or worsted, and all other similar manufactures made on frame	30	30
do. silk	30	40
Shoe binding, cotton	25	30
do. do. silk	25	$2.50 lb
do. do. woolen	30	30 pr ct
Shoe bills	30	1 ct lb
Shoe floats	30	30 pr ct
do. horns	30	20
do. knives	30	30
do. rasps	30	30
do. horse	30	30
Shoes or slippers for children	30	15 pair
do. do. for grown persons, of silk	30	30 "
Shoes or slippers of leather for men	30	30 "
do. do. of prunella stuff, or or other materials, except silk, for women	30	25 "
do. i. e. double soled pumps and welts, women's leather	30	40 "
Shot bags	30	35
Shot belts	30	35
Shot, cast iron	30	1 ct lb
do. lead	20	4 "
Shovels (iron, steel, or brass) for the hearth	30	30 pr ct
do. with or without handles, iron and steel, to dig with	30	30
Shovels	30	30
Shrubs	free	free.
Shumac, or sumac	5	free.
Shuttle-cocks and battle-dores	30	35
Sickles	30	30
Side-arms	30	30
Sieves	30	30
Silks, all, manufactures of, not otherwise specified	25	$2.50 lb
Silk, raw, not more advanced in manufacture than singles, tram, thrown, or organsine	15	50 cts lb
do. sewing, all	30	2.00 "
do. sewing, in the gum	30	
do. aprons, collars, cuffs, chemisettes, turbans, mantillas, and pellerines	30	30 pr ct
Silk and worsted valencias, tolienets, crape de Lyon, shawls	25	30
do. and worsted shawls hemmed	30	40
do. do. manufactures of	26	30
Silk and cotton vesting	26	30
do. bolting cloths	25	30
do. bobbin	25	$2.50 lb
do. braids	25	30 pr ct
do. caps, if entirely of silk	30	30
do. cords	25	$2.50 lb.

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do. curls	30	30 pr ct
do. flocs and other similar purified from the gum	25	25
do. frizettes, garters, gloves, tassels	30	30
do. hats or bonnets for women	30	$2.00 eac
do. handkerchiefs, not sewed	25	$2.50 lb.
do. hose	30	2.50 "
do. hose, sewed	30	30 pr. ct.
do. lace	25	$2.50 lb.
do. mits	30	$2.50 "
do. mits sewed	30	30 pr ct
do. manufactures with gold or silver, or other metal	30	30
do. pongees, white	25	$1.50 lb.
do. ornaments for head dresses	30	30 pr ct
do. oil cloth	30	12½ sq yd
do. suspenders	30	35 pr ct.
do. stocks	30	50
do. stockings	30	$2.50 "
do. stockings, sewed	30	30 per ct
do. twist	30	$2.50 lb
do. watchchains or ribbons	25	2.50 "
do. webbing	25	2.50 "
do. all other articles, not otherwise specified, made up by hand in whole or part	30	30 pr ct
Silver bullion and coin	free.	free.
do. epaulettes and wings	30	free.
do. nitrate of	30	20
do. all manufactures of, not otherwise specified	30	30
do. plated metal, in sheets or other form	30	30
do. German, in sheets	30	30
do. German, manufactures of	30	30
Silvered wire	30	30
Syrup of sugar cane, in casks	30	2½ cts lb
Sisal grass	25	$25 pr ton
Sithes	30	30 pr ct
Skates	30	30
Skivers, tanned	20	$2.00 doz
do. pickled	5	20 pr ct
Skins, pickled, in casks	5	20
do. of all kinds in the hair, dried, raw, or unmanufactured	5	5
Skins, calf and seal, tanned and drest	20	$5.00 doz
do. fish, for saddlers, &c	20	20 pr ct
do. fur, raw or undressed	10	5
do. do. dressed	20	25
do. white for druggists	20	$1.00 doz.
do. dressed with alum only	20	75 cts "
do. sheep, tanned or drest	20	2.00 "
do. goat or morocco, tanned and drest	20	$2.50 "
do. kid, tanned and drest	20	$1.50 "
do. goat and sheep, tanned and not drest	20	$1.00 "
do. kid and lamb, tanned and not drest	20	75 "
do. tanned and drest, otherwise than in colors, viz: fawn, kid, and lamb, known as chamois	20	$1.00 "
Slates of all kinds	25	25 pr ct
Sledges	30	2½ cts lb
Slick stones	20	20 pr ct
Slippers for children	30	15 cts pair
do. not for children, leather	30	25 "
do. do. prunella	30	25 "
do. do. silk	30	30 "
do. do. stuff	30	25 "
do. do. other materials	30	25 "
do. nankeen	30	25 "
Slit iron, in nail or spike rods	30	2½ ct lb
do. for band iron, scroll iron, and basement rods	30	2½ "
Smalts	20	20 pr ct
Snails	20	20
Snake-root	20	20
Snaps, a clasp or ketch	30	30
Snuff	40	12 cts lb
Snuffers	30	30 per ct
Snuffer trays	30	30
Soap, all kinds	30	
do. pans, cast iron, whole or in parts	30	½ ct lb
do. stocks and stuffs	10	20 pr ct

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Socket chisels	30	30
Socks, cotton	20	30
do. silk	30	30
do. linen or thread	30	25
do. wool	30	30
do. worsted, including children's	30	30
Soda, ash	10	5
do. carbonate of, iodate of, hydriodate of, ley, powders, sal, salts of	20	20
do. all carbonate of, except soda ash, barilla, and kelp	20	20
Soie blanche, Chenille	30	30
Solanine	20	20
Soles, felt	30	40
do. cork	30	35
Sooty romals, cotton	25	see cott'n
Souvenirs	30	
Soy	30	30
Spades of iron, with or without handles	30	30
do. of steel do. do.	30	30
Spanish brown, dry	30	1 ct lb
do. do. ground in oil	30	1½ ct lb
Spanish flies, or cantharides	20	free.
Spars	20	30 pr ct
Spartaria, or sparterie, or willow sheets for hats	30	35
Spatulas	30	30
Spartacen, or coral	20	20
Spa, or spaware	40	30
Specimens of anatomical preparations	30	free.
do. in botany, mineralogy, natural history, and in soupture, and not for sale	free	free.
Spectacle cases	30	30
do. glasses	30	$2 gross.
Spectacles, all kinds	30	30 pr ct
Spelter, manufactures of	30	30
do. in pigs, bars, or plates	5	free.
do. in sheets	15	10
Spermaceti oil, of foreign fisheries	20	25 ct gnl.
Spikes, copper	20	4 cts lb
do. composition	30	30 pr ct
do. iron	30	3 cts lb
Spike rods	30	2½ cts lb
Spirits, lac, and yellow	20	20 pr ct
do.	100	60 ct gal
Spokes and spoke shaves	30	30 pr ct
Sponges	20	30
Spoons, all kinds	30	30
Spunk	20	20
Spurs, all kinds	30	30
Sprigs	30	5 pr 1000
Springs for wigs	30	30 per ct
Spy-glasses	30	30
Squares, brass, iron, steel	30	30
Square wire, for stretchers for umbrellas	30	12½
Squares, wood	30	30 pr ct
Squills, or scilla	20	20
Stamped floor cloths, oil	30	35 c sq yd
Starch	20	2 cts lb
Stars of gold, fine and half fine	30	15 pr ct
Statuary, the production of American artists residing abroad	free.	free.
Statues and specimens specially imported as objects of taste and not merchandize	free.	free.
Statues not specially imported, viz:		
Statues of Alabaster	40	30 pr ct
do. of brass, bronze, marble, metal, plaster, cast or wood	30	30
Staves	20	30
do. rough	20	25
Stavesacre	20	20
Steel, cast, shear, and German in bars	15	1.50 cwt
do. wire, not exceeding No. 14	30	5 ct lb
do. do. over No. 14 and not exceeding No. 25	30	8 cts lb
do. wire, exceeding No. 25	30	11 cts lb
do. in bars, all other	20	$2.50 cwt
do. chains	30	30 pr ct
do. pens	30	25
do. cutting knives, scythes, sickles, reaping hooks, spades and		

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Steel, shovels	30	30
Steel, all articles not enumerated, manufactured from steel, or of which steel is a component part	30	30
Steel not otherwise provided for	20	20
Steelyards	30	30
Stereotype plates	20	25
Sticks, walking, finished or not	30	30
do. or frames for umbrellas or parasols	30	30
Stiffeners for cravats	30	40
Stilettoes, daggers	30	30
do. ivory	30	20
Still-bottoms, copper	20	30 pr ct
Still worms	30	30
Stirrup irons	30	30
Stockinetts	30	40
Stockings and half stockings, of wool or worsted	30	30
Stockings silk	30	30
Stomach pumps	30	30
Stone ware	30	30
Stone Armenian	20	20
Stones, bristol	20	20
do. polishing red and sand	10	free.
do. burr, unwrought	10	free.
do. burr, wrought	10	20 pr ct
do. building	10	20
do. caustic	20	20
do. cornelian, and garnet	10	7
do. mill	10	20
do. not merchantable, for ballast	20	20
do. oil	20	20
do. paving	20	30
do. pumice	10	
do. rotten	10	7
do. touch and whet	20	20
Storax or styrax, a balsam	30	20
Straining webb	20	25
Straw baskets	30	25
do. carpets and straw carpeting	25	30
do. matting and mats	25	25
do. for hats, in its natural state	20	20
Stretchers for umbrellas and parasols	30	30
Strings of musical instruments, if gut	20	15
do. bow, if gut, and hatters' if gut	20	15
Strontian and muriate of	20	20
do. nitrate of	20	25
Strychnine, a salts	30	20
Studs, all kinds	30	
Stuff, shoes	30	25 pr p'r
Stuff, goods, all kinds of worsted	25	30 pr ct
Stump joints	30	30
Sublimate, corrosive	25	25
Succini, oil of, (drug)	30	20
Succory	20	20
Sugar, brown, raw	30	2½ cts lb
do. candy	30	6
do. loaf and lump	30	6
do. white, clayed	30	4
do. of lead	20	4
do. syrup of	30	2½
do. brown, clayed	30	2½
Sugars, all other not refined	30	4
do. refined	30	6
Sugar moulds, hooped or not	30	30 pr ct
Sugar tongs	30	30
Sulphate of copper, or blue vitriol	20	4 pr lb.
Sulphate of quinine	20	40 cts oz
do. of rhubarb, of zinc, of magnesia	20	20 pr ct
do. of iron	20	2 cts lb
Sulph, mur, tin	20	20 " "
Sulphur, flor. flour. flower of sulphur	20	free.
Sulphuric acid. or oil of vitriol	10	1 cts lb
Sulphuric ether	20	20 pr ct
Sumac	5	free.
Surgeons' instruments,	30	30 pr ct
Surplice pins	30	30 "
Suspenders or braces	30	25 "
Suspender ends	30	30 pr ct
Swans, down of	25	25
Swanscown, woollen and cloth	30	40
Swans' skins, undressed	5	5
do. dressed	20	25

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Sweetmeats or comfits, all	40	25
Swords and sword blades	30	30
Syrup of sugar, in casks	30	2¼ cts lb
T		
Table cloths, cotton	25	as cot'ns
do. do. linen	20	25 pr ct
do. covers, woollen	30	40
do. do. oil cloths	30	16 sq y'd
do. tops	40	30 pr ct
Table mats, if wool be a component part	30	25
Tables, with marble tops, or ornaments	30	30
Table tops, scagliola	40	30
Tables, wood	30	30
Tacks, brads, or sprigs,	30	5 cts 1000
Tailors' irons	30	2½ cts lb
Talc, a fossil	20	20 pr ct
Tallow	10	1 cts lb
Tallow candles	20	4
Tamarinds, preserved	40	25 pr ct
Tamarinds	20	20
Tamboreens	20	30 pr ct
Tapers,	30	30
Tapes, cotton	25	30
do. Harlaem	25	30
do. linen	20	25
do. silk	25	$2.50 lb
do. tailors' in silver cases	30	30 pr ct
Tapioca	20	20
Tare	20	20
Tar, Barbadoes, crude	20	15
Tar, coal	20	15
Tarpaulin	30	25
Tarred cordage	25	5 cts lb
Tartaric acid	20	20 pr ct
Tartareous acid	20	20
Tartar, cream of	20	free.
do. crude	5	free.
do. emetic	20	20 pr ct
do. red crude	5	free.
Tartrite of antimony, or tart. emetic	20	20
Tasters, cheese	30	30
Tassels, cords, and trimmings, silk	25	$2.50 lb
Tassels, if cotton and silk	25	30 pr ct
do. if wool	30	40
do. if gold or silver	30	15
Teas, of all kinds imported from China, or other places east of Cape of Good Hope, in vessels of the United States, or in foreign vessels entitled by reciprocal treaties to be exempt from discriminating duties	free.	free.
Teas, other	20	20 pr ct
Tea pots	30	30
Teazels	20	20
Teeth, elephants'	5	free.
do. other	5	5 pr ct
Telescopes	30	30
Terraglis, a kind of coral	20	20
Terra-japonica, or japanica, a dye	10	free.
Terra de sienna, dry	30	1 ct lb
do. in oil	30	1¼
Terra umbra	30	1
Tarrets, all kinds of, as saddlery	30	as sad'ry
Terne, tin plates	15	2½ pr ct
Teutenague, in sheets	15	free.
do. boxes	30	30 pr ct
do. unmanufactured	5	free.
Theriaque	20	20 pr ct
Thermometers, teloscopes, magic, and other lanterns, and similar articles	30	30
Thibet, cashmere of	25	20
do. shawls, real or goats' hair	30	20
do. do. entirely of comb'd wool	30	30
do. do. body cotton with worsted fringe	30	as cott'n
Thimbles	30	30 pr ct
Thor marine, a small fish	20	1.00 bbl
Thread, cotton	25	30 pr ct
do. escutcheons	30	30
do. flax	20	25
do. insertings	20	
do. lace	20	15
do. pack	30	6 cts lb
Thread, shoe	20	25 pr ct
do. stockings	30	25
do. buttons	25	25
Thrown silk, or raw	5	60 per lb
Thridace	20	20 pr ct
Ticks, cotton	25	25
do. flax	20	25
do. flax or linen, colored	20	25
do. linen, bleached or unbleached	20	25
Ticklenbergs	20	$2.50 lb
Tiffanies	25	25 pr ct
Tiles, marble	30	25
Tiles, paving and roofing	20	25
Timber, hewn or sawed	20	30
Timber for wharves	20	20
Time pieces	30	25
Tin in bars, pigs, block, banca	5	1
Tin boxes	30	30
Tin, crystals of	20	20
Tin foil	15	2½
Tin, granulated, grain, liquor, muriate of, oxide of	20	20
Tin in plates, do. galvanized	15	2¼
Tin in sheets	15	"
Tin tagger	30	30
Tin, all manufactures of, not enumerated, or of which tin is a component part	30	25
Tincal, or borax	25	25
Tinctures	30	25
Tips of horn or bone	5	5
Tips and runners for parasols and umbrellas, metal	30	30
Tippets, if classed as millinery	30	40
Tippets, fur	30	35
Tippets, silk	30	30
Tippets, wool	30	40
Toasters	30	30
Tobacco unmanufactured	30	10 cts lb
Tobacco, leaves or unmanufactured	30	25 per ct
Toilet glasses	30	30
Toilenets	30	40 pr ct
Tolu, balsam of	30	25
Tongues	20	20
Tongs, (shovels, and tongs)	30	30
Tonca, tonga, tongua, or tonqua beans	20	20
Tools and implements of trade of persons arriving in the United States does not include machinery or articles imported for manufacturing establishments, or on sale	free.	free.
Tooth brushes	30	30
Tooth powder	30	25
Tooth picks	30	20
Topaz, real	10	7
Topaz, imitation, other than glass	10	7½
Tortoise shell	5	5
Touch stones	20	20
Tow	15	$20 pr ton
Tow sacking, flax	20	25 pr ct
Toys, of every description	30	30
Trace chains, iron or parts thereof	30	30
Traces, leather	30	35
Tragacanth, gum	10	free.
Traps	30	30
Trays and waiters	30	30
Treacle, molasses	30	4½ cts lb
Tresses, lace, even if mi fin	30	15 pr ct
Trees	free.	30
Trowels	30	30
Truffles, (vegetable)	40	30
do earthen	30	30
Trunk handles	30	30
Trusses with iron or steel springs of more value than the leather	30	30
Trusses, if leather be the material of chief value	30	35
Tubes	30	30
Tug buckles, as saddlery	30	as sadd'ry
Tumblers, if cut glass	40	see glass
do. if plain glass	30	see glass
Turmeric	5	free.
Turquoises	10	7 pr ct
Turpentine, spirits of	20	10 c. gal
Turtles	20	free.
Turtle shell	5	5 per ct

	1846.	1842.
Tweezers	30	30
Twine	30	6 cts lb
Twist, cotton, mohair, worsted	25	30 per ct
Twist, silk	30	$2.00 lb
Types, printing, new or old	20	25 pr ct
do. metal	20	25
U		
Umbrellas	30	30
do. sticks or frames for	30	30
do. brass tips, runners, &c., for	30	30
Umbrella, square wire, stretchers	30	12½
Umbrella furniture	30	30
V		
Valentias wool	30	40
do. worsted	25	30
Valenciennes, (thread lace)	20	15
Valonia, or valeni, a nut, for dyeing	5	free.
Vanilla, plants of	free.	free.
do. beans	20	20
Varnishes of all kinds	30	20
Vases, porcelain, containing flowers, with stands and shades—the vases	30	30
Vegetables, prepared	40	20
Do. used in dyeing, or in composing dyes, in a crude state	5	free,
Vegetables, not otherwise provided for	30	30
Veils, lace, cotton	30	30
Veils, silk	30	2.50 lb
Vellum	20	25 per ct
Velvet, cotton, or silk and cotton, cotton chief value	20	see cotton
Velvet, silk	25	2.50 lb
Velvet binding, cotton	25	30 pr ct
Velvet, terry or figured, in strips or patterns of the size exclusively for buttons	5	5
Velvet binding, silk	25	2,50 lb.
Velveteens, cotton, as cottons	25	as cottons
Veneering rods	30	30 pr ct
Venitian red, dry	30	1 ct lb
do. in oil	30	1½ "
Venison hams	20	3 cts lb
Veratrine	20	20 pr ct
Verdigris	20	20
Verditure	20	20
Vermicelli	30	20
Vermilion	20	20
do. if mercurial	25	25
Vessels, cast iron, not otherwise specified	30	1¼ per lb
Vessels, copper	30	30 pr ct
Vestings, cotton	25	
do. silk and cotton	25	30 pr ct
do. silk	25	$2.50 lb
do. silk and wool	30	40 pr ct
do. stuff	25	30
do. woollen	30	40
Vests	30	50
Vials, all perfumery and fancy, not cut, not exceeding the capacity of four ounces each	30	2.50 gross
Vials, perfumery and fancy, not cut, when exceeding four ounces, and not exceeding sixteen ounces each	30	$3 gross
Vials, all perfumery and fancy cut	40	as man. gl
Vials, apothecaries', above six ounces, and not exceeding sixteen ounces	30	2.50 gross
Vices	30	20 pr ct
Vinegar	30	8 pr gal
Violins	20	30 pr ct
Violin strings, gut	20	15
do. wire	30	30
Vitriol, oil of, sulphuric acid	10	1 ct lb
do. blue, or Roman	20	4 "
do. green	20	2 "
do. white, or sulphate of zinc	20	20 pr ct
W		
Wadding, paper	30	20
Wafers	30	25
Wagon boxes	30	30
Waiters	30	30
Walking sticks or canes	30	30
Warming pans	30	30
Washes, cosmetic or dentrifice	30	25
Wash balls	30	30
Waste or shoddy	5	¼ pr lb
Watches, and parts thereof	10	7½ pr ct
Watch crystals, when not set	30	$2 gross
Watch pipe keys, (carre or cannon)	30	30 pr ct
Water wheels of iron	30	1 ct lb
Water colors	30	20
Wax beads	30	25
Wax, bees', bleached or unbleached	20	15
Wax, sealing	30	25
Wax, shoemakers'	20	15
Wearing apparel of persons arriving in the United States in actual use, and personal effects, not merchandise	free.	free.
Wearing apparel, new	30	50 pr ct
Webb, or webbing, boot, of flax	20	25
do. of silk	25	$2.50 lb
do. of worsted	25	30 pr ct
do. of wool	30	30
Webbing, Indian rubber	30	30
Wedgewood ware	30	30
Weights, brass	30	30
do. cast iron	30	1 ct lb
do. copper	30	30 pr ct
do. lead	30	4 cts lb.
Weld	5	free.
Wet blue	20	20 pr ct
Whale bone, product of for. fishing	20	12½
do. of American fishing	free.	free.
Whale oil, of foreign fishing	20	15 cts gal
do. of American fishing	free.	free.
Wheat	20	25 cts bsl
Wheat flour	20	70 cts cw
Whetstones	20	20 pr ct
Whips	30	35
Whiskey	100	60 cts gal
Whiting	20	1 ct lb
Whiting ground in oil	20	1½ "
Wick, cotton or wick yarns	25	as cot yns
Wigs	30	25 pr ct
Willow sheets, for hats	30	35
Willow for making baskets or covering demijohns	20	20
Window glass	20	see glass
Wine, Burgundy, in bottles	40	35 cts ga
Wine, do. in casks	40	15 "
Wine, Canary, in casks or bottles	40	60 "
Wine, Champagne, in bottles or casks	40	40 "
Wine, Claret, in bottles	40	35 "
Wine, do. in casks	40	6 "
Wine, Madeira, in bottles	40	15 "
Wine, do. in casks	40	7½ "
Wine, do. imitation of, in bottles or casks	40	60 "
Wine, Oporto, in bottles	40	15 "
Wine, do. in casks	40	6 "
Wine, Port, imitation of, in bottles	40	35 "
Wine, do. in casks	40	15 "
Wine, Sherry, in casks or bottles	40	60 "
Wine, St. Lucar, in casks or bottles	40	60 "
Wines, Sicily Madeira, in casks or bottles	40	25 "
Wines, all other of Sicily, in casks or bottles	40	15 "
Wine, Teneriffe, in casks or bottles	40	20 "
Wines, of all countries, in bottles, unless specially enumerated	40	65 "
Wines of all countries, in casks, unless specially enumerated	40	25 "
Wines, white, in casks, not enumerated, of France, Prussia, Sardinia, and of Portugal and its possessions	40	7½ "
Wines, of Austria and Prussia, in bot.	40	15 "
Wines, white, in bottles, not enumerated, of France, Sardinia, and of Portugal and its possessions	40	20 "
Wines, red, in casks, not enumerated, of France, Prussia, Sardinia, and of Portugal and its possessions	40	6 "
Wines, red, in bottles not enumerated, of France, Prussia, Sardinia, and of Portugal and its possessions	40	20 "

	1846.	1842.
Wines, white and red, not enumerated, of Spain, Germany, and the Mediterranean, in casks	40	12½ gal
Wines, white and red, not enumerated, of Spain, Germany, and the Mediterranean, in bottles	40	20 "
Wines of the Mediterranean, in casks	40	12½ "
Wine bottles, of all descriptions, in addition to the duty on wines	40	$3 gross
Wine lees, liquid	20	20 pr ct
Wine lees, crystalized, or crude tartar	5	free.
Wings and epaulets	30	free.
Winter bark, or canella alba	20	20 pr ct
Wire, all kinds	30	
Woad, or pastel	10	1 ct lb
Wood, Brazil, and Brasiletto	5	free.
Wood, camwood, and carmaguey	5	free.
Wood, dye, all in sticks	5	free.
Wood, fire	30	20 pr ct
Wood, fustic	5	free.
Wood, lignum vitæ	30	free.
Wood, log	5	free.
Wood, Nicaragua, Pernambuco, queen's, red sanders, red, Rio de la Hache	5	free.
Wood, Santa Martha and other dye-woods	5	free.
Wood, sandals, in sticks, dust or powder	5	free.
Wood, ebony and granadilla	20	free.
Wood, unmanufactured, of any kind not enumerated	30	free.
Wood, Jacaranda, or rose	20	15 pr ct
Wood, rose, satin, cedar, and mahog	20	15
Wood, quassia	5	free.
Wool, manufactures of, not otherwise specified	30	30 pr ct
Wood screws, so called	30	12 cts lb
Wool, angora, goats' or camels' hair	20	1 ct lb
Wool, carded, considered as unmanufactured	30	1 ct lb
Wool, red, natural	30	25 pr ct
Wool hats	20	18 c each
Woolen bags, cloth, cassimere, rugs	30	40
Woolen stockings, bindings, gloves, mits	30	30
Woolen floor crumb cloth	30	40
do. hosiery, all other	30	30
Woolen flocks	5	30
do. listings	20	30
Wool, all other, unmanufactured	30	5 (cost nc over 7c lb same as wool.
Wool on the skin, subject to the same duty as other wool		
Wool, all manufactures of, or of which wool is a component part, not otherwise specified	30	40 pr ct
Woolen tippets, wove	30	30
do. yarn	25	30
Worms for stills	30	30
Wormwood, oil of	20	20
Worsted stuff, all piece goods	25	30
do. and silk shawls	30	30
do. do. shawls, hem'd	30	40
do. do. manufactures of	25	30
do. bags	25	30
do. caps	30	30
do. table covers, and bindings	25	30
do. braces	30	35
do. hose and drawers	30	30
do. plains	25	30
do. gloves and mits	30	30
do. tollinets, twist and valencias	25	30
do. wove pantaloons and shirts	30	30
do. shag or plush, cut or not	25	30
do. yarn	25	30

Y

Yams	20	
Yarn, cotton	25	25 pr ct
Yarn, worsted and woolen	25	30 "
Yarn, untarred, or flax	30	6 cts lb
Yellow, king's patent	30	20 pr ct
Yellow, chromate of potash	20	30
Yellow, citric acid	30	20
Yellow, ochre, dry	30	1 ct lb
Yellow, do. in oil	30	1½ "
Yellow, salt of chrome, and spirits	20	20 pr ct

Z

Zante currants	40	
Zinc, nails	30	30
Zinc, in pigs, or otherwise unwrought	5	free.
Zinc, in sheets	15	10 pr ct
Zinc, sulphate of	20	20
Zinc, oxide of	20	20
Zinc, manufactures of	30	30

Cravats ready to wear	30
do in piece	25
Lantern leaves, or horn plate, if not manufactured	5 pr. ct.
Paintings on glass, porcelain, or metal, if paintings chief value	20
Nitrate Silver	20
Pink Saucers	30
Roller buckles, saddlery, if common japanned, or tinned	20—if fine, 30
Iodine	30
do Salts of	30

TARES ALLOWED AT THE CUSTOM HOUSE.

	PER CT.
On Sugar in casks, except loaf	12
On sugar in boxes	15
On sugar in bags or mats	5
On cheese in hampers or baskets	10
On cheese in boxes	20
On candles in boxes	8
On chocolate in boxes	10
On cotton in bales	2
On cotton in serroons	6
On Glauber salts in casks	8
On nails in casks	8
On sugar candy in boxes	10
On soap in boxes	10
On shot in casks	8
On twine in casks	12
On twine in bales	8

DRAFTS.

THE FOLLOWING ARE MADE BY LAW FOR DRAFTS ON ARTICLES SUBJECT TO DUTY BY WEIGHT.

On any quantity of 1 cwt	1 pound.
On any quantity above 1 cwt. and not exceeding 2 cwt	2 do
On any quantity above 2 cwt. and not exceeding 3 cwt	3 do
On any quantity above 3 cwt. and not exceeding 10 cwt	4 do
On any quantity above 10 cwt. and not exceeding 18 cwt	7 do
On any quantity above 18 cwt	9 do

[*Act of 2d March, 1799, Section 68.*]

A BILL

REDUCING THE DUTY ON IMPORTS, AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES.

PASSED JULY 29, 1846.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the first day of December next, in lieu of the duties heretofore imposed by law on the articles hereinafter mentioned, and on such as may now be exempt from duty, there shall be levied, collected, and paid, on the goods, wares, and merchandise herein enumerated and provided for, imported from foreign countries, the following rates of duty—that is to say:

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule A, a duty of *one hundred* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule B, a duty of *forty per cent.*

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule C, a duty of *thirty* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule D, a duty of *twenty-five* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule E, a duty of *twenty* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule F, a duty of *fifteen* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule G, a duty of *ten* per centum ad valorem.

On goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule H, a duty of *five* per centum ad valorem.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the first day of December next, the goods, wares, and merchandise mentioned in schedule I shall be exempt from duty.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That, from and after the first day of December next, there shall be levied, collected, and paid on all goods, wares, and merchandise imported from foreign countries, and not specially provided for in this act, a duty of *twenty* per centum ad valorem.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That in all cases in which the invoice or entry shall not contain the weight or quantity, or measure of goods, wares, or merchandise now weighed or measured or guaged, the same shall be weighed, guaged, or measured at the expense of the owner or consignee.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the first day of December next, in lieu of the bounty heretofore authorized by law to be paid on the exportation of pickled fish of the fisheries of the United States, there shall be allowed, on the exportation thereof, if cured with foreign salt, a drawback equal in amount to the duty paid on the salt, and no

more, to be ascertained under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That all goods, wares, and merchandise imported after the passage of this act, and which may be in the public stores on the second day of December next, shall be subject to no other duty upon the entry thereof than if the same were imported respectively after that day.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the twelfth section of the act entitled, "An act to provide revenue from imports, and to change and modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes," approved August thirty, eighteen hundred and forty-two, shall be, and the same is hereby, so far modified, that all goods imported from this side the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn may remain in the public stores for the space of one year instead of the term of sixty days prescribed in the said section; and that all goods imported from beyond the Cape of Good Hope or Cape Horn may remain the public stores one year instead of the term of ninety days prescribed in the said section.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be lawful for the owner, consignee, or agent of imports which have been actually purchased, on entry of the same, to make such addition in the entry to the cost or value given in the invoice, as in his opinion may raise the same to the true market value of such imports in the principal markets of the country whence the importation shall have been made, or in which the goods imported shall have been originally manufactured or produced, as the case may be; and to add thereto all costs and charges which, under existing laws, would form part of the true value at the port where the same may be entered, upon which the duties should be assessed. And it shall be the duty of the collector within whose district the same may be imported or entered to cause the dutiable value of such imports to be appraised, estimated, and ascertained in accordance with the provisions of existing laws; and if the appraised value thereof shall exceed by ten per centum or more the value so declared on the entry, then, in addition to the duties imposed by law on the same, there shall be levied, collected and paid, a duty of twenty per centum ad valorem, on such appraised value. *Provided nevertheless*, That under no circumstances shall the duty be assessed upon an amount less than the invoice value; any law of Congress to the contrary notwithstanding.

SEC 10. *And be it further enacted*, That the deputies of any collector, naval officer, or surveyor, and the clerks employed by any collector, naval officer, surveyor, or appraiser, who are not by existing laws required to be sworn, shall, before entering upon their respective duties, or, if already employed, before continuing in the discharge thereof, take and subscribe an oath or affirmation faithfully and diligently to perform such duties, and to use their best endeavours to prevent and detect frauds upon the revenue of the United States; which oath or affirmation shall be administered by the collector of the port or district where the said deputies or clerks may be employed, and shall be of a form to be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

SEC. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That no officer or other person connected with the navy of the United States, shall under any pretence, import in any ship or vessel of the United States any goods wares, or merchandize liable to the payment of any duty.

SEC. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That all acts and parts of acts repugnant to the provisions of this act be, and the same are hereby repealed.

SCHEDULE A.

Brandy and other spirits distilled from grain, or other materials; cordials, absynthe, arrack, curacoa, kirschenwasser, liqueurs, maraschino, ratafia, and all other spirituous beverages of a similar character.

SCHEDULE B.

Alabaster and spar ornaments; almonds; anchovies, sardines, and all other fish preserved in oil; camphor refined; cassia; cloves; composition tops for tables, or other articles of furniture; comfits, sweetmeats, or fruit preserved in sugar, brandy, or molasses; currants; dates; figs; ginger root, dried or green; glass cut; mace; manufactures of cedar wood, granadilla, ebony, mahogany, rosewood, and satin wood; nutmegs; pimento; prepared vegetables, meats, poultry, and game sealed or enclosed in cases, or otherwise; prunes; raisins; scagliola tops for tables, or other articles of furniture; segars, snuff, paper segars, and all other manufactures of tobacco; wines, Burgundy, champagne, claret, Madeira, port, sherry, and all other wines and imitations of wines.

SCHEDULE C.

Argentine, alabatta, or German silver, manufactured or unmanufactured; ale, beer, and porter in casks or bottles; articles embroidered with gold, silver, or other metal; articles worn by men, women, or children, of whatever material composed, made up, or made wholly or in part, by hand; asses' skins; balsams, cosmetics, essences, extracts, pastes, perfumes, and tinctures, used either for the toilet, or for medicinal purposes; baskets, and all other articles composed of grass, osier, palmleaf, straw, whalebone, or willow, not otherwise provided for; bay rum; beads, of amber, composition, or wax, and all other beads; benzoates; bologna sausages; bracelets, braids, chains, curls, or ringlets composed of hair, or of which hair is a component part; braces, suspenders, webbing, or other fabrics, composed wholly or in part of India rubber, not otherwise provided for; brooms and brushes of all kinds; cameos, real and imitation, and mosaics, real and imitation, when set in gold, silver, or other metal; canes and sticks for walking, finished or unfinished; capers, pickles, and sauces of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; corks; earthen, China, and stoneware, and all other wares composed of earthy and mineral substances not otherwise provided for; fire crackers; flats, braids, plaits, sparteere, and willow squares, used for making hats or bonnets; glass tumblers, plain, moulded, or pressed, not cut or printed; hats and bonnets for men, women, and children, composed of straw, satin straw, chip grass, palm leaf, willow, or any other vegetable substance, or of hair, whalebone, or other material, not otherwise provided for; caps, hats, muffs, and tippets of fur, and all other manufactures of fur, or of which fur shall be a component material; caps, gloves, leggins, mits, socks, stockings, wove shirts and drawers, and all similar articles made on frames, worn by men, women, or children, and not otherwise provided for; card cases, pocket books, shell boxes, souvenirs, and all similar articles, of whatever material composed; carpets, carpeting, hearth-rugs, bedsides, and other portions of carpeting, being either of Aubusson, Brussels, ingrain, Saxony, Turkey, Venetian, Wilton, or any other similar fabric; carriages and parts of carriages; cay-

enne pepper; cheese; cinnamon; clocks and parts of clocks; clothing, ready made, and wearing apparel of every description, of whatever material composed, made up or manufactured wholly or in part by the tailor, sempstress, or manufacturer; coach and harness furniture of all kinds; coal; coke and culm of coal; combs of all kinds; compositions of glass or paste, when set; confectionary of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; coral, cut or manufactured; cotton cords, gimps, and gallons; court-plaster; crayons of all kinds; cutlery of all kinds; diamonds, gems, pearls, rubies, and other precious stones, and imitations of precious stones, when set in gold, silver, or other metal; dolls and toys of all kinds; epaulets, galloons, laces, knots, stars, tassels, tresses, and wings of gold, silver, or other metal; fans, and fire screens of every description, of whatever material composed; feathers and flowers, artificial or ornamental, and parts thereof, of whatever material composed; frames and sticks for umbrellas, parasols, and sunshades, finished or unfinished; furniture, cabinet and household; ginger, ground; grapes; gum benzoin or benjamin; hair pencils; hat bodies of cotton; hemp, unmanufactured; honey; human hair, cleansed or prepared for use; ink and ink powder; iron, in bars, blooms, bolts, loops, pigs, rods, slabs, or other form, not otherwise provided for; castings of iron; old or scrap iron; vessels of cast iron; japanned ware of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; jewelry, real or imitation; jet and manufactures of jet, and imitations thereof; lead pencils; maccaroni, vermicelli, gelatine, jellies, and all similar preparations; manufactures of the bark of the cork tree, except corks; manufactures of bone, shell, horn, pearl, ivory, or vegetable ivory; manufactures, articles, vessels, and wares, not otherwise provided for, of brass, copper, gold, iron, lead, pewter, platina, silver, tin, or other metal, or of which either of those metals or any other metal shall be the component material of chief value; manufactures of cotton, linen, silk, wool, or worsted, if embroidered or tamboured in the loom or otherwise, by machinery, or with the needle, or other process; manufactures, articles, vessels, and wares of glass, or of which glass shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for; colored, stained, or painted glass; glass crystals for watches; glasses or pebbles for spectacles; paintings on glass, porcelain glass; manufactures and articles of leather, or of which leather shall be a component part, not otherwise provided for; manufactures and articles of marble, marble paving tiles, and all other marble more advanced in manufacture than in slabs or blocks in the rough; manufactures of paper, or of which paper is a component material, not otherwise provided for; manufactures, articles, and wares of papier mache; manufactures of wood, or of which wood is a component part, not otherwise provided part; manufactures of wool, or of which wool shall be the component material of chief value, not otherwise provided for; medicinal preparations, not otherwise provided for; metallic pens; mineral waters; molasses; muskets, rifles, and other fire-arms; nuts, not otherwise provided for; oil-cloth of every description, of whatever material composed; ochres and ochry earths used in the composition of painter's colors, whether dry or ground in oil; oils, volatile, essential, or expressed, and not otherwise provided for; olive oil, in casks, other than salad oil; olive salad oil, and all other olive oil, not otherwise provided for; olives; paper, antiquarian, demy, drawing, elephant, foolscap, imperial, letter, and all other paper not otherwise provided for; paper boxes, and all other fancy boxes; paper envelopes; parasols and sunshades; parchment; pepper; plated and gilt ware

of all kinds; playing cards; plums; potatoes; red chalk pencils; saddlery of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; salmon, preserved; sewing silk, in the gum or purified; shoes composed wholly of India rubber; sealing wax; silk twist and twist composed of silk and mohair; side-arms of every description; silver-plated metal, in sheets or other form; soap, Castile, perfumed, Windsor, and all other kinds; sugar of all kinds; tobacco, unmanufactured; syrup of sugar; twines and pack-thread, of whatever material composed; umbrellas; vellum; vinegar; wafers; water colors; fire-wood, and wood unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for; wool, unmanufactured.

SCHEDULE D.

Buttons and button moulds, of all kinds; borax or tinctal; Burgundy pitch; calomel, and all other mercurial preparations; camphor, crude; feather beds, feathers for beds, and downs of all kinds; floss silks; grass cloth; hair cloth, hair seating, and all other manufactures of hair not otherwise provided for; jute, Sisal grass, coir, and other vegetable substances unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for; baizes, bockings, flannels, and floor-cloths, of whatever material composed, not otherwise provided for; cables and cordage, tarred or untarred; cotton laces, cotton insertings, cotton trimming laces, cotton laces and braids; manufactures composed wholly of cotton, not otherwise provided for; manufactures of goat's hair or mohair, or of which goat's hair or mohair shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for; matting, Chinese, and other floor matting and mats made of flags, jute, or grass; manufactures of silk, or of which silk shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for; manufactures of worsted, or of which worsted shall be a component material, not otherwise provided for; roofing slates, slates, other than roofing slates; woollen and worsted yarn.

SCHEDULE E.

Acids, acetic, acetous benzoic, boracic, chromic, citric, muriatic, white and yellow, nitric, pyroligneous and tartaric, and all other acids of every description, used for chemical or medicinal purposes, or for manufacturing, or in the fine arts, not otherwise provided for; aloes; Angora, Thibet, and other goat's-hair or mohair unmanufactured; cedar wood, ebony, granadilla, mahogany, rosewood, and satin wood, unmanufactured; cream of tartar; extract of indigo; extracts and decoctions of logwood and other dye-woods not otherwise provided for; extracts of madder; flax seed; green turtle; gunny cloth; alum; amber; ambergris; anisseed; animal carbon; antimony; crude and regulus of; arrow root; articles, not in a crude state, used in dyeing or tanning, not otherwise provided for; assafœtida; bacon; bananas; barley; beef; beeswax; berries, vegetables, flowers and barks, not otherwise provided for; bismuth; bitter apples; blankets of all kinds; blank books, bound or unbound; blue or Roman vitriol, or sulphate of copper; boards, planks, staves, lath, scantling, spars, hewn and sawed timber, and timber to be used in building wharves; bronze liquor; iron liquor; lac spirits; manna; marble in the rough slab or block, unmanufactured; Dutch and bronze metal in leaf; needles of all kinds for sewing, darning, or knitting; ozier or willow prepared for basket-makers' use; paving stones; paving and roofing tiles and bricks; boucho leaves; breccia; bronze powder; butter; cadmium; calamine; cantharides; caps, gloves, leggins, mits, socks, stockings, wove shirts and

drawers, made on frames, composed wholly of cotton, worn by men, women, and children; cassia buds; castor oil; castorum; chocolate; chromate of lead; chromate, bichromate, hydriodate, and prussiate of potash; cobalt; cocoa nuts; cocculus indicus; copperas or green vitriol, or sulphate of iron; copper rods, bolts, nails, and spikes; copper bottoms; plaster of Paris when ground; quicksilver; saffron and saffron cake; seppia; steel, all than otherwise provided for; copper in sheets or plates, called braziers' copper, and other sheets of copper not otherwise provided for; cubebs; dried pulps; emery; ether; felapar; fig blue; fish, foreign, whether fresh, smoked, salted, dried, or pickled, not otherwise provided for; fish glue or isinglass; fish skins; flour of sulphur; Frankfort black; French chalk; fruit, green or ripe, not otherwise provided for; fulminates, or fulminating powders; furs dressed on the skin; gamboge; glue; gunpowder; hair, curled, moss, sea-weed, and all other vegetable substances used for beds or mattresses; hams; hats of wool; hat bodies, made of wool, or of which wool shall be a component material of chief value; hatters' plush, composed of silk and cotton, but of which cotton is the component material of chief value; hemp seed or linseed, and rapeseed oil, and all other oils used in painting; Indian corn and corn meal, ipecacuanha; iridium; iris or orris root; ivory or bone black; jalap; juniper berries; lac sulphur, lamp black; lard; leather, tanned, bend, or sole; leather, upper of all kinds; lead, in pigs, bars, or sheets; leaden pipes; leaden shot; leeches; linens of all kinds; liquorice paste, juice, or root; litharge; malt; manganese; manufactures of flax, not otherwise provided for; manufactures of hemp, not otherwise provided for; marine coral, unmanufactured; medicinal drugs, roots, and leaves, in a crude state, not otherwise provided for; metals, unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for; mineral and bituminous substances, in a crude state, not otherwise provided for; musical instruments of all kinds, and strings for musical instruments of whip gut or catgut, and all other strings of the same material; nitrate of lead; oats and oatmeal; oils, neatsfoot and other animal oil, spermaceti, whale, and other fish oil, the produce of foreign fisheries; opium; oranges, lemons, and limes; orange and lemon peel; patent mordant; paints, dry or ground in oil, not otherwise provided for; paper hangings and paper for screens or fireboards; pearl or hulled barley; periodicals and other works in the course of printing and republication in the United States; pine apples; pitch; plantains; plumbago; pork; potassium; Prussian blue; pumpkins; putty; quills; red chalk; rhubarb; rice or paddy; roll brimstone; Roman cement; rye and rye flour; saddlery, common, tinned, or japanned; sago; sal soda, and all carbonates of soda, by whatever names designated, not otherwise provided for; salts, Epsom, glauber, Rochelle, and all other salts and preparations of salts, not otherwise provided for; sarsaparilla; shaddocks; sheathing paper; skins, tanned and dressed, of all kinds; skins of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; slate pencils; smalts; spermaceti candles and tapers; spirits of turpentine; sponges; spunk; squills; starch; stearine candles and tapers; stereotype plates; still bottoms; sulphate of barytes, crude or refined; sulphate of quinine; tallow candles; tapioca; tar; thread laces and insertings; type metal; types, new or old; vanilla beans; verdigris; velvet, in the piece, composed wholly of cotton; velvet, in the piece, composed of cotton and silk, but of which cotton is the component material of chief value; vermillion; wax candles and tapers; whalebone the produce of foreign fisheries; wheat and wheat flour; white and red

lead; whiting, or Paris white; white vitriol, or sulphate of zinc; window glass, broad, crown, or cylinder, woollen listings, yams.

SCHEDULE F.

Arsenic bark, Peruvian; bark Quilla; Brazil paste, brimstone, crude in bulk; cork tree bark, unmanufactured; codilla, or tow of hemp or flax, diamonds, glaziers, set or not set; dragons blood; flax, unmanufactured, gold and silver leaf; mineral kermes; silk, raw, not more advanced in manufacture than singles tram and thrown or organzine; terne tin plates tin foil; tin in plates or sheets; tin plates galvanised, not otherwise provided for; steel in bars; cast, shear, or German; zinc, spelter, or tutenegue, in sheets.

SCHEDULE G.

Ammonia; anatto, rancon or Orleans; barilla; books printed, magazines, pamphlets, periodicals and illustrated newspapers, bound or unbound, not otherwise provided for; bleaching powders or chloride of lime; building stones; burr stones, wrought or unwrought; cameos and mosaics, and imitations thereof, not set; chronometers, box or ships, and parts thereof; cocoa, cochineal; cocoa shells, compositions of glass or paste, not set; cudbear; diamonds, gems, pearls, rubies, and other precious stones, and imitations thereof, when not set; engravings or plates, bound or unbound; hempseed, linseed and rapeseed, fullers' earth; furs, hatters', dressed or undressed, not on the skin; furs, undressed when on the skin; goldbeaters' skins; gum Arabic; gum Senegal; gum Tragacanth; gum Barbary; gum East India; gum Jedda; gum substitute or burnt starch; indigo; kelp; natron; terra japonica or catechu; hair of all kinds, uncleaned and unmanufactured; India rubber, in bottles, slabs or sheets, unmanufactured; lemon and lime juice; lime; maps and charts; music and music paper, with lines, bound or unbound; nux vomica; oils, palm and cocoanut; orpiment; palm leaf, unmanufactured; polishing stones; pumice and pumice stone; rattans and reeds, unmanufactured; rotten stone; sal ammonia; salt-petre, (or nitrate of soda, or potash,) refined or partially refined; soda ash, sulphuric acid, or oil of vitriol; tallow, marrow, and all other grease and soap stocks and soap stuffs, not otherwise provided for; watches and parts of watches; watch materials of all kinds, not otherwise provided for; woad or pastel.

SCHEDULE H.

Alcornoque, argol, or crude tartar; bells when old, or bell metal, fit only to be remanufactured; brass in pigs or bars; Brazil wood, and all other dye-woods in sticks; brass, when old, and fit only to be remanufactured; bristles; chalk, not otherwise provided for; clay, unwrought; copper in pigs or bars; copper, when old, and fit only to be remanufactured; flints; grindstones, wrought or unwrought; berries, nuts, and vegetables used exclusively in dyeing, or in composing dyes, but no article shall be classed as such that has undergone any manufacture; ivory, unmanufactured; ivory nuts, or vegetable ivory; madder root; nutgalls, pearl, mother of; lastings, suitable for shoes, boots, bootees, or buttons, exclusively; manufactures of mohair cloth, silk twist, or other manufactures of cloth, suitable for the manufacture of shoes, boots, bootees, or buttons exclusively; horns, horn-tips, bones, bone-tips, and teeth, unmanufactured;

kermes; lac dye; lac spirits; madder, ground; nickel; pewter, when old, and fit only to be remanufactured; rags, of whatever material; raw hides and skins of all kinds, whether dried, salted, or pickled, not otherwise provided for; safflower; saltpetre, or nitrate of soda, or potash, when crude; seedlac; shellac; sumac; tin in pigs, bars or blocks; tortois and other shells unmanufactured; tumeric; waste, or shoddy; weld; zinc, spelter, or teutenegue, unmanufactured, not otherwise provided for.

SCHEDULE I.

Animals imported for breed; bullion, gold and silver; cabinets of coins, medals, and other collections of antiquities; coffee and tea when imported direct from the place of their growth or production, in American vessels, or in foreign vessels entitled by reciprocal treaties to be exempt from discriminating duties, tonnage, and other charges; coffee, the growth or production of the possessions of the Netherlands, imported from the Netherlands in the same manner; coins, gold, silver and copper; copper ore; copper when imported for the United States Mint; cotton; felt, adhesive, for sheathing; garden seeds, and all other seeds not otherwise provided for; goods, wares, and merchandise, the growth, produce or manufacture of the United States exported to a foreign country, and brought back to the United States in the same condition as when exported, upon which no drawback or bounty has been allowed: *Provided*, that all the regulations to ascertain the identity thereof, prescribed by existing laws, or which may be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, shall be complied with; guano; household effects, old and in use, of persons or families from foreign countries, if used abroad by them, and not intended for any other person or persons, or for sale; junk, old; models of inventions and other improvement in the arts; *Provided*, That no article or articles shall be deemed a model or improvement which can be fitted for use; oakum; oil, spermaciti, whale and other fish, of American fisheries, and all other articles the produce of such fisheries; paintings and statuary, the production of American artists residing abroad, and all other paintings and statuary: *Provided*, The same be imported in good faith as objects of taste, and not of merchandise; personal household effects (not merchandise) of citizens of the United States dying abroad; plaster of Paris, unground platina, unmanufactured; sheathing copper, but no copper to be considered such, and admitted free, except in sheets forty-eight inches long and fourteen inches wide, and weighing from fourteen to thirty-four ounces the square foot; sheathing metal; specimens of natural history, mineralogy, or botany; trees, shrubs, bulbs, plants, and roots, not otherwise provided for; wearing apparel in actual use, and other personal effects, not merchandise, professional books, instruments, implements, and tools of trade, occupation, or employment, of persons arriving in the United States; *Provided*, That this exemption shall not be construed to include machinery or other articles imported for use in any manufacturing establishment or for sale.

THE WAREHOUSING BILL.

A BILL TO AMEND AN ACT ENTITLED "AN ACT TO PROVIDE REVENUE FROM IMPORTS, AND TO CHANGE AND MODIFY EXISTING LAWS IMPOSING DUTIES ON IMPORTS, AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the twelfth section of the act entitled "An act to provide revenue from imports, and to change and modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes," approved the thirtieth day of August, one thousand eight hundred and forty-two, is hereby amended so as hereafter to read as follows:—[SEC. 12] *And be it further enacted*, That, on and after the day this act goes into operation, the duties on all imported goods, wares, or merchandise shall be paid in cash: *Provided*, That in all cases of failure or neglect to pay the duties within the period allowed by law to the importer to make entry thereof, or whenever the owner, importer, or consignee shall make entry for warehousing the same in writing, in such form and supported by such proof as shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, the said goods, wares, or merchandise shall be taken possession of by the collector, and deposited in the public stores, or in other stores to be agreed on by the collector or chief revenue officer of the port and the importer, owner, or consignee, the said stores to be secured in the manner provided for by the first section of the act of the twentieth day of April, one thousand eight hundred and eighteen, entitled "An act providing for the deposite of wines and distilled spirits in public warehouses, and for other purposes," there to be kept with due and reasonable care, at the charge and risk of the owner, importer, consignee, or agent, and subject at all times to their order upon the payment of the proper duties and expenses, to be ascertained on due entry for warehousing thereof, and to be secured by a bond of the owner, importer or consignee, with surety or sureties to the satisfaction of the Collector, in double the amount of the said duties, and in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe: *Provided*, That no merchandise shall be withdrawn from any warehouse in which it may be deposited, in less quantity than in an entire package, bale, cask, or box, unless in bulk; nor shall merchandise so imported in bulk, be delivered except in the whole quantity of each parcel, or in a quantity not less than one ton weight, unless by special authority of the Secretary of the Treasury. And in case the owner, importer, consignee, or agent of any goods on which the duties have not been paid, shall give to the collector satisfactory security that the said goods shall be landed out of the jurisdiction of the United States, in the manner now required by existing laws relating to exportations for the benefit of drawback, the collector and naval officer, if any, on an entry to re-export the same, shall, upon payment of the appropriate expenses, permit the said goods, under the inspection of the proper officers, to be shipped without the payment of any duties thereon. And in case any goods, wares, or merchandise, deposited as aforesaid, shall remain in public store beyond one year, without payment of the duties and charges thereon, then said goods, wares, or merchandise shall be appraised by the appraisers of the United States, if there be any at such port, and if none, then by two merchants to be designated and sworn by the collector for that purpose, and sold by the collector at public auction, on due public notice thereof being first given, in the manner and for the time to be prescribed by a general regulation of the Treasury Department; and at said public sale distinct printed catalogues descriptive of said goods, with the appraised value affixed thereto, shall be distributed among the persons present at said sale; and a reasonable opportunity shall be given before such sale, to persons desirous of purchasing, to inspect the quality of such goods; and the proceeds of said sales, after deducting the usual rate of storage at the port in question, with all other charges and expenses, including duties, shall be paid over to the owner, importer, consignee, or agent, and proper receipts taken for the same: *Provided*, That the overplus, if any there be, of the proceeds of such sales, after the payment of storage, charges, expenses, and duties as aforesaid, remaining unclaimed for the space of ten days after such sales, shall be paid by the collector into the treasury of the United States; and the said collector shall transmit to the Treasury Department, with the said over-

plus, a copy of the inventory, appraisement, and account of sales, specifying the marks, numbers, and descriptions of the packages sold, their contents and appraised value, the name of the vessel and master in which, and of the port or place whence they were imported, and the time when and the name of the person or persons to whom said goods were consigned in the manifest, and the duties and charges to which the several consignments were respectively subject; and the receipt or certificate of the collector shall exonerate the master or person having charge or command of any ship or vessel, in which said goods, wares, or merchandise were imported, from all claim of the owner or owners thereof, who shall nevertheless, on due proof of their interest, be entitled to receive from the treasury the amount of any overplus paid into the same under the provisions of this act: *Provided*, That so much of the fifty-sixth section of the general collection law of the second of March, seventeen hundred and ninety-nine, and the thirteenth section of the act of the thirtieth of August, eighteen hundred and forty-two, to provide revenue from imports, and to change and modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes, as conflicts with the provisions of this act, shall be, and is hereby repealed, excepting that nothing contained in this act shall be construed to extend the time now prescribed by law for selling unclaimed goods: *Provided, also*, That all goods of a perishable nature, and all gunpowder, fire-crackers, and explosive substances, deposited as aforesaid, shall be sold forthwith.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That any goods, when deposited in the public stores in the manner provided for in the foregoing section, may be withdrawn therefrom and transported to any other port of entry, under the restrictions provided for in the act of the second March, seventeen hundred and ninety-nine, in respect to the transportation of goods, wares, and merchandise from one collection district to another, to be exported with the benefit of drawback; and the owner of such goods so to be withdrawn for transportation, shall give his bond with sufficient sureties, in double the amount of the duties chargeable on them for the deposite of such goods in store in the port of entry to which they shall be destined, such bond to be cancelled when the goods shall be re-deposited in store in the collection district to which they shall be transported: *Provided*, That nothing contained in this section shall be construed to extend the time during which goods may be kept in store, after their original importation and entry beyond the term of one year. And it shall be the duty of the Secretary to report such regulations to each succeeding Session of Congress.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That if any warehoused goods shall be fraudulently concealed in, or removed from any public or private warehouse, the same shall be forfeited to the United States; and all persons convicted of fraudulently concealing or removing such goods, or of aiding or abetting such concealment or removal, shall be liable to the same penalties which are now imposed for the fraudulent introduction of goods into the United States; and if any importer or proprietor of any warehoused goods, or any person in his employ, shall by any contrivance fraudulently open the warehouse or shall gain access to the goods, except in the presence of the proper officer of the customs, acting in the execution of his duty, such importer or proprietor shall forfeit and pay for every such offence one thousand dollars. And any person convicted of altering, defacing, or obliterating any mark or marks which have been placed by any officer of the revenue on any package or packages of warehoused goods, shall forfeit and pay, for every such offence, five hundred dollars.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the Collectors of the several ports of the United States shall make quarterly reports to the Secretary of the Treasury, according to such general instructions as the said Secretary may give, of all goods which remain in the warehouses of their respective ports, specifying the quantity and description of the same; which returns, or tables formed thereon, the Secretary of the Treasury shall forthwith cause to be published in the principal papers of the City of Washington.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby, authorized to make, from time to time, such regulations, not inconsistent with the laws of the United States, as may be necessary to give full effect to the provisions of this act, and secure a just accountability under the same.

Approved, August 6, 1846.

CIRCULAR TO THE COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS, IN RELATION TO THE WAREHOUSING SYSTEM.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Aug. 14, 1846.

The following instructions and forms are transmitted for the information and government of the officers of the customs in carrying into effect the provisions of the annexed Act of Congress, approved 6th August, 1846, entitled "An Act to establish a warehousing system, and to amend 'An Act to provide revenue from imports and to change and modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes.'" Approved 30th August, 1842.

It is to be remarked, that goods, wares, or merchandise entitled to entry for warehousing, are such only as shall have been actually imported after the passage of the Act "reducing the duty on imports and for other purposes," approved 30th July, 1846, vide 6th section. All goods, wares, or merchandise, imported prior to 30th July, 1846, yet on deposite in public store, the duties on which have not been paid, are subject to the payment of the duty and charges imposed by the Tariff Act of 30th August, 1842.

Where owners, importers, consignees, or agents desire to warehouse their goods, due entry in writing must be made in each case, according to the form accompanying these instructions, marked A, and a bond taken with surety or sureties to the satisfaction of the collector, in double the amount of the dues, according to form marked B.

In making entry of any goods, wares, or merchandise to be warehoused, all acts necessary to determine their exact quantity, quality, and original cost, and dutiable value, such as appraising, weighing, gauging or measuring, in order to ascertain the precise amount of duty chargeable on the importation, must be performed and complied with.

Any goods, wares, or merchandise, proposed to be withdrawn from warehouse for home consumption, prior to the second day of December next, the day on which the new rate of duties take effect under the Act of 30th July last, must be entered, and the duties, with interest and other charges imposed by the Act of 30th August, 1842, must be duly paid before granting permit for the delivery of any such goods, wares, or merchandise. Due regard must be paid to there strictions imposed in the Act, in the withdrawal of merchandise from warehouse, to wit: in no case "a less quantity than an entire package, bale, cask, or box," or if in bulk, then only "the whole quantity of each parcel, or a quantity not less than one ton weight, unless by the special authority of the Secretary of the Treasury," can be withdrawn and delivered.

Where it is intended to withdraw any goods, wares, or merchandise, from warehouse for transportation to any other port of entry to be re-warehoused thereat, in pursuance of the second section of the Act of 6th August, to establish a warehousing system, twenty-four hours' notice at least must be given to the collector of such intention, and entry be made according to form C, and the transportation is to be made under the regulations provided in the act of 2d March, 1799, in respect to the transportation of goods, wares and merchandise, from one collection district to another, to be exported with the benefit of drawback. Hence goods may be transported from any port of entry to any other port of entry in the United States, subject to the regulations prescribed by the before-mentioned Act.

On making a transportation entry, a bond must be given by the owner of the merchandise to be withdrawn for transportation, with sufficient sureties in double the amount of the duties chargeable thereon, according to form herewith marked B; which bond is to be cancelled on production of a certificate, duly authenticated, from the collector of the port to which the goods may be transported, certifying that the identical goods, stated in the transportation certificate, have been duly entered and re-warehoused in public store, in his collection district, and bond given for the duties.

On the withdrawal of any such goods from warehouse at any port, the storage and other charges that may have accrued thereon must be duly paid. On re-deposite or re-warehousing of any transported goods as aforesaid, due entry must be made and bonds taken in the forms herewith marked E and F.

For the purpose of distinguishing goods which may have paid duty under the new Tariff Act, which goes into operation on the second day of December next, that may be withdrawn for consumption after said day, and entitled to drawback, if exported within the time prescribed by law, from other imports on which duty was paid under the Tariff Act of 30th August, 1842, it became proper that suitable marks should be placed on all goods that may be withdrawn as aforesaid, to identify the same, so as to prevent mistake or imposition in the allowance of drawback.

Goods, wares, or merchandise entered for warehousing must be conveyed from the vessel, or wharf, where landed, to the warehouse, under the special superintendence of an inspector of the customs, in drays, carts, or other usual mode of conveyance, to be employed on public account, by the proper officer of the customs, and the expense al

the rates usually paid for such service at the port in question, is to be defrayed at the time by the person who enters said goods, wares, or merchandise, for warehousing. In case where goods, wares, or merchandise imported after the passage of the Act of the 30th July, 1846, are intended to be exported directly from warehouse to a foreign country, entry must be made according to form herewith marked G, and bond given, according to form H, and such exportation be otherwise made in the manner now required by existing laws, relating to exportations for the benefit of drawback. In all such cases the appropriate expenses are to be paid before granting permit for exportation.

All stores used for warehousing purposes are to be rented by the collector on public account, and paid for as such, and appropriated exclusively to the storage of foreign merchandise, which is to be subject to the usual rates of storage existing at the respective ports where such stores may be hired or rented. Appropriate warehouses must be provided for goods of a perishable nature, as well as for gun-powder, fire-crackers, and explosive substances, having due respect to existing municipal regulations.

For warehousing of coal, woods of various kinds, &c.—Yards well enclosed and secured to the satisfaction of the collector, may be hired or rented and the u... rates for storage are to be charged on all articles deposited therein. Care must be observed by collectors in renting stores to select those of a substantial and secure character, and fire-proof where they can be obtained, and the rents stipulated for must be as reasonable as can be procured. Before entering into any lease of stores, the opinion and approval of the Department must first be obtained.

Where any goods, duly warehoused, shall remain in store beyond one year, without payment of the duties and charges thereon, which in pursuance of the Act are required to be appraised and sold, the department hereby prescribes that all such sales shall take place within thirty days after the expiration of the year, and due notice of such sales must be published in two or more of the public newspapers having the most extensive circulation at the port in question, daily at the principal ports for the space of ten days, and at the other ports three times a week, or as often as one or more papers may be published thereat, for the space of two weeks. But as the law provides that "all goods of a perishable nature, and all gun-powder, fire-crackers, and explosive substances deposited as aforesaid, shall be sold forthwith," they must be sold at the earliest day practicable, after due publication of notice, and time given for inspection by persons desirous of purchasing the same.

The quarterly returns required by the 4th section of the Act will be made according to the form herein marked I.

R. J. WALKER,
Secretary of the Treasury.

AN ACT,

FOR

THE ALLOWANCE OF DRAWBACK ON FOREIGN MERCHANDISE,

Imported into certain districts of the United States,

FROM

THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN PROVINCES

And exported to Foreign Countries

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That any merchandise imported from the British North American Provinces adjoining the United States, which shall have been duly entered and the duties thereon paid or secured, according to law, at either of the ports of entry in the collection districts situated in the northern, north-eastern, and north-western portions of the United States, may be transported by land or by water, or partly by land and partly by water, to any port or ports from which merchandise may, under existing laws, be exported for the benefit of drawback, and be thence exported with such privilege to any foreign country: *Provided*, That such exportations shall be made within one year from the date of importation of said merchandise, and that existing laws relating to the transportation of merchandise entitled to drawback from one district to another, or to two other districts, and the due exportation and proof of landing thereof, and all regulations which the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe for the security of the revenue shall be complied with.

Approved August 8th, 1846.

AN ACT TO EXEMPT CANAL BOATS FROM THE PAYMENT OF FEES AND HOSPITAL MONEY.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That the owner or owners, master or captain, or other persons employed in navigating canal boats without masts or steam power, now by law required to be registered, licensed, or enrolled and licensed, shall not be required to pay any marine hospital tax or money; nor shall the persons employed to navigate such boats receive any benefit or advantage from the marine hospital fund; nor shall such owner or owners, master or captain, or other persons be required to pay fees, or make any compensation for such register, license, or enrollment and license, nor shall any such boat be subject to be libelled in any of the United States courts for the wages of any person or persons who may be employed on board thereof, or in navigating the same.

Sec 2. And be it further enacted, That all acts and parts of acts repugnant to the provisions of this Act, be and the same are hereby repealed.

Approved, August, 1846.

CIRCULAR TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF THE CUSTOMS IN RELATION TO DRAWBACK.

Treasury Department,
September 9th, 1846.

I have to call the attention of the officers of the customs generally, and more particularly those of certain mentioned districts on the frontiers of the United States, to the provisions of the annexed Act of Congress, approved the 8th of August, 1846, "For the allowance of drawback on foreign merchandise imported into certain districts of the United States, from the British North American provinces, and exported to foreign countries."

It is to be observed that the Act allows drawback on any merchandise imported from the British North American provinces adjoining the United States, which shall have been duly entered and the duties paid or secured according to law, at either of the ports of entry in the collection districts situated in the northern, north-eastern, and north-western portions of the United States, and authorizes such merchandise to be transported by land or by water, or partly by land and partly by water, to any port or ports from which merchandise may, under existing laws, be exported for the benefit of drawback and be thence exported with such privileges to any foreign country. All such goods are, however, required to be exported within one year from the date of importation.—Where goods are entered and the duties paid at the port of arrival on the frontiers referred to, and intended to be transported for exportation from another port, such transportation must be made in conformity with existing laws regulating the transportation of merchandise for benefit of drawback. In granting debenture in these cases, a deduction of 2 1-2 per cent. must be made from the drawback.

It is moreover to be observed, that any dutiable merchandise imported into the ports referred to, from the adjoining British provinces, is entitled to all the privileges and benefits granted by the warehousing act of the 6th of August, 1846, if the importers choose to avail themselves of said privileges and benefits. Consequently any such merchandise not entered for consumption, may be warehoused at either of the said ports, and be subsequently withdrawn therefrom for transportation to other ports of entry, to be re-warehoused thereat, and be exported *directly* from such warehouse to any foreign port on payment only of storage and expenses. In all such cases, therefore, the regulations and forms prescribed in the Circular issued by the department under date of the 14th ult., for the government of the officers of the customs, in carrying into effect the Warehousing Act, must be strictly complied with.

Any articles of merchandise subject to ad valorem duty imported into the frontier ports before referred to, which are not of the growth, manufacture, or production of the British provinces alluded to in the act, must pay duty upon "the current market value or wholesale price of similar articles at the principal markets of the country of production or manufacture at the period of the exportation of said goods, wares, and merchandise, to the United States." To this value is to be added all costs and charges, except insurance, and including, in every case, a charge for commissions at the usual rates.

For the appraisement of merchandise at ports where there are not legal appraisers, the appraisement is to be made in the manner indicated in the 16th section of the Act of 1st March, 1823, to wit: by two respectable resident merchants of the port, duly appointed by the collector for the purpose, to receive for their services while actually employed on that duty, a compensation of five dollars per diem, each, as authorized by the 17th section of the same Act.

It is specially enjoined upon the officers of the customs at ports to which merchandise may be transported under this Act, either for exportation therefrom to a foreign port for benefit of drawback, or to be re-warehoused thereat, and especially in the case of foreign spirits and wines, to have such merchandise carefully inspected and examined, to ascertain that the packages, boxes, casks, &c., contain the identical articles described in the transportation certificate accompanying the same, without diminution or change of the article in any respect having taken place during the transportation.

R. J. WALKER,
Secretary of the Treasury.

AN ACT,

ALLOWING DRAWBACK UPON FOREIGN MERCHANDISE,

EXPORTED IN THE ORIGINAL PACKAGES

To Chihuahua and Santa Fe, in Mexico,

AND

TO THE BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN PROVINCES, ADJOINING THE UNITED STATES.

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled*, That any imported merchandise which has been entered, and the duties paid or secured according to law, for drawback, may be exported to Chihuahua, in Mexico, or Santa Fé, in New Mexico, either by the route of the Arkansas river, through Van Buren, or by the route of the Red river through Fulton, or by the route of the Missouri river through Independence.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That all the merchandise so exported shall be in the original packages as imported, a true invoice whereof, signed by the exporter, shall be made, to the satisfaction of the collector, describing accurately each package with its contents and all the marks upon it, exclusive of the name of the exporter, the place of destination, and the route by which it is to be exported; all which shall be inscribed thereon, upon which invoice the collector shall certify that he is fully convinced the same is true, that the goods are in the original packages as imported, that they are duly entered for drawback, and be exported by the owner, (naming him), to either of the places aforesaid, (naming it,) and by one of the aforesaid routes, (naming it,)

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That upon the arrival of such goods at either of the places in Arkansas or Missouri above named, they shall be again inspected and compared with the invoice and certificate aforesaid, by an officer of the United States, who shall, if fully convinced that the several packages are identical, having remained unbroken and unchanged, also certify on said invoice the facts, in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That upon the arrival of any such goods at Santa Fé or Chihuahua, they, with the invoice and certificates aforesaid, shall be submitted to the inspection of the Consul of the United States, or such agent as the President may appoint for that purpose; who, if fully convinced thereof, shall, in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe, certify upon said invoice that the goods have arrived there in the original packages as imported, without change or alteration, and have been exported from the United States in good faith, to be disposed of and consumed in a foreign country.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That if the exporter shall give bond, with satisfactory sureties, in thrice the amount of duties, that the said merchandise by him exported has been delivered at either of the places aforesaid without the United States, in good faith, to be sold and consumed there, and shall also produce said invoice, with the regular certificates thereon, the collector shall thereupon pay to him the usual drawback allowed by law.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury shall appoint inspectors to reside at each of the following places, to wit: Van Buren, Fulton, and Independence, above named, or such other place in Missouri as the Secretary of the Treasury shall designate; who shall each have a salary of two hundred and fifty dollars, and make a full report of all the trade that passes under their inspection, to the Secretary of the Treasury, semi-annually, giving an account of the number of packages, the kind of goods, the value, and the names of the exporters.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That any imported merchandise which has been entered, and the duties paid or secured according to law, for drawback, may be exported to the British North American Provinces adjoining the United States; and the ports of Plattsburg, in the District of Champlain; Burlington, in the District of Vermont;

Sacketts Harbor, Oswego, and Ogdensburgh, in the District of Oswegatchie; Rochester, in the District of Genesee; Buffalo and Erie, in the District of Presqu'isle; Cleveland, in the District of Cuyahoga; Sandusky and Detroit, together with such ports on the seaboard from which merchandise may now be imported, for the benefit of drawback are hereby declared ports from which foreign goods, wares, and merchandise, on which the import duty has been paid, or secured to be paid, may be exported to ports in the adjoining British Provinces, and to which ports, foreign goods, wares, and merchandise may be transported inland, or by water from the port of original importation, under existing provisions of law, to be thence exported for the benefit of drawback; *Provided*, That such other ports situated on the frontiers of the United States, adjoining the British North American Provinces, as may hereafter be found expedient, may have extended to them the like privileges, on the recommendation of the Secretary of the Treasury, and proclamation duly made by the President of the United States, specially designating the ports to which the aforesaid privileges are to be extended.

Sec. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That all laws now in force in relation to the allowance of drawback of duties upon goods imported into the United States and exported therefrom, and in relation to the conditions and evidence on which such drawback is to be paid, shall be applicable to the drawback allowed by this Act. And, in addition to existing provisions on the subject, to entitle exporters of goods to the drawback allowed by this Act, they shall produce to the collector of the port from which such goods, wares and merchandise were exported, the certificate, under seal of the collector or other chief revenue officer of the port to which the said goods, wares, and merchandise were exported in the said adjoining provinces; which certificate shall be endorsed upon a duplicate or certified copy of the manifest granted at the time of such exportation, and shall state that the same identical goods contained in the said manifest had been landed at such foreign port, and duly entered at the custom-house there, and that the duties imposed by the laws in force at such port upon the said goods had been paid, or secured to be paid, in full; and the said exporters shall also produce the affidavit of the master of the vessel in which the said goods were exported, that the same identical goods specified in the manifest, granted at the time of such exportation, had been carried to the port named in the clearance or manifest, and had been landed and entered at the custom-house, and that the duties imposed thereon, at the said foreign port, had been paid, or secured to be paid; and that the goods referred to in the certificate of the collector or chief revenue officer of such foreign port herein mentioned, were the same identical goods described in the manifest aforesaid, and in the said affidavit.

Sec. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That no goods, wares or merchandise, exported according to the provisions of this Act shall be voluntary landed or brought into the United States; and on being so landed, or brought into the United States, they shall be forfeited; and the same proceeding shall be had for their condemnation, and the distribution of the proceeds of their sales, as in other cases of forfeiture of goods illegally imported. And every person concerned in the voluntary landing or bringing such goods into the United States shall be liable to a penalty of four hundred dollars.

Sec. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That from the amount of duties upon any goods, wares, and merchandise imported into the United States, and which shall be exported according to the provisions of this Act, there shall be deducted two and a half per centum of such amount, which shall be retained by the respective collectors for the United States, and the residue only shall be the brawback to be paid to the exporter of such goods wares and merchandise.

Sec. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby further authorized to prescribe such rules and regulations, not inconsistent with the laws of the United States, as he may deem necessary to carry into effect the provisions of this Act, and to prevent the illegal re-importation of any goods, wares, or merchandise which shall have been exported as herein provided; and that all the Acts or parts of Acts inconsistent with the provisions of this Act be, and the same are, hereby repealed.

Approved, March 3d, 1845.

CIRCULAR INSTRUCTIONS TO COLLECTORS OF THE CUSTOMS.

Treasury Department, *April 10th*, 1845.

Herewith you will receive an Act entitled "An act allowing drawback upon foreign merchandise exported in the original packages to Chihuahua and Santa Fé, in Mexico, and to the British North American provinces adjoining the United States," approved 3d March, 1845, accompanied with forms and instructions for carrying the same into execution.

The first six sections of the Act apply to the exportation of merchandise, "in the original packages as imported" to Chihuahua, in Mexico, or Santa Fé, in New Mexico, either by the route of the Arkansas River through Van Buren, or by the route of the

Red river through Fulton, or by the route of the Missouri River through Independence. Consequently foreign imported merchandise exported or conveyed to the places in Mexico, or New Mexico, mentioned, by any other routes than those indicated in the Act, will not be entitled to a drawback of the import duties. It is also to be remarked, that the exportation of merchandise by the routes and to the places before mentioned can only be made from the *original port of importation.*

In pursuance of the authority vested in the Secretary of the Treasury, by the 11th section of the Act, the following rules, regulations, and forms, are prescribed, and are to be strictly observed.

First. In regard to the exportation of merchandise to Chihuahua and Santa Fé.

On first giving twenty-four hours notice at the Custom-house, of intention to export, the exporter must make due entry, and for that purpose must produce the invoice required by the 2d section of the Act. Said entry must recite the invoice in detail, and in addition give a particular description of the merchandise, whence and by whom imported, the name of the vessel and the time of importation, with the original invoice value of the goods; and also state the destination and route by which the merchandise is to be transported. The entry must in all cases be verified by the oath or affirmation of the person making the same, together with the oath or affirmation of the first importer, with that of any person through whose hands the merchandise may have passed, declaring the same to be in the original package or packages, and that the duties have been paid or secured. Inspection of the packages should also be carefully made by a proper officer of the customs at the time of making entry. The bond required by the 5th section of the Act must be given by the exporter.

In consideration of the large inland transportation and the consequent risk of injury and defacing the marks on the packages, thereby rendering it difficult to identify them, it is deemed proper for the more effectual security of the revenue, to require that each package shall be enclosed in a secure wooden box or covering, on which the same marks and numbers are to be placed as those on the inner package. The inner package is to be secured with a strong cord or rope, with the Custom-house seal attached.

Second—The remaining sections of the Act apply to the exportation of merchandise for benefit of drawback to the British North American provinces adjoining the United States, and enumerate certain ports, "declared ports from which foreign goods, wares, and merchandise, on which the import duty has been paid or secured to be paid, may be exported to ports in the adjoining British Provinces, and to which ports foreign goods, wares, and merchandise, may be transported inland or by water, from the port of original importation under existing provisions of law to be thence exported for benefit of drawback."

The course to be pursued in the transportation inland of foreign merchandise in the original packages as imported, to the designated ports of *exportation* enumerated in the 7th section of the Act, is to be similar to that prescribed in the 79th section of the general collection Act of 2d March, 1799, and all the legal requirements and forms of law must be strictly pursued, in cases arising under this Act.

In the exportation by sea to ports in the adjoining British provinces, all existing requisitions of law, regulating the exportation of merchandise to foreign ports, for the benefit of drawback, must be fully complied with.

On the arrival of merchandise transported inland at either of the enumerated ports of *exportation*, a strict and thorough inspection of the same must be made by an officer of the customs, to see that the goods are identical with those described in the accompanying transportation certificate, granted by the collector of the port from whence they may have been originally transported.

In the event of any detention of the merchandise, at the port of *exportation*, for any cause, said merchandise must be deposited either in the custom-house, or some secure store-house, to be selected by the collector, the keys of which must be lodged in his hands. Any expense for storage must be defrayed by the owner or consignee of the goods. Before exporting the goods to their destined port in the adjoining British Provinces, entry must be made according to the forms herewith, marked E and F.

On the return of the manifest with the certificates thereon, in due form, to the collector of the port of exportation, it must be immediately transmitted to the collector of the district and port from whence the goods were originally transported, in order that the drawback of the duties may be duly paid by the collector of said port.

It is to be specially noted, that the law contemplating the probable retention of the original manifest at the foreign Custom-house, requires *a duplicate or certified copy* of the same to be granted at the time of exportation, on which is to be endorsed the certificate of the foreign collector, and also the oath or affirmation of the master.

R. J. WALKER, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

CIRCULAR TO COLLECTORS AND OTHER OFFICERS OF CUSTOMS.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *August 25th*, 1846.

The Department has been asked by merchants whether foreign goods, wares, and merchandise, on which the import duty has been paid, can be entered for exportation for benefit of drawback, and shipped to a foreign port and there landed, but with the intention of being brought back and *relanded* in the United States, and entry made of the same goods at the rates of duty imposed by the Tariff Act of the 30th July, 1846.

As this subject has heretofore received the consideration and decision of the Department, and instructions duly issued in accordance therewith, it is deemed proper at this time to recapitulate former instructions, and enjoin upon the respective officers of the Customs, a strict conformity therewith.

In a circular issued by the First Comptroller, under date of the 15th of November, 1830, with the concurrence of the then Secretary of the Treasury, the following decision is communicated for the government of the officers of the Customs, viz: "It has been supposed by some merchants, that when the duty on a certain article is reduced by law, nothing more is necessary, in order to obtain the benefit of the reduction on previous importations of it, than merely to comply with the *forms* of entering and shipping it *for the benefit of drawback*, without any intention whatever of selling, or even landing it at a foreign port, and then bringing it back to the United States and entering it at the low rate of duty." "Such a course, however, is considered to be totally irreconcileable with the oath which the 76th section of the collection law of 2d March, 1799, requires the exporter to take, and which is in the following words: 'And the said exporter, or exporters, shall likewise make oath, that the said goods, so noticed for exportation, and laden on board such ship or vessel previous to the clearance thereof, or within ten days (twenty days allowed by the 2d section of the Act of 18th April, 1820), after such clearance, *are truly intended to be exported to the place whereof notice shall have been given, and are not intended to be re-landed within the United States.*'"

In a more recent Circular from the Department, dated the 29th of July, 1845, in reference to Texas, but deemed specially applicable to the question now under consideration, the views and directions of the Department are more specifically given in the following extracts therefrom, to wit:

"By the 80th section of the Act of Congress of the 2d of March, 1799, it is provided:—'That the Collector aforesaid may refuse to grant such debenture or debentures, in case it shall appear to him that any error has arisen, or any fraud has been committed, and in case of such refusal, if the debenture or debentures claimed shall exceed one hundred dollars, it shall be the duty of the said Collector to represent the case to the Comptroller of the Treasury, who shall determine whether such debenture or debentures shall be granted or not.' An entry for drawback, with a view to re-importation, free of all duty, into the United States, is a fraud within the meaning of this Act; and in all such cases, it is the duty of the collector to refuse the debenture certificate. In all cases where the debenture shall not exceed one hundred dollars, the Collector will judge for himself, whether such fraud as is before designated is contemplated; and, in the language of the law, 'if the debenture or debentures claimed shall exceed one hundred dollars, it shall be the duty of the said Collector to represent the case to the Comptroller of the Treasury, who shall determine whether such debenture or debentures shall be granted or not.'

"By the 76th section of the Act of 2d March, 1799, it is provided as follows:—'And the said exporter or exporters shall likewise make oath that the said goods, so noticed for exportation, and laden on board such ship or vessel, previous to the clearance thereof, or within ten days after such clearance, are truly intended to be exported to the place whereof notice shall have been given, *and are not intended to be re-landed within the United States*, otherwise, the said goods, wares and merchandise shall not be entitled to the benefit of drawback.'

"If, then, in point of fact, the goods thus exported to Texas, are intended 'to be relanded within the United States,' they are not entitled to drawback, and if re-landed, are subject to seizure and forfeiture, as well as the vessel in which they are thus introduced.

"Great vigilance will be required in obtaining ample security upon all exported bonds, as those bonds may not be cancelled in any case of exportation of goods to Texas with the privilege of drawback, until the numerous and important questions arising under such bonds shall have been finally adjudicated.

"You will in no case omit to publish in the newspapers, as now required by law, the names of all persons who shall be found guilty of the violations of the revenue laws therein prescribed, as well as to seize for forfeiture the goods, vessel, tackle, apparel, and furniture in all such cases."

It must be obvious from the foregoing, that the oath prescribed by law, could not be taken by an exporter, and the goods so exported be *re-landed* into the United States without subjecting said exporter to the penalties prescribed for perjury, and the goods to forfeiture.

An entry for drawback, with a view to the re-importation of the goods at the lower duty, into the United States, is a fraud within the meaning of the 80th section before quoted, of the Act of March 2, 1799, and in all such cases, it is the duty of the collector to refuse the debenture certificate, or pursue the course indicated in the Circular before quoted, of the 29th July, 1845.

R. J. WALKER, *Secretary of the Treasury.*

THE SUB-TREASURY BILL.

AN ACT TO PROVIDE FOR THE BETTER ORGANIZATION OF THE TREASURY, AND FOR THE COLLECTION, SAFE-KEEPING, TRANSFER, AND DISBURSEMENT OF THE PUBLIC REVENUE.

Whereas, by the fourth section of the act entitled "Act to establish the Treasury Department," approved September second, seventeen hundred and eighty-nine, it was provided that it should be the duty of the Treasurer to receive and keep the moneys of the United States, and to disburse the same upon warrants drawn by the Secretary of the Treasury, countersigned by the Comptroller, and recorded by the Register, and not otherwise; and whereas it is found necessary to make further provisions to enable the Treasurer the better to carry into effect the intent of the said section, in relation to the receiving and disbursing the moneys of the United States: Therefore—

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the rooms prepared and provided in the new treasury building at the seat of government for the use of the Treasurer of the United States, his assistants, and clerks, and occupied by them, and also the fire-proof vaults and safes erected in said rooms for the keeping of the public moneys in the possession, and under the immediate control of said Treasurer, and such other apartments as are provided for in this act as places of deposit of the public money, are hereby constituted, and declared to be, the treasury of the United States; and all moneys paid into the same shall be subject to the draft of the Treasurer, drawn agreeably to appropriations made by law.

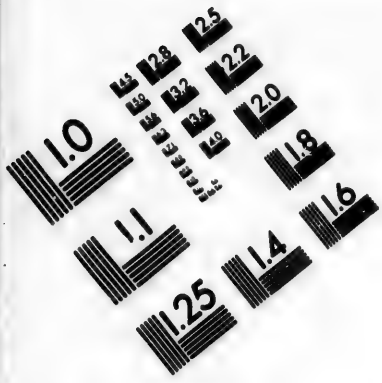
SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the mint of the United States, in the city of Philadelphia, in the State of Pennsylvania, and the branch mint in the city of New Orleans, in the State of Louisiana, and the vaults and safes thereof, respectively, shall be places of deposite and safe-keeping of the public moneys at those points, respectively; and the treasurer of the said mint and branch mint, respectively, for the time being, shall be assistant treasurers under the provisions of this act, and shall have the custody and care of all public moneys deposited within the same, and shall perform all the duties required to be performed by them, in reference to the receipt, safe-keeping, transfer, and disbursements of all such moneys, according to the provisions hereinafter contained.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the rooms which were directed to be prepared and provided within the custom-houses in the city of New York, in the State of New York, and in the city of Boston, in the State of Massachusetts, for the use of receivers general of public moneys, under the provisions of the act entitled "An act to provide for the collection, safe-keeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public revenue," approved July fourth, eighteen hundred and forty, shall be for the use of the assistant treasurers hereinafter directed to be appointed at those places, respectively; as shall be also the fire-proof vaults and safes prepared and provided within said rooms for the keeping of the public moneys collected and deposited with them, respectively; and the assistant treasurers, from time to time appointed at those points, shall have the custody and care of the said rooms, vaults, and safes, respectively, and of all the public moneys deposited within the same, and shall perform all the duties required to be performed by them, in reference to the receipt, safe-keeping, transfer, and disbursement of all such moneys, according to the provisions of this act.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the offices, with suitable and convenient rooms, which were directed to be erected, prepared, and provided for the use of receivers general of public money, at the expense of the United States, at the city of Charleston, in the State of South Carolina, and at the city of St. Louis, in the State of Missouri, under the act entitled "An act to provide for the collection, safe-keeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public revenue," approved July fourth, eighteen hundred and forty, shall be for the use of the assistant treasurers hereinafter directed to be appointed at the places above named; as shall be also the fire-proof vaults and safes, erected within the said offices and rooms, for the keeping of the public money collected and deposited at those points, respectively; and the said assistant treasurers, from time to time appointed at those places, shall have the custody and care of the said offices, vaults, and safes, erected, prepared, and provided as aforesaid, and of all the public moneys deposited within the same, and shall perform all the duties required to be performed by them, in reference to the receipt, safe-keeping, transfer, and disbursement of all such moneys, according to the provisions hereinafter contained.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the President shall nominate, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint four officers, to be denominated "assistant treasurers of the United States," which said officers shall hold their respective offices for the term of four years, unless sooner removed therefrom; one of which shall





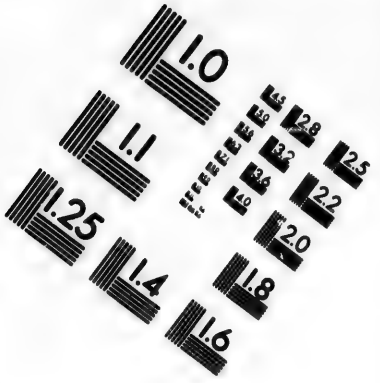
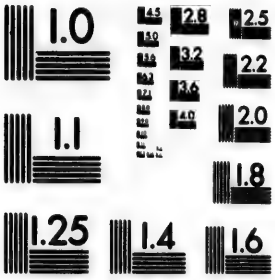
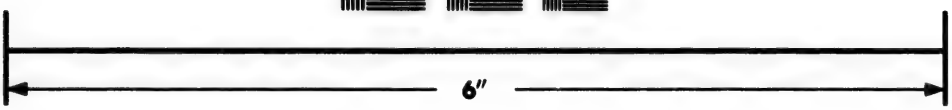


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be located at the city of New York, in the State of New York; one other of which shall be located at the city of Boston, in the State of Massachusetts; one other of which shall be located at the city of Charleston, in the State of South Carolina; and one other at St. Louis, in the State of Missouri. And all of which said officers shall give bonds to the United States, with sureties, according to the provisions hereinafter contained, for the faithful discharge of the duties of their respective offices.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That the Treasurer of the United States, the treasurer of the mint of the United States, the treasurers, and those acting as such, of the various branch mints, all collectors of the customs, all surveyors of the customs acting also as collectors, all assistant treasurers, all receivers of public moneys at the several land offices, all post-masters, and all public officers of whatsoever character, be, and they are hereby, required to keep safely, without loaning, using, depositing in banks, or exchanging for other funds than as allowed by this act, all the public money collected by them, or otherwise, at any time, placed in their possession and custody, till the same is ordered, by the proper department or officer of the government, to be transferred or paid out; and when such orders for transfer or payment are received, faithfully and promptly to make the same as directed, and to do and perform all other duties as fiscal agents of the government which may be imposed by this or any other acts of Congress, or by any regulation of the Treasury Department made in conformity to law; and, also, to do and perform all acts and duties required by law, or by direction of any of the executive departments of the government, as agents for paying pensions, or for making any other disbursements, which either of the heads of those departments may be required by law to make, and which are of a character to be made by the depositaries hereby constituted, consistently with the other official duties imposed upon them.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That the Treasurer of the United States, the treasurer of the mint of the United States, the treasurer of the branch mint at New Orleans, and all the assistant treasurers hereinbefore directed to be appointed, shall respectively give bonds to the United States faithfully to discharge the duties of their respective officest according to law, and for such amounts as shall be directed by the Secretary of the Treasury, with sureties to the satisfaction of the Solicitor of the Treasury; and shall, from time to time, renew, strengthen, and increase their official bonds, as the Secretary of the Treasury may direct, any law in reference to any of the official bonds of any of the said officers to the contrary notwithstanding.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury, at as early a day as possible after the passage of this act, to require from the several depositaries hereby constituted, and whose official bonds are not hereinbefore provided for, to execute bonds, new and suitable in their terms, to meet the new and increased duties imposed upon them, respectively, by this act, and with sureties and in sums such as shall seem reasonable and safe to the Solicitor of the Treasury; and, from time to time, to require such bonds to be renewed and increased in amount, and strengthened by new sureties, to meet any increasing responsibility which may grow out of accumulations of money in the hands of the depositary, or out of any other duty or responsibility arising under this or any other law of Congress.

SEC. 9. *And be it further enacted*, That all collectors and receivers of public money, of every character and description, within the District of Columbia, shall, as frequently as they may be directed by the Secretary of the Treasury or the Postmaster-General, so to do, pay over to the Treasurer of the United States, at the treasury all public moneys collected by them or in their hands; that all such collectors, and receivers of public moneys within the cities of Philadelphia and New Orleans shall, upon the same direction pay over to the treasurers of the mints in their respective cities, at the said mints, all public moneys collected by them, or in their hands; and that all such collectors and receivers of public moneys within the cities of New York, Boston, Charleston, and St. Louis, shall, upon the same direction, pay over to the assistant treasurers in their respective cities, at their offices respectively, all the public moneys collected by them, or in their hands, to be safely kept by the said respective depositaries until otherwise disposed of according to law; and it shall be the duty of the said Secretary and Postmaster-General respectively to direct such payments by the said collectors and receivers at all the said places, at least as often as once in each week, and as much more frequently, in all cases, as they in their discretion may think proper.

SEC. 10. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be lawful for the Secretary of the Treasury to transfer the moneys in the hands of any depositary hereby constituted to the treasury of the United States to be there safely kept, to the credit of the Treasurer of the United States, according to the provisions of this act; and, also, to transfer moneys in the hands of any one depositary constituted by this act to any other depositary constituted by the same, at his discretion, and as the safety of the public moneys and the convenience of the public service shall seem to him to require; which authority to transfer the moneys belonging to the Post Office Department is also hereby conferred upon the Postmaster General, so far as its exercise by him may be consistent with the provisions of existing laws; and every depositary constituted by this act shall keep his account of the money paid to or deposited with him, belonging to the Post Office De-

partment, separate and distinct from the account kept by him of other public moneys so paid or deposited. And for the purpose of payments on the public account, it shall be lawful for the Treasurer of the United States to draw upon any of the said depositaries, as he may think most conducive to the public interests, or to the convenience of the public creditors, or both. And each depositary so drawn upon shall make returns to the Treasury and Post Office Departments of all moneys received and paid by him, at such time and in such form as shall be directed by the Secretary of the Treasury, or the Postmaster General.

SEC. 11. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury shall be, and he is hereby authorized to cause examinations to be made of the books, accounts, and money on hand, of the several depositaries constituted by this act; and for that purpose to appoint special agents, as occasion may require, with such compensation, not exceeding six dollars per day and travelling expenses, as he may think reasonable, to be fixed and declared at the time of each appointment. The agents selected to make these examinations shall be instructed to examine as well the books, accounts, and returns of the officer, as the money on hand, and the manner of its being kept, to the end that uniformity and accuracy in the accounts, as well as safety to the public moneys, may be secured thereby.

SEC. 12. *And be it further enacted*, That in addition to the examinations provided for in the last preceding section, and as a further guard over the public moneys, it shall be the duty of each naval officer and surveyor, as a check upon the assistant treasurers, or the collector of the customs, of their respective district; of each register of a land office, as a check upon the receiver of his land office; and of the director and superintendent of each mint and branch mint, when separate offices, as a check upon the treasurers, respectively, of the said mints, or the persons acting as such, at the close of each quarter of the year, and as much more frequently as they shall be directed by the Secretary of the Treasury to do so, to examine the books, accounts, returns, and money on hand, of the assistant treasurers, collectors, receivers of land offices, treasurers of the mint and each branch mint, and persons acting as such, and to make a full, accurate, and faithful return to the Treasury Department of their condition.

SEC. 13. *And be it further enacted*, That the said officers, respectively, whose duty it is made, by this act, to receive, keep, and disburse the public moneys, as the fiscal agents of the government, may be allowed any necessary additional expenses for clerks, fire-proof chests, or vaults, or other necessary expenses of safe-keeping, transferring, and disbursing said moneys; all such expenses of every character to be first expressly authorized by the Secretary of the Treasury, whose directions upon all the above subjects, by way of regulation and otherwise, so far as authorized by law, are to be strictly followed by all the said officers: Provided, That the whole number of clerks, be appointed by virtue of this section of this Act shall not exceed ten and that the aggregate compensations of the whole number shall not exceed eight; housand dollars, nor shall the compensation of any one clerk, so appointed, exceed eight hundred dollars per annum.

SEC. 14. *And be it further enacted*, That the Secretary of the Treasury may, at his discretion, transfer the balances remaining with any of the present depositories, to any other of the present depositories, as he may deem the safety of the public money or the public convenience may require: Provided, That nothing in this Act shall be so construed as to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to transfer the balances remaining with any of the present depositories, to the depositories constituted by this Act, before the first day of January next. And provided that, for the purpose of payments on public account, out of balances remaining with the present depositories, it shall be awful for the Treasurer of the United States to draw upon any of the said depositories as he may think most conducive to the public interests, or to the convenience of the public creditors, or both.

SEC. 15. *And be it further enacted*, That all marshals, district attorneys, and others having public money to pay to the United States, and all patentees wishing to make payment for patents to be issued, may pay all such moneys to the Treasurer of the United States at the treasury, to the treasurer of either of the mints in Philadelphia or New Orleans, to either of the other assistant treasurers, or to such other depositary constituted by this Act as shall be designated by the Secretary of the Treasury in other parts of the United States to receive such payments, and give receipts or certificates of deposite therefor.

SEC. 16. *And be it further enacted*, That all officers and other persons charged by this or any other Act with the safe-keeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public moneys, other than those connected with the Post Office Department, are hereby required to keep an accurate entry of each sum received, and of each payment or transfer, and that if any one of the said officers, or of those connected with the Post Office Department, shall convert to his own use, in any way whatever, or shall use, by way of investment in any kind of property or merchandise, or shall loan, with or without interest, or shall deposite in any bank, or shall exchange for other funds, except as allowed by this act, any portion of the public moneys intrusted to him for safekeeping, disburse-

ment, transfer, or for any other purpose, every such act shall be deemed and adjudged to be embezzlement of so much of the said moneys as shall be thus taken, converted invested, used, loaned, deposited, or exchanged, which is hereby declared to be a felony; and any failure to pay over or to produce the public moneys intrusted to such person shall be held and taken to be *prima facie* evidence of such embezzlement; and if any officer charged with the disbursement of public moneys shall accept or receive, or transmit to the Treasury Department to be allowed in his favor, any receipt or voucher from a creditor of the United States, without having paid to such creditor, in such funds as the said officer may have received for disbursement, or such other funds as he may be authorized by this act to take in exchange, the full amount specified in such receipt or voucher, every such act shall be deemed to be a conversion by such officer to his own use of the amount specified in such receipt or voucher; and any officer or agent of the United States, and all persons advising or participating in such act, being convicted thereof before any court of the United States of competent jurisdiction, shall be sentenced to imprisonment for a term of not less than six months nor more than ten years, and to a fine equal to the amount of the money embezzled; and upon the trial of any indictment against any person, for embezzling public money, under the provisions of this act, it shall be sufficient evidence for the purpose of showing a balance against such person, to produce a transcript from the books and proceedings of the Treasury, as required in civil cases under the provisions of the act entitled, "An act to provide more effectually for the settlement of accounts between the United States and receivers of public money," approved March third, one thousand seven hundred and ninety-seven, and the provisions of this act shall be so construed as to apply to all persons charged with the safekeeping, transfer, or disbursement of the public money, whether such persons be indicted as receivers or depositaries of the same; and the refusal of such person, whether in or out of office, to pay any draft, order, or warrant, which may be drawn upon him by the proper officer of the Treasury Department, for any public money in his hands belonging to the United States, no matter in what capacity the same may have been received or may be held, or to transfer or disburse any such money promptly, upon the legal requirement of any authorized officer of the United States, shall be deemed and taken, upon the trial of any indictment against such person for embezzlement, as *prima facie* evidence of such embezzlement.

SEC. 17. *And be it further enacted*, That until the rooms, offices, vaults, and safes, directed by the first four sections of this act to be constructed and prepared for the use of the Treasurer of the United States, the treasurers of the mints at Philadelphia and New Orleans, and the assistant treasurers at New York, Boston, Charleston, and St. Louis, can be constructed and prepared for use, it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to procure suitable rooms for offices for those officers at their respective locations, and to contract for such use of vaults and safes as may be required for the safekeeping of the public moneys in the charge and custody of those officers, respectively; the expense to be paid by the United States.

And whereas, by the thirtieth section of the act entitled "An Act to regulate the collection of duties imposed by law on the tonnage of ships or vessels, and on goods, wares, and merchandises imported into the United States," approved July thirty-one, seventeen hundred and eighty-nine, it was provided that all fees and dues collected by virtue of that act should be received in gold and silver coin only; and, whereas, also, by the fifth section of the act approved May ten, eighteen hundred, entitled "An act to amend the act entitled 'An act providing for the sale of the lands of the United States in the territory northwest of the Ohio, and above the mouth of Kentucky river,'" it was provided that payment for the said lands shall be made by all purchasers in specie, or in evidences of the public debt; and whereas experience has proved that said provisions ought to be revived and enforced, according to the true and wise intent of the Constitution of the United States:

SEC. 18. *And be it further enacted*, That from and after the thirtieth day of June on the first day of January, in the year one thousand eight hundred and forty-seven, and thereafter, all duties, taxes, sales of public lands, debts, and sums of money accruing, or becoming due, to the United States, and also all sums due for postage, or otherwise, to the General Post Office Department, shall be paid in gold and silver coin only, or in Treasury notes issued under the authority of the United States: Provided, That the Secretary of the Treasury shall publish monthly in two newspapers at the City of Washington the amount of specie at the several places of deposit, the amount of Treasury notes or drafts issued and the amount outstanding on the last day of each month.

SEC. 19. *And be it further enacted*, That on the first day of April, one thousand eight hundred and forty-seven, and thereafter, every officer or agent engaged in making disbursements on account of the United States, or of the General Post Office, shall make all payments in gold and silver coin or in treasury notes, if the creditors agree to receive said notes in payments; and any receiving or disbursing officer or agent who shall neglect, evade, or violate the provisions of this and the last preceding section of this Act, shall, by the Secretary of the Treasury, be immediately reported to the President of the United States, with the facts of such neglect, evasion, or violation; and

also to Congress, if in session, and if not in session at the commencement of its session next after the violation takes place.

Sec. 20. *And be it further enacted*, That no exchange of funds shall be made by any disbursing officers or agents of the government, of any grade or denomination whatsoever, or connected with any branch of the public service, other than on exchange for gold and silver; and every such disbursing officer, when the means for his disbursements are furnished to him in gold and silver, shall make his payments in the money so furnished; or when those means are furnished to him in drafts, shall cause those drafts to be presented at their place of payment, and properly paid according to the law; and shall make his payments in the money so received for the drafts furnished, unless in either case he can exchange the means in his hands for gold and silver at par. And it shall be, and is hereby, made the duty of the head of the proper department immediately to suspend from duty any disbursing officer who shall violate the provisions of this section, and forthwith to report the name of the officer or agent to the President, with the fact of the violation, and all the circumstances accompanying the same and within the knowledge of the said Secretary, to the end that such officer or agent may be promptly removed from office, or restored to his trust and the performance of his duties, as to the President may seem just and proper: Provided, however, That those disbursing officers having, at present, credits in the banks, shall, until the first day of January next, be allowed to check on the same, allowing the public creditors to receive their pay from the banks either in specie or bank notes.

Sec. 21. *And be it further enacted*, That it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to issue and publish regulations to enforce the speedy presentation of all government drafts for payment at the place where payable, and to prescribe the time, according to the different distances of the depositaries from the seat of government, within which all drafts upon them, respectively, shall be presented for payment; and, in default of such presentation, to direct any other mode and place of payment which he may deem proper; but, in all these regulations and directions it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury to guard, as far as may be, against those drafts being used or thrown into circulation as a paper currency, or medium of exchange, and no officer of the United States shall, either directly or indirectly, sell or dispose to any person or persons, or corporations whatsoever, for a premium, any Treasury note, draft, warrant or other public security, not his private property, or sell or dispose of the avails or proceeds of such note, draft, warrant or security in his hands for disbursement, without making return of such premium and accounting therefor by charging the same in his accounts to the credit of the United States, and any officer violating this section shall be forthwith dismissed from office.

Sec. 22. *And be it further enacted*, That the assistant treasurers directed by this act to be appointed shall receive, respectively, the following salaries per annum, to be paid quarter-yearly at the treasury of the United States, to wit: the assistant treasurer at New York shall be paid a salary of four thousand dollars per annum; the assistant treasurer at Boston shall be paid a salary of two thousand five hundred dollars per annum; the assistant treasurer at Charleston shall be paid a salary of two thousand five hundred dollars per annum; the assistant treasurer at St. Louis shall be paid a salary of two thousand five hundred dollars per annum; the treasurer of the mint at Philadelphia shall, in addition to his present salary, receive five hundred dollars annually, for the performance of the duties imposed by this Act; the treasurer of the branch mint at New Orleans shall also receive five hundred dollars annually, for the additional duties created by this Act; and these salaries, respectively, shall be in full for the services of the respective officers, nor shall either of them be permitted to charge or receive any commissions, pay, or perquisite, for any official service, of any character or description whatsoever; and the making of any such charge, or the receipt of any such compensation, is hereby declared to be a misdemeanor, for which the officer convicted thereof, before any court of the United States of competent jurisdiction, shall be subject to punishment by fine or imprisonment, or both, at the discretion of the court before which the offence shall be tried.

Sec. 23. *And be it further enacted*, That there shall be, and hereby is appropriated to be paid out of any money in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sum of five thousand dollars, to be expended, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasure, in such repairs or additions as may be necessary to put in good condition for use, with as little delay as may be consistent with the public interests, the offices, rooms, vaults, and safes herein mentioned, and in the purchase of any necessary additional furniture and fixtures, in the purchase of necessary books and stationery, and in defraying any other incidental expenses necessary to carry this Act into effect.

Sec. 24. *And be it further enacted*, That all Acts or parts of Acts which come in conflict with the provisions of this Act be, and the same are, hereby repealed.

Approved, August 6th, 1846.

CIRCULAR IN RELATION TO THE SUB-TREASURY.

To each Collector, Receiver of Public Money for Lands, Assistant Treasurer, Treasurer of the Mint at Philadelphia, Treasurer of each Branch mint, and Treasurer of the United States.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
September 15, 1846.

A copy of the "Act to provide for the better organization of the Treasury, and for the collection, safekeeping, transfer and disbursement of the public revenue," is herewith enclosed.

You will exercise great vigilance in the performance of the new duties it may devolve on you, without any omission of such as have been imposed and are still required by former laws and regulations.

The new instructions received in respect to the books you are to keep, and the returns you are to make, will be strictly conformed to. Any expenses necessary to be incurred under this Act, will be separated from others in your accounts, and cannot be allowed unless authority is previously obtained, or satisfactory reasons assigned to the department. It is hoped the expenses will be few, and on the most economical scale.

As a depositary of the public money standing to the credit of the Treasurer of the United States, you will keep an account current with him, in which you will debit yourself with all sums received on his account, and credit yourself with all payments made by his order.

A weekly transcript of this account must be forwarded to the department, in duplicate, one directed to the secretary, the other to the treasurer, which latter must be accompanied by the vouchers for the charges made therein.

Collectors of customs, designated collectors and receivers of public moneys at land offices, who may act as depositaries of the money collected or received by them only, should credit the treasurer, weekly, with the surplus receipt of the week, after reserving sufficient to meet the current expenses of their offices. Moneys once reported to the treasurer, cannot afterwards be used except in compliance with his drafts, or orders, either for the transfer or the payment of warrants on the treasurer, issued under the authority of law.

The treasurer of the mint, of the branch mint at New Orleans, the assistant treasurers and such other depositaries as may be required to receive on deposite moneys not *collected* by them as collectors or receivers, should enter to the treasurer's credit each sum deposited with or transferred to them, specifically, setting forth the date of the deposite, name of the party or parties making it, the object for which and the name of the party for whose credit it is made, (which particulars must appear on the weekly transcripts,) and, also, the kind of funds in which it is made.

Entries of treasurer's drafts, when paid, should show the date of payment, number of draft, and number of warrant on which it was issued, or the designation "transfer draft," when of that character. The kind of money used in paying drafts must also be noted on your books, but not stated in the transcripts.

The principal book necessary to carry out these details, is a ledger account current, which will serve also as a cash-book; as auxiliary to this, particularly when the transactions are numerous, a day-book or blotter should be kept. It will be well, also, to keep a separate register of transfer drafts.

The form in which this account should be made out, for transmission to the department, is herewith inclosed, marked A. It should be made on paper of the same size of the form.

The form of certificate to be given by you to persons authorized to make deposites with you, to the credit of treasurer of the United States, is also enclosed, marked B.

The account current should be balanced at the close of each week, so as to correspond with the transcripts. They must be balanced at the close of each quarter, but the last weekly transcript of a quarter may be deferred, should the quarter terminate in the middle of a week, so as to embrace the odd days, and the first transcript of a new quarter may, also, be deferred for a like purpose.

You will also keep separate books for your incidental expenses, whether they be made under general instructions, as expenses of collection, or from advances by the treasury for that purpose; and a book for recording all letters from and to your office as a depository.

Be pleased to understand thoroughly this principle, that all money in your hands to the credit of the treasurer is, in fact, money in the treasury of the United States, and cannot be used for any other purpose than the payment of warrants (or the drafts thereon) issued in pursuance of appropriations by Congress; but these moneys may be *transferred* from one depository to any other depository, by direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, under the authority of the 10th section of the Act.

The 12th section of the Act requires each naval officer, and surveyor of each port where there is a naval officer and surveyor, and the register of each land office, to make

a quarterly examination of the books, accounts, returns, and money on hand of the public depository with which he is connected, and to make such examinations as much more frequently as he may be directed so to do by the Secretary of the Treasury. The 11th section of the Act authorizes me to make such examinations also, by special agents, as occasion may require. You will grant to the surveyor of the port, naval officer, or the register of the land office, as the case may be, and to such special agents as may be appointed, every facility in your power for making such examinations, and will always keep your money, papers, and books, in readiness for it.

By the 18th section provision is made as to the kind of money you may receive. To the requirements in that section you will, in all cases, conform, using great caution to avoid the receipt of money that is counterfeit, or the notes of banks not at par, or not convertible into specie on the spot, or not issued by institutions of high credit. After the 31st of December next all payments into the treasury must be made in gold and silver coin only, or in treasury notes. It is desirable that the notes received by you should, when acceptable to others in payment, be first paid out; and if, at the close of any quarter, an amount of them remain on hand over the sum of five thousand dollars, they should, for security, be converted into specie, and oftener, if loss is apprehended, or the specie wanted to meet drafts you are liable to pay in specie.

For greater accuracy in receiving coin, it will generally be desirable, in very large sums, to weigh as well as count it; and for convenience and speed in making payments and examinations, to keep it sealed up and marked, in bags or boxes of a hundred and a thousand dollars each. It may be well for the examiners to add their seal after their monthly examinations, to verify the amounts.

The receipt of treasury notes in all public payments as heretofore provided by Congress, and then to be cancelled and remitted here as required by former instructions, will still be continued when any debtors offer them in payment.

So you will receive in the same way any drafts drawn by the treasurer on yourself, instead of the useless delay and trouble of counting out the money on such drafts, and immediately receiving it back in payment.

In no instance will you permit any other than public money to be placed in the chest or vault in which that is kept.

All other parts of the Act relating to your duties will be strictly enforced by you, though not specially referred to in this Circular. In case of doubt you will apply to proper officers here for advice.

Further instructions, except those to particular classes of officers separately, it is considered unnecessary to give at this time. If you find any of these here given inconvenient in operation, or if you can suggest measures by which the ends of the law can be more easily obtained, I shall be very happy to hear from you on the subject.

R. J. WALKER,
Secretary of the Treasury.

CIRCULAR TO THE COLLECTORS OF THE CUSTOMS,

At Buffalo creek, Wilmington, N. C., Savannah and Mobile. To the surveyors of the customs at Nashville, and Cincinnati, and to the Receivers of public moneys at Little Rock, Ark., at Jeffersonville, Ind., Chicago, Ill., and Detroit, Mich.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
September 15, 1846.

The fifteenth section of "An Act to provide for the better organization of the Treasury, and for the collection, safekeeping, transfer, and disbursement of the public revenue," enacts, "That all marshals, district attorneys, and others having public money to pay to the United States, and all patentees wishing to make payment for patents to be issued, may pay all such moneys to the treasurer of the United States, to the treasurer of either of the mints in Philadelphia, or New Orleans, to either of the other assistant treasurers, or to such other depositary constituted by this Act as shall be designated by the Secretary of the Treasury in other parts of the United States to receive such payments, and give receipts or certificates of deposite therefor."

Under this provision, for the local convenience of making payments, except for accruing duties and land sold, which are otherwise provided for, you will receive and place any such money to the credit of the treasurer of the United States, and will give receipts therefor, briefly stating therein, as well as in your returns, the character of each payment, whether for patents, fines, judgments, &c

R. J. WALKER,
Secretary of the Treasury.

GENERAL CUSTOM HOUSE INFORMATION.

On the arrival of a vessel from a Foreign Port, the Captain must within twenty-four hours come to the Custom House and report his vessel to the Collector, and within forty-eight hours after his arrival must enter his vessel.

The Master of any vessel having merchandise on board, is required to have a manifest made out in writing, signed by him, containing a specification of all the goods on board, the marks and numbers, to whom consigned, the names of all the passengers with their baggage, the age, sex, and occupation of each, the countries to which they belong, and where going, together with all the remaining sea stores.

Beer, ale, or porter, cannot be imported in casks of less capacity than forty gallons beer measure, or if in bottles, in packages containing less than six dozen, under the penalty of forfeiting the same, together with the ship or vessel in which they were imported.—Act of March 2, 1779, sec. 103.

No distilled spirits excepting arrack, brandy in casks of not less capacity than 15 gallons, and sweet cordial, can be imported in casks or vessels of less capacity than 90 gallons wine measure, nor in casks which have been marked pursuant to any law of the United States, on pain of forfeiture of the same, together with the ship or vessel in which they were imported.—Act of March 2, 1779, sec. 103.

No goods, wares, or merchandise, subject to duty, can be imported into the United States on the seaboard, in vessels of less than 30 tons burthen, under the penalty of the forfeiture of vessel and cargo. Nor can a drawback of any duties be obtained on exportation except by sea, and in vessels of not less than 30 tons burthen.—*Act of 2d March, 1799, 92d section.*

Invoice to contain the weight, quantity or measure of goods, or the same to be weighed, guaged, or measured at the expense of importer. *Act 30th July*, 1840, *Sec.* 4.

An allowance of 2 per cent. is made for leakage on any liquor in casks subject to duty by the gallon, and 10 per cent. on all beer, ale, and porter in bottles, and 5 per cent. on all other liquors in bottles, to be deducted from the invoice quantity, in lieu of breakage; or it shall be lawful to compute the duties on the actual quantity, to be ascertained by tale, at the option of the importer, to be made at the time of entry.—Act of March 2, 1779. sec. 59.

To be entitled to drawback, the duties on the importation of the goods exported, must have been at least 50 dollars by one vessel, at the same time, and by the same person, and the merchandise must be, at the time of exportation, in the same package, and condition, including wrapper and original mark and number, as when imported. *Act of 22d May*, 1824.

Drawback not allowed on goods exported to any place immediately adjoining the United States, except to places westward and southward of Louisiana, and to the northwest coast of America.

All goods on examination by the appraisers, *not* corresponding with the entry made of them, are liable to forfeiture.

Goods in order to receive the benefit of drawback, must be exported within three years from the date of importation.

Two and one-half per cent. is retained on the amount of all drawbacks allowed, except on foreign refined sugars for the use of the United States; and in the case of foreign refined sugars, ten per centum shall be so retained.

No allowance or drawback is made on the additional duties paid on merchandise imported in foreign and unequalized vessels.

No allowance of drawback on the exportation of iron cables or parts thereof, butter, fish oil, playing cards, cordage (if less than five tons), foreign dried or pickled fish, or other salted provisions, nor on sail-duck if less than fifty bolts.

Within twenty days after the clearance of a vessel, the exporter of goods by said vessel must swear to the export entry, and give a bond that they shall not be landed in any place or port within the limits of the United States; or forfeit the drawback.

In all cases where the value of goods are appraised by the appraisers at a value exceeding 10 per cent. of the invoice, in addition to the duty imposed by law on the same, there shall be collected on the same goods fifty per centum of the duty imposed on the same when fairly invoiced.

All indecent and obscene prints, paintings, &c., subject the whole invoice or package wherein such articles shall compose a part, to forfeiture.

Any person knowingly and wilfully engaged in smuggling any goods subject to duty into the United States, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemanor, and on conviction thereof shall be fined in any sum not exceeding five thousand dollars, or imprisoned for any term of time not exceeding two years, or both, at the discretion of the Court.

Persons residing out of the United States, and interested in any shipment to the United States, must have their invoices authenticated before a Consul or Vice Consul of the United States; and in case there is none in the country in which they reside, the invoices must be authenticated before some magistrate of that country.

Invoices must always be made out in the currency of the country where the goods are purchased; and if the value of that currency is not fixed by law, they must always be accompanied by a Consul's certificate, stating the value of the same in dollars and cents.

Persons residing abroad must have their invoices authenticated, although they may have partners interested in these purchases residing in the United States.

In making entries or reports of cargoes or merchandise, specify the number of packages in writing, and not in figures; and the numbers of each description of package state distinctly and separately.

Interest is charged at the rate of six per cent. on the amount of all duties exceeding fifty dollars, if not paid within twenty days from the time of entering the vessel.

Goods should always be accompanied by an invoice. Where there is none, and the value of the goods exceed fifty dollars, the law requires that a Bond shall be given to produce an invoice; but the goods can be appraised, and if they are valued below the actual cost, the difference between the appraisement and invoice, when received, must be ascertained, and the duty paid on the same. If the appraisement exceeds the invoice, there is nothing returned.

Merchandise is liable to be sold for the duties, if not entered in sixty days from the arrival of the vessel.

Passengers arriving in this country should, previous to sailing, have all their baggage put upon the manifest; and if any of the packages contain merchandise, a bill of lading, specifying the marks and numbers, should be obtained, signed by the Captain. Tools of trade should be accompanied by an invoice or memorandum, so that an entry can be made and sworn to, without being sent up for examination.

No refined lump or loaf sugar can be imported into the United States, except in ships or vessels of at least 120 tons burthen, and in packages containing at least 600 lbs., under the penalty of forfeiting the same, together with the ship or vessel.—Act of 2d March, 1799, Section 103.

Bounty is allowed on the exportation of pickled fish of the fisheries of the United States, cured and packed solely with foreign salt, on which the duty shall have been paid.—Act of 2d March, 1799, Section 83.

The number of bushels of wheat is to be ascertained by actual *measurement* by the standard bushel, and not by weight.

Every owner of a vessel, residing within the limits of the United States, to swear (or affirm) to the register within ninety days after it being granted, or it becomes void, and the vessel and cargo pays foreign tonnage and duty.

In all cases where there are more goods found on board a vessel than the master thereof has reported on his manifest, he shall, with the consent of the officers of the customs, make a post entry for the same, and pay two dollars therefor: and for every disagreement between his manifest and cargo, he is liable to a fine of five hundred dollars.—Act of 2d March, 1799, Section 57.

Goods belonging to a person not residing at the time in the United States, cannot be admitted to entry, unless accompanied by an invoice verified by the owner's oath, stating that the goods were actually purchased for his account, and that the invoice contains a true and faithful account of the *cost* of such goods.—Act of 1st March, 1823, Section 7.

LIST OF FEES.

PAYABLE AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, NEW YORK.

Entry of a vessel of 100 tons and over, dutiable cargo	$5.50
" " 100 " " in ballast or free goods	3.17
" under 100 tons dutiable cargo	3.00
" " 100 " in ballast or free goods	2.17
Clearance of a vessel of 100 tons and over	2.50
" under 100 tons	1.50
Tonnage, French vessels (except when coming from the islands of Guadaloupe or Martinique, with the produce of those islands, or in ballast—in such cases, nothing), per ton	0.94
" Spain, from the mother-country or Europe, per ton	0.05
" " " Malaga "	0.75
" " " other places	1.50
" Sicily, Naples, Hayti, New Grenada	1.00
For every post entry	2.00
" " permit to land goods	0.20
" " bond taken officially	0.40
" " permit to load goods for exportation for drawback	0.30
" " debenture or other official certificate	0.20
" " bill of health	0.20
" " official document (Register excepted) required by any person	0.20
" " sea letter	0.20
" " seaman's protection	0.25
" " entry and permit for bounty on fish	0.70
" " " " drawback on domestic spirits	0.70
" " " " " refined sugar	0.70

TABLE OF FEES UNDER THE COASTING ACT.

Admeasuring every vessel, in order to the enrollment, licensing, or recording the same—	
If of 5 tons, and less than 20	$0.50
If of 20, and not exceeding 70	0.75
If of 70, and not exceeding 100	1.00
If of 100 tons	1.50
For every certificate of enrollment	0.50
" " endorsement on certificate of enrollment	0.20
" " license, including the bond, not exceeding 20 tons	0.25
" " " " " above 20, and not more than 100 tons	0.50
" " " " " more than 100 tons	1.00
" " endorsement of license	0.20
Upon the renewal of a license, for every man employed from the date of the license then surrendered, per month	0.20
Admeasuring every vessel, in order to the registry or recording the same—	
If of 100 tons or under	1.00
If over 100, and not exceeding 200 tons	1.50
If over 200 tons	2.00
For every new Register	2.25
" " endorsement on Register	1.00
" " bond for Mediterranean passport	0.40
Recording certificate, manifest, and granting permit, if less than 50 tons	0.25
" " " " " if over 50 tons	0.50
For certifying a manifest, and granting permit for registering vessels	1.50
For receiving certificate manifest, and granting permission on the arrival of a registry vessel	1.50
Granting permit for a vessel not belonging to a citizen or citizens to proceed from district to district, and receiving a manifest	2.00
Receiving manifest, and granting permit to unload, as above	2.00
Granting permit for a vessel to carry on fishing in a foreign port	0.25
For report and entry of any foreign goods imported in such last-mentioned vessel	0.25

THE

NEW BRITISH TARIFF,

COMPRISING A CORRECT LIST OF THE CUSTOMS' DUTIES CHARGED UPON ALL ARTICLES IMPORTED INTO ENGLAND FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES:

To which should be added a further charge of 5 per cent. upon the nett amount of the duties levied.

Principally compiled from the Official Copy furnished by the Board of Trade.

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries. £ s. d.
Acetous Acid (see vinegar)	
Agates or cornelians, set, for every £100 value	10 pr. ct.
not set	free.
Alabaster (see marble)	
Ale ..... brl	1 0 0
Aliganobilla	free.
Alkali	free.
Alkanet root	free.
Almonds, bitter	free.
Jordan ..... cwt	1 5 0
not Jordan ..... cwt	0 10 0
Paste of	10 pr. ct.
Aloes	free.
Alum	free.
Roch	free.
Amber, manufactures of not enumerated	10 pr. ct.
rough	free.
Ambergris	free.
Amboyna Wood	free.
Angelica	free.
Animals, living	free.
Annatto	free.
Roll	free.
Antimony, ore of	free.
Crude	free.
Regulus of	free.
Apples, raw ..... bushel	0 0 6
Dried ..... bushel	0 2 0
Aquafortis ..... cwt	0 5 0
Argol	free.
Aristolochia	free.
Arrowroot ..... cwt	0 2 6
Arsenic	free.
Ashes, pearl and pot	free.
Soap, weed, and wood	free.
unenumerated	free.
Asphaltum or bitumen Judaicum	free.
Asses ..... each	free.
Bacon ..... cwt	free.
Balsam, Canada	free.
Capivi	free.
Peru	free.
Tolu	free.
Riga ..... lb	0 0 1
Balm of Gilead and other balsams	free.
Bandstring Twist, per doz. knots of 22 yds.	0 5 0
for every £100 value	10 0 0
Barilla	free.
Bar wood	free.
Bark, extract of, or of other vegetable substances, to be used only for tanning leather	free.
for tanners or dyers' use	free.
Cascarilla	free.
Peruvian	free.
of other sorts	free.
Barley, pearled ..... cwt	0 1 0

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries. £ s. d.
Baskets ..... for every £100 value	10 0 0
Rods, peeled and unpeeled	free.
Bast ropes, twines, and strands ..... cwt	0 5 0
for every £100 value	10 0 0
Beads, coral, jet, arrango, not enumerated or described	10 pr. ct.
and bugles of glass ..... lb	0 0 2
Beans, kidney and French ..... bushel	0 0 10
Beef, salted, not being corned beef .. cwt	free.
Beer or mum ..... brl	1 0 0
Spruce ..... brl	1 0 0
Berries, bay	free.
Juniper	free.
Yellow	free
unenumerated	free.
Birds, singing	free.
Blacking	10 pr. ct.
Black wood	free.
Bladders	free.
Blubber (see oil)	
Bones of cattle and other animals, and of fish (except whale fins), whether burnt or not, or as animal charcoal	free
Bonnets (see hats)	
Books printed prior to 1801, bound or unbound ..... cwt	1 0 0
Printed in or since 1801 ..... cwt	5 0 0
In the foreign living languages, printed in or since 1801 ..... cwt	2 10 0
(Books of which the copyright exists in this country, are, by the regulations of the Act for securing Copyright, prohibited.)	
Boots, shoes, and calashes, viz.—	
Women's boots and calashes, doz. pair	0 12 0
If lined or trimmed with fur or other trimming ..... doz. pair	0 15 0
Shoes, with cork or double soles, quilted shoes and clogs, doz. pair	0 10 0
If trimmed or lined with fur or any other trimming .... doz. pair	0 12 0
Women's shoes of silk, satin, jean, or other stuffs, kid, morocco, or other leather ..... doz. pair	0 9 0
Women's shoes, if trimmed or lined with fur or any other trimming ..... doz. pair	0 10 0
Girls' boots shoes, and calashes, not not ex. 7 inch. in length, ¾ of the above duties.	
Man's boots ..... doz. pair	1 8 0
Shoes ..... doz. pair	0 14 0
Boys boots and shoes, not ex. 7 in. in length, ¾ of the above duties.	
Boot fronts, not exceeding 9 in. high	0 2 6
ex. 9 in. high	0 5 0
Boracic acid	free.
Borax, refined	free
or tincal, unrefined	free.
Bottles, earth or stone ..... doz	free.
Do. of Glass (see glass bottles)	

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.
	£ s. d.
Box wood	free.
Boxes of all sorts, except wholly or partly of glass, on which the glass duty will be levied...for every £100 value	10 0 0
Brass, manufactures of	10 pr. ct.
Powder of.....lb	0 0 6
Brazil wood	free.
Brazilletto wood	free.
Bricks or Clinkers, Dutch.....1000	0 10 0
Others sorts..1000	0 15 0
Brimstone, refined in Rolls	free.
In flour	free.
Not refined	free.
Bristles, rough, or in any way sorted	free.
Brocade of gold or silver	10 pr. ct.
Bronze, manufactures of	10 pr. ct.
Powder of	10 pr. ct.
Works of art	free.
Buck wheat meal.....cwt	0 0 4½
Bugles.....lb	0 0 2
Bullion, coins, medals, &c.	free.
Bulls and oxen.....each	1 0 0
Bulrushes	free.
Butter.....cwt	0 10 0
Butter, colonial.....cwt	0 2 6
Buttons	15 pr. ct.
Buttons, metal...for every £100 value	10 0 0
Cables, not iron.....cwt	0 6 0
not iron cables, in actual use of a British ship	free.
If, and when otherwise disposed of.....every £100 value	10 0 0
Calves.....each	free.
Cambric (see linen)	
Cameos.....for every £100 value	5 0 0
Camomile flowers	free.
Camphor, refined.....cwt	0 5 0
Unrefined	free.
Cam Wood	free.
Candles, spermaceti.....lb	0 0 3
Stearine.....lb	0 0 1½
Tallow.....cwt	0 5 0
Wax.....lb	0 0 2
Candlewick	free.
Canella Alba	free.
Canes, bamboo	free.
Reed	free.
Rattans, not ground	free.
or sticks, unenumerated	free.
Walking, or sticks, mounted, painted or ornamented..£100 v.	10 0 0
Cantharides.....lb	0 0 3
Caoutchouc	free.
Capers, including the pickle.....lb	0 0 6
Cardamoms	free.
Cards, playing.....the dozen packs	4 0 0
Carriages of all sorts.....£100 value	10 0 0
Carmine.....oz	0 0 6
Casks, empty.....£100 value	10 0 0
Cassava powder.....cwt	0 2 6
Cassava powder...for every £100 value	0 2 6
Cassia Lignea.....lb	0 0 3
Cassia buds	free.
Fistula	free.
Castor	free.
Casts of busts, Statues, and figures, cwt	free.
Catlings.....£100	10 0 0
Caviare.....cwt	free
Cedar Wood	free.
Chalk unmanufactured	free.
Prepared or manufactured not enumerated	10 pr. ct.
Cheese.....cwt	0 5 0
Cheese, colonial.....cwt	0 1 6
Cherries, raw	5 pr. ct.
Dried.....lb	0 0 6
Cherry wood, being furniture wood	free.
Chesnuts	free.
Chicory, or other vegetable matter used as Chicory or Coffee, roasted or ground.....lb	0 0 6
Raw, kiln dried.....cwt	1 0 0

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.
	£ s. d.
China or porcelain ware, plain...£100	10 0 0
Gilt, painted, or ornamented..do	5 5 0
China root	free.
Chip, or willow, for platting	free.
Chler.....tun	0 5 5
Cinnabaris Nativa	free.
Cinnamon.....lb	0 0 6
Citrate of lime.....cwt	0 5 0
Citric Acid.....lb	0 0 2
Citron preserved with salt.....£100	5 0 0
Civet	free.
Clocks.....£100	10 0 0
or watches, purporting by any mark to be of the manufacture of the United Kingdom	prohib'd
Cloves.....lb	0 0 6
Coals, Culm, and Cinders	free.
Cobalt	free.
Ore of	free.
Cochineal	free.
Dust	free.
Granilla	free.
Cocoa.....lb	0 0 2
Husks and Shells.....lb	0 0 1
Paste or Chocolate.....lb	0 0 6
Coculus Indicus.....cwt	0 7 6
Coffee.....lb	0 0 6
Coir rope and junk, old and new, cut into lengths not exceeding three feet each	free.
Colocynth	free.
Colts.....each	free.
Columbo root	free.
Comfits, dry	0 0 6
Confectionary.....lb	0 0 6
Copper, ore, containing not more than 15 parts of copper....per ton	3 0 0
Contg not more than 20 ditto	4 10 0
Contg more than 20 ditto	6 0 0
Old.....cwt	0 7 6
Unwrought, in bricks or pigs, rose copper and all cast copper.....cwt	0 8 0
In part wrought, bars, rods, or ingots, hammered or raised.....cwt	0 10 0
In plates and copper coin.cwt	0 10 0
Manufactrs of copper not otherwise enum. or described, and plates engraved..£100 value	10 0 0
or brass wire	12½ pr.ct.
Copper or brass wire, for every £100 value	10 0 0
Copperas, blue	free.
Green	free.
White	free.
Coral whole, polished	free.
unpolished	free
in fragments	free.
Cordage, tared or untarred, standing or running rigging exceptd.cwt	0 6 0
In use of a British ship	free.
If, and when otherwise disposed of.....every £100 value	5 0 0
Cordial Waters (see spirits)	
Cork	free.
Corks, ready made.....lb	0 0 8
Squared for rounding.....cwt	0 16 0
Fisherman's	0 2 0
Cotton Wool	free.
Manufactures of	0 10 0
Articles, or Manufactures of Cotton wholly or in part made up, not otherwise charged with duty.....£100 value	10 0 0
Cotton Yarn	free.
Cows.....each	free.
Cranberries.....gallon	free.
Crayons.....£100 value	10 0 0
Cream of Tartar	free.
Crystal, rough	free.
Beads.....per 1000	0 5 0
Cut or manufac, except beads..£100 v	10 0 0

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.
	£ s. d.
Jubebe	free.
Cubic Nitre	cwt 0 0 6
Cucumbers, preserved in salt	every £100 value 5 0 0
Currants	cwt 0 15 0
Cutch	ton 0 5 0

THE NEW CORN BILL.

The New Corn Bill (9th and 10th Vic., cap. 22) went into operation on the 27th March, and the duties payable under it, until the 1st of February, 1849, are as follows, viz.:—

IF IMPORTED FROM ANY FOREIGN COUNTRY, NOT BEING A BRITISH POSSESSION.

WHEAT. Average Price.	Duty.	FLOUR & WHEAT MEAL. Per Cwt.	Per Barrel of 196 lb.
under 48s	10s	3s 5½d	6s 0 6-32
48s and under 49s	9s	3s 1½d	5s 4-31
49s — 50s	8s	2s 9d	4s 9-24
50s — 51s	7s	2s 4½d	4s 2-17
51s — 52s	6s	2s 0½d	3s 7-10
52s — 53s	5s	1s 8½d	3s 0-3
53s and upwards	4s	1s 4½d	2s 4-28

RYE, PEASE, BEANS, BARLEY, BEAR, OR BIGG. Barley Average.	Duty.	OATS. Average Price.	Duty.
under 26s	5s 0d	under 18s	4s 0d
26s and under 27s	4s 6d	18s and under 19s	3s 6d
27s — 28s	4s 0d	19s — 20s	3s 0d
28s — 29s	3s 6d	20s — 21s	2s 6d
29s — 30s	3s 0d	21s — 22s	2s 0d
30s — 31s	2s 6d	22s and upwards	1s 6d
31s and upwards	2s 0d		

Barleymeal, for every 217½ lbs. the duty to be equal to that payable on one quarter barley.

Ryemeal and flour, for every 196lbs. the duty to be equal to that payable on five-eighths of a quarter barley.

Peameal and beanmeal, for every 272lbs. the duty to be equal to that payable on one quarter barley.

Oatmeal, for every 181½lbs. the duty to be equal to that payable on one quarter barley.

If the produce of, or imported from, any British possession out of Europe:—

Wheat, barley, bear, or bigg, oats, rye, peas, and beans, the duty shall be for every quarter 1s.

Wheatmeal, barleymeal, oatmeal, ryemeal, peameal, and beanmeal, the duty shall be for every cwt 4½d.

On and after the 1st of February, 1849, the duties hereafter named shall be paid, viz.:—

Upon all wheat, barley, bear, or bigg, oats, rye, peas, beans, for every quarter 1s.

Upon all wheatmeal and flour, barleymeal, oatmeal, ryemeal and flour, peameal, and beanmeal, for every cwt 4½d.; and so in proportion for a less quantity.

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.
	£ s. d.
Dates	cwt 0 10 0
Diamonds	free.
Dice	per pair 1 6 2
Divi Divi	free.
Down	free.
Drawings (see paints)	
Drugs, unenumerated	free.
Earthenware, not otherwise enumerated or described	10 pr. ct.
Ebony	free.
Eggs	120 0 0 10
Embroidery and needlework	20 pr. ct.
Enamel	lb free.
Essences (see oils)	
Essence of Spruce	10 pr. ct.
Ether, from Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, Sark, Isle of Man	gallon 0 18 9
Ditto additional	0 0 10
Extracts, viz., Cardamoms, Cocculus Indicus, Guinea, Grains of Paradise, Liquorice, Nux Vomica, Opium, Peruvian or Jesuits' Bark, Quassia, Radix Rhatanise, Vitriol, Guinea Pepper, or not otherwise described	20 pr. ct.
Extract or preparation of any article, not being particularly enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty	for every £100 value 20 0 0
Or, and in lieu of the above duty, at the option of the importer	lb 0 5 0
Feathers, dressed	10 per ct.
Ostrich, dressed	lb 1 10 0
Paddy Bird	lb 0 1 0
for beds, in beds or otherwise	free.
Ostrich, undressed	free.
Paddy Bird, undressed	free.
unenumerated and undressed	free.
Figs	cwt 0 15 0
Fish, viz.—	
Anchovies	lb 0 0 2
Eels	the ship's lading 13 0 0
Lobsters	free.
Turbot	cwt 0 5 0
Fish, of foreign taking, imported from foreign places in other than fishing vessels, viz.—	
Oysters	bushel 0 1 6
Salmon	cwt 0 10 0
Soles and Turtle	cwt 0 5 0
Fresh, not enumerated	cwt 0 1 0
Cured, not enumerated	cwt 0 2 0
In foreign fishing vessels	prohibtd
In British fishing vessels, fresh or cured	free.
Fish, cured or otherwise enumerated	cwt 0 1 0
Fishing Nets (see rags)	
Flax and Tow, or Codilla of Hemp and Flax, dressed and undressed	free.
Flocks	free.
Flower Roots	free.
Flowers, artificial, not silk	25 per ct.
Foals	each 1 0
Frames, for pictures	10 per ct.
Fruit, raw, not enumerated	5 per ct.
Furs, or pieces thereof, unenumerated	free.
Fustic	free.
Gallic Powder	free.
Galls	free.
Gamboge	free.
Garancine	free.
Garnets, rough	free.
cut	lb 0 15 0
Gauze, of thread	15 per ct.
Gelatine	cwt free.
Gentian	free.
Ginger	cwt 0 10 0
preserved	lb 0 0 6
Ginseng	free.
Glass, viz. until the 10th day of October, 1846, the following duties:—	
Window Glass, white or stained of one color only, not exceeding one-ninth of an inch in thickness, and shades and cylinders	cwt 0 14 0
Exceeding one-ninth of an inch in thickness; all silvered or polished glass of whatever thickness, however small each pane, plate or sheet, superficial measure, viz.—	
Not containing more than 9 square feet	the square foot 0 1 0
More than 9 square feet, and under 14 square feet	0 2 0
More than 14 square feet, and under 36 square feet	0 2 6
More than 36 square feet	0 3 0

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries. £ s. d.
Glass, painted or ornamented, superficial foot	0 3 0
White Flint Glass Bottles, not cut, engraved or ornamented, and beads and bugles of glass, the lb	0 0 2
Wine Glasses, tumblers, and all white flint glass goods, not cut, engraved or ornamented, the lb	0 0 4
Flint Cut Glass, flint colored glass, and fancy ornamental glass of whatever kind, the lb	0 0 8
Bottles of glass covered with wicker, (not flint or cut glass) or of green or common glass, the cwt	0 3 0
Glass, not enumerated or described, and old glass, fit only to be remanufactured, cwt	0 14 0
From and after the 10th day of October, 1846, until the 5th of April, 1848, one-half of the said duties, and from and after the 5th day of April, 1848, one fourth of the said duties.	
Gloves of leather, habit mits..doz pair	0 2 4
habit gloves doz pair	0 3 6
men's..doz pair	0 3 6
women's or mits..do	0 4 6
Glue, cwt	free.
Glue clippings, or waste, fit only for making glue	free.
Goats, each	free.
Gold leaves, the 100	0 3 0
Grains, Guinea, and of Paradise, cwt	0 15 0
Grapes	5 per ct.
Grease	free.
Greaves for dogs, and tallow greaves	free.
Guano	free.
Gum, Animi, Arabic, Assafœtida, Ammoniacum, Benjamin, Copal, Euphorbium, Guicum, Kino, Lac Dye, Mastic, Seed Lac, Senegal, Shell Lac, Storax, Tragacanth, unenumerated	free.
Gunpowder, cwt	1 0 0
Gun Stocks, in the rough, of wood	free.
Gypsum	free.
Hair, camel hair, or wool, cow, ox, bull, or elk, horse, human, unenumerated	free.
Manufactures of hair or goat's wool, or of hair, or goat's wool, and any other material for every £100 value	15 0 0
Hams of all kinds, cwt	0 7 0
Harp or lute strings, silvered..£100 v.	10 0 0
Hats or bonnets, viz.—Chip, lb	0 3 6
Bast, cane, or horse-hair, not ex. 22 in. in diameter, dozen	0 7 6
exceed. 22 in. in dimameter, doz	0 10 0
Straw hats or bonnets, lb	0 5 0
Felt, hair, wool, beaver, each	0 2 0
Silk, or silk shag, laid upon felt, linen, or other materials, each	0 2 0
Hay, load	free.
Heath, for brushes	free.
Helebore	free.
Hemp, dressed	free.
rough or undressed, or any other vegetable substance of the nature and quality of undressed hemp, and applicable to the same purposes	free.
Hides, tanned, but not otherwise dressed	0 0 2
Tawed, curried, or dressed, varnished, japanned or enamelled, lb	free.
Loch hides	free.
Muscovy or Russian hides, tanned, colored, shaved or dressed, lb	free.
Tanned, tawed, curried, or dressed, not enumd..for every £100 val.	10 0 0
Or pieces of ditto, not tanned, tawed, curried, or in any way dressed, dry or wet	free.
Tails, buffalo, bull, cow, or ox	free.
Tanned, not otherwise dressed	free.
Hogs, each	free.
Honey, cwt	0 10 0
Hones, the 100	free.
Hoofs of cattle	free.
Hoops of wood	free.
Hops, cwt	2 5 0
Horns, horn tips, and pieces of horn	free.
Horses, each	1 0 0
Horse grease (see oil animal)	
Indigo	free.
Ink for printing	free.
Inkle	free.
Iron, bloom, cast, cromate of, in bars, unwrought, hoops, ore, pig, old broken and cast, slit or hammered into rods	free.
Iron and steel not otherwise enumerated, for every £100 value	10 0 0
Isinglass, cwt	0 5 0
Jalap	free.
Japanned or Lacquered ware, for every £100 value	10 pr. ct.
Jet	free.
Jewels, emeralds, rubies, and all other precious stones (except diamonds and pearls) set	10 pr. ct
Emeralds and all other precious stones, unset	free.
Juice of limes, lemons, or oranges..gal	0 0 0½
Kids, each	0 1 6
King Wood	free.
Lac, viz. Sticklac	free.
Lace, viz. thread, for every £100 value	10 pr. ct
Made by the hand, commonly called cushion or pillow lace, whether of linen, cotton, or silken thread..for every £100 value	10 pr. ct
Lacquered Ware (see Japanned Ware)	
Lambs, each	0 2
Lamp black	free.
Lapis Calaminaris	free.
Lard	free.
Latten	free.
Wire, for every £100 value	10 pr. ct
Shaven	free.
Lavender Flowers	free.
Lead, manufactures for every £100 val.	10 pr. ct
Pig and sheet, ton	1 0 0
Lead, ore, red, white, black, chromate of	free.
Leather, manufacturers of, viz.—	
Leather Boots, shoes and calashes, viz.	
Women's boots and calashes, the dozen pair	0 6 0
Women's boots and calashes, if lined or trimmed with fur or other trimming, the dozen pair	0 7 6
Women's shoes with cork or double soles, quilted shoes and clogs, the dozen pair	0 5 0
Women's shoes, if trimmed or lined with fur or any other trimming, the dozen pair	0 6 0
Women's shoes of silk, satin, jean, or other stuffs, kid, morocco, or other leather, the dozen pair	0 4 6
Girl's boots, shoes and calashes, not exceeding seven inches in length, to be charged with two-thirds of the above duties	
Men's boots, the dozen pair	0 14 0
Men's shoes, the dozen pair	0 7 0
Boy's boots and shoes, not exceeding seven inches in length, to be charged with two-thirds of the above duties.	

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries. £ s. d.
Leather boot fronts, not exceeding nine inches in height.....the dozen pair	0 1 9
Leather boot fronts, exceeding nine inches in height.....the dozen pair	0 2 9
Leather cut into shapes, or any article made of leather, or any manufacture whereof leather is the most valuable part, not otherwise enumerated or described.....for every £100 value	10 0 0
Leaves of Roses	free.
Leeches	free.
Lemons (see Oranges)	
Lentiles.....bushel	0 0 3
Lignum Vitæ	free.
Linen, or Linen and Cotton, viz.—	
Cambrics and Lawns, commonly called French Lawns, the piece not exceeding 8 yards in length, and not exceeding ¼ of a yard in breadth, and so in proportion for any greater or less quantity, plain, the piece	0 2 6
Bordered Handkerchiefs....the piece	0 2 6
Lawns, of any other sorts, not French, for every £100 value	10 0 0
Lace Thread...for every £100 value	10 0 0
Made by the hand, commonly called cushion or pillow lace, whether of cotton, silken, or linen thread, for every £100 value	10 pr. ct
Damasks.....square yard	0 0 12
Damasks, diaper.....ditto	0 0 5
Plain linens and diaper, not enumerated, whether chequered or striped with dyed yarn or not, and manufactures of linen, or of linen mixed with cotton or with wool, not particularly enumerated or charged with duty	free.
Sails.....for every £100 value	10 0 0
In use of a British ship	free.
If, and when otherwise disposed of.....for every £100 value	10 0 0
Liquorice Root.....cwt	1 0 0
Powder.....cwt	1 15 0
Paste.....cwt	1 0 0
Juice.....cwt	1 7 6
Litharge	free.
Logwood	free.
Maize or Indian corn qr	0 1 0
Maccaroni and Vermicelli.....lb	0 0 1
Mace.....lb	0 2 6
Madder	free.
Madder root	free.
Magna Græcia ware	free.
Mahogany	free.
Manganese, ore of	free.
Manna	free.
Manures, unenumerated	free.
Manuscripts	0 0 2
Maps or charts, or parts thereof, plain or colored.....each	free.
Marble, sawn, in slabs or manufot...ton	0 3 0
Marbles, for children (see toys)	
Marmalade.....lb	0 0 6
Mats and matting	5 0 0
Mattresses	free.
Mead.....gallon	0 5 6
Meat, salted or fresh, not otherwise described.....cwt	free.
Medals of gold or silver	free.
of other sorts	free.
Medlars.....bushel	0 1 0
Mercury, prepared	10 pr. ct.
Metal, leaves, except gold.....per 250	0 0 1
Metal, Bell Metal	free.
Mill Boards.....cwt	1 10 0
Minerals and Fossils, unenumerated	free.
Minerals and fossils, and living creatures (illustrative of natural history)	free.
Models of cork or wood	free.
Molasses (see sugar)	

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries. £ s. d.
Morphia and its salts.....lb	9 5 0
Moss, Lichen Islandicus	free.
other than rock or Iceland moss.	free.
Rock for dyer's use	free.
not enumerated..per £100 value	1 0 0
Mother O'Pearl shells	free.
Mules.....each	0 2 6
Mum (see ale)	
Musk	free.
Musical instruments.....£100	10 0 0
Mustard Flour.....cwt	0 6 C
Myrrh	free.
Needlework and embroidery	20 0 0
Nicaragua Wood	free.
Nickel, Arsenic of, in lumps or powder, being in an unrefined state	free.
Metallic and oxid of, refined	free.
Ore of	free.
Nitre, cubic nitre	free.
Nutmegs.....lb	0 3 6
Wild, in shell.....lb	0 0 3
Nuts, kernels of walnuts, and of peach stones, and nuts or kernels not commonly used for expressing oil therefrom	free.
Cocoa.....1200	0 1 0
Pistachio.....cwt	0 10 0
Small nuts and walnuts...bushel	0 2 0
not otherwise enumerated, except such as are commonly used for expressing oil therefrom.....£100	20 0 0
Nux vomica.....cwt	0 5 0
Oakum	free.
Ochre	free.
Oil, animal, raw, and not otherwise enumerated	free.
Chemical, essential or perfumed.lb	0 1 0
Seed oils, viz.: hempseed, Linseed, rapeseed, unenumerated	free
Train, blubber, Spermaceti, and head matter, the produce of fish or creatures living in the sea, caught by the crews of British vessels, and imported direct from the fishery, or from any B. possession in a British vessel	free.
Train or blubber, of foreign fishing (until 1st January, 1847)....tun [Afterwards free]	6 0 0
of Almonds.....lb	0 0 2
Bays.....lb	0 0 2
Castor	free.
Of cloves.....lb	0 4 0
Cocoa nut	free.
Lard	free.
Olive, except in ships of the two Sicilies	free.
Imported in a Sicilian ship.....tun	4 0 0
Palm	free.
Paran	free.
Rock	free.
Sperm of foreign fishing, (until 1st January, 1849).....tun [Afterwards free.]	15 0 0
Or spirits of turpentine.....cwt	0 5 0
Walnut	free.
Unenumerated	free
Not enumerated or described	20 0 0
Seed cake	free.
Olibanum	free.
Olive oil flasks	free.
Olive wood	free.
Olives.....gallon	0 2 0
Onions.....bushel	0 0 6
Opium.....lb	0 1 0
Orange flower water.....lb	0 0 1
Peel and lemon peel	free

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries. £ s. d.
Oranges and lemons, viz:—in chest and boxes, not ex. 5000 cubic in.	0 2 6
Over 5000 cubic inches and not exceeding 7300	0 3 9
Over 7300 cubic inches and not exceeding 14,000	0 7 6
For every 1000 cubic inches exceeding 14,000	0 0 7½
Loose...the 1000	0 15 0
Entered at value, at the option of the importer for every £100 value	75 0 0
Orchal	free.
Ore, unenumerated	free.
Orpiment	free.
Orris root	free.
Orseadew...cwt	0 10 0
Otto of roses (see oils essential, &c.)	
Painters' colors, manufactured	10 0 0
unenm., unmanufctd.	free.
Palmetto thatch	free.
Burgundy	free.
Manufactures of...£100 value	free.
Paper, viz:—	
Brown, made of rope or cordage only, without separating or extracting the pitch or tar therefrom, and without any mixture of other materials...lb	0 0 3
Printed, painted or stained paper, or flock paper...the square yard	0 0 2
Waste, unless printed on in the English language, or paper of any sort not enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty...lb	0 0 4½
Printed on in the English language	prohibtd
Parchments...dozen sheets	free.
Paste boards...cwt	2 10 0
Patterns of silks, woollen and cotton	free.
Pearls	free.
Pears, raw...bushel	0 0 6
Dried...bushel	0 2 0
Pencils...£100	10 0 0
Of slate...£100	10 0 0
Pens	free.
Pepper of all sorts...lb	0 0 6
Percussion caps...1000	0 0 4
Perfumery, not otherwise charged...£100	10 0 0
Perry...tun	5 5 0
Pewter, manufactures of...£100	10 0 0
Phosphorus	10 0 0
Pickles of all sorts, including the vinegar, and not otherwise enumerated...gallon	0 1 6
Preserved in salt...gallon	0 0 6
Pictures...each	0 1 0
And further...the square foot	0 1 0
Above 200 square feet...each	10 0 0
Pigs, sucking...each	free.
Pimento...cwt	0 5 0
Pink root	free.
Pitch	free.
Plantains	free.
Plaster of Paris	free.
Plate of gold and silver. [Together with the stamp duty.]	10 0 0
Bartered	free.
Wire, gilt or plated / Silver	12½ 0 0
Platina, and ore of platina	free.
Plating or other manufactures to be used in or proper for making hats or bonnets, viz:—	
Of straw	0 5 0
Of chip	free.
To be used in making hats or bonnets, of bast, cane or horse hair	free.
Plums, called French plums and prunelloes...cwt	1 0 0
Dried or preserved...cwt	1 7 6

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries. £ s. d.
Preserved in sugar	0 0 6
Pomatum...£100	10 0 0
Pomegranates...1000	0 5 0
Peel of	free.
Porcelain (see china)	
Pork, fresh or salted (not hams)...cwt	free.
Potatoes...cwt	free.
Pots, meeting pots for goldsmiths...100	0 3 2
Of stone...£100	10 0 0
Poultry	5 pr. ct.
Powder, hair powder...cwt	1 0 0
Perfumed...cwt	1 0 0
As starch...cwt	0 10 0
Prints and drawings, single...each	0 0 1
Bound or sewn...doz	0 0 3
Prunes...cwt	0 7 0
Prussiate of potash	free.
Quassia...cwt	0 10 0
Quicksilver	free.
Quills, goose	free.
Swan	free.
Quinces...1000	0 1 0
Quinine...oz	0 0 6
Radix Contraverva	free.
Enulæ Campanæ	free.
Eringii	free.
Ipecachuanæ	free.
Rhateniæ	free.
Senecæ	free.
Serpentariæ, or snake root	free.
Rags, old rags, old ropes, or junk or old fishing-nets, fit only for making paper pasteboard	free.
Pulp of	free.
Woollen	free.
Raisins...cwt	0 15 0
Rape of Grapes	free.
Red wood, or Guinea wood	free.
Rhubarb	free.
Rice, not rough nor in the husk...cwt	0 6 0
Rough and in the husk..quarter	0 7 0
Ropes (see cordage)	
Rose wood	free.
Rosin	free.
Saccharum Saturni...cwt	0 10 0
Sago	0 0 6
Saflower	free.
Saffron	free.
Sal Ammoniac...cwt	0 1 0
Limonum...cwt	0 1 0
Prunella...cwt	0 1 0
Salep or salop	free.
Salt	free.
Saltpetre	free.
Sanguis Draconis	free.
Santa Maria wood	free
Sapan	free
Sarsaparilla	free
Sassafras	free.
Satin wood	free
Sander's red	free.
White or yellow	free.
Sausages and puddings...lb	0 0 1
Scaleboards...cwt	1 10 0
Scammony	free.
Sealing wax	15 0 0
Seeds, viz—	
* Acorns	free.
* Anniseed	free.
* Beans, Kidney or French	free.
* Burnet	free.
Canary...bushel	0 4
Carraway, carrot, clover...cwt	0 10
* Colchicum	free.
* Cole	free.
* Coriander	free.
* Croton, commonly used for expressing oil therefrom	free.
* Cummin	free

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.
	£ s. d.
* Fenugreek	free.
* Flax	free.
* Forest	free.
* Garden, unenumerated	free.
* Grass, unenumerated	free.
* Hemp	free.
Leek, cwt	1 0 0
* Lentiles	free.
* Lettuce	free.
* Linseed and flaxseed	free.
Lucerne, cwt	0 5 0
* Lupines	free.
* Maw	free.
* Millet	free.
Mustard, bushel	0 1 3
Onion	1 0 0
* Parsley	free.
* Poppy	free.
* Quinse	free.
* Rape	free.
* Sesamum	free.
* Shrub or tree	free.
* Tares	free.
Trefoil, worm, cwt	0 5 0
* Worm	free.
* Unenumerated, commonly used for expressing oil therefrom. (Free on 1st June, 1845.)	free.
Other seeds, not particularly enumerated or described	10 pr. ct.
Segars (see tobacco)	
Senna	free.
Sheep, each	0 3 0
Ships to be broken up, with their tackle, apparel, and furniture, except sails, viz.:—	
Foreign ships or vessels, £100 value	25 0 0
Foreign ships broken up, £100 value	10 0 0
British ships, or vessels entitled to be registered as such, and not having been built in the United Kingdom	free.
Shrubs, trees, and plants	free.
Sumach	free.
Silk, thrown, dyed, viz:—	
Singles, or tram, organsine, & crape, lb	0 2 0
Silk manufactures—	
Manufactures of silk, or of silk mixed with metal, or any other material, the produce of Europe, viz.—	
Silk or satin, plain, striped, figured, or brocaded, viz.—	
Broad stuffs, the lb	0 5 0
Articles thereof, not otherwise enumerated, the lb	0 6 0
Or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every £100 value	15 0 0
Silk gauze or crape, plain, striped, figured or brocaded, viz.—	
Broad stuffs the lb	0 9 0
Articles thereof, not otherwise enumerated, the lb	0 10 0
Or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every £100 value	15 0 0
Gauze of all descriptions, mixed with silk, satin, or any other materials, in less proportion than one half part of the fabric, viz.—	
Broad stuff, the lb	0 9 0
Articles thereof, not otherwise enumerated, the lb	0 10 0
Or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every £100 value	15 0 0
Velvet, plain or figured, viz.,	
Broad stuffs, the lb	0 9 0
Articles thereof, not otherwise enumerated, the lb	0 10 0
Or, and at the option of the officers of the customs, for every £100 value	15 0 0
Ribbons, plain silk, of one color only, the lb	0 6 0
plain satin, of one color only	0 8 0

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries.
	£ s. d.
silk or satin, striped, figured, or brocaded, or plain ribbons, of more than one color, the lb	0 10 0
gauze or crape, plain, striped, figured, or brocaded, the lb.	0 14 6
gauze, mixed with silk, satin, or other materials, of less proprtion than one half part of the fabric, the lb	0 12 6
velvet or silk embossed with velvet, the lb	0 10 0
Artificial flowers, wholly or in part of silk, for every £100 value	25 0 0
Manufactures of silk, or of silk and any other material called plush, commonly used for making hats, the lb	0 2 0
Fancy silk net, or tricot, the lb	0 8 0
Plain silk lace, or net called tulle, the lb	0 8 0
Manufactures of silk, or of silk mixed with any other materials, not particularly enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value	15 0 0
Of or from a British Possession, for every £100 value	0 0
Millinery of silk, or of which the greater part of the material is silk, viz:—	
Turbans or caps, each	0 3 6
Hats or bonnets, each	0 7 0
Dresses, each	1 10 0
Manufactures of silk, or of silk and any other materials, and articles of the same wholly or partially made up, not particularly enumerated or otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value	15 0 0
Silk worm gut, for every £100 value	10 0 0
Raw	free.
Knubs or Husks, and waste silk	free.
Thrown, not dyed	free.
Skins or Furs, either tanned, tawed, dressed or undressed	20 0 0
Skins, or articles manufactured of skins, for every £100 value	10 0 0
Smalts, cwt	0 10 0
Snuff (see Tobacco)	
Soap, hard, cwt	1 0 0
soft, cwt	0 14 0
Naples, cwt	1 0 0
Spermaceti, fine, until 1st Jan. 1849 (Afterwards free.)	25 pr. ct.
Spa Ware, for every £100 value	10 0 0
Speckled Wood	free.
Spelter or Zinc, rolled, but not otherwise manufactured	free.
crude, in cakes	free.
Manufac. of, for every £100 value	10 0 0
Spirits, or strong waters, of all sorts, viz.	
For every gallon of such spirits or strong waters of any strength, not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes's hydrometer, and so in proportion for any greater or less strength than the strength of proof, and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon, viz.:	
Spirits, not being spirits or strong waters, the produce of any British Possession in America, or any British Possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, and not being sweetened spirits, or spirits mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength thereof cannot be exactly ascertained by such hydrometer, gallon	0 15
Spirits or strong waters, not the produce of any British Possessions, and not being sweetened spirits, or spirits mixed with any article, so that the degree of strength there-	

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries. £ s. d.
of cannot be exactly ascertained by such hydrometer.....gallon	1 2 6
Spirits or strong waters, the produce of any British Possession in America, not being sweetened or mixed, as aforesaid.....gallon	.....
Rum, the produce of any British Possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, not being sweetened or mixed, as aforesaid, in regard to which the conditions of the Act 4 Vic. c. 8, have or shall have been fulfilled.....gallon	.....
Rum Shrub, however sweetened, the produce of and imported from such Possessions, under the Act 4 Vic., c. 8, or the produce of and imported from any British Possession in America.....gallon	.....
Spirits, or strong waters, the produce of any British Possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, except Rum, under the Act 4 Vic. c. 8, fulfilled, not being sweetened or mixed, as aforesaid.....gallon	.....
Spirits, Cordials, or strong waters, not being the produce of any British Possession in America, nor of any British Possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, under the Act 4 Vic. c. 8, sweetened or mixed as aforesaid, and perfumed spirits to be used as perfumery only.....gallon	1 10 0
Cordials, or strong waters, (except Rum Shrub,) being the produce of any British Possession in America, or of any British Possession, qualified as aforesaid, sweetened or mixed with any article as aforesaid, gal	.....
Cordials and Liqueurs, (except Rum Shrub,) being the produce of any Possession in America, or of any British Possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, under the Act 4 Vic., c. 8, sweetened or mixed as aforesaid...gallon	
Being of greater strength by Sykes's hydrometer (except Rum Shrub), gallon	.....
Sponge.....	free.
Spruce.....barrel	1 0 0
Essence of, not otherwise desc'd	10 pr. ct.
Squills, dried and not dried.....	free.
Starch.....cwt	0 5 0
Of and from a British Possession,cwt	0 2 6
From and after the 1st Feb. 1849,cwt	0 1 0
Gum of, torrified or calcined,commonly called British Gum.cwt	0 5 0
Of and from a British Possession,cwt	0 2 6
Gum of, torrified or calcined, commonly called British Gum, from and after 1st February, 1849...cwt	0 1 0
Staves, not exceeding 72 inches long, 7 inches broad, nor 8¼ inches thickness	free.
Staves.....ore.....	free.
Steel, manufactures of.....	10 pr. ct.
unwrought.....	free.
scraps.....	free.
Straw or Grass, for platting.....	free.
Stone, viz:—	
In lumps, not in any manner hewn; limestone; slate and marble, in rough blocks or slabs; flintstone; felspar, and stones for potters' use; pebble stones; stones to be used for the purpose of lithography....	free.
In blocks, shaped or rough scalped.....	free.
Stone and Slate hewn.....ton	0 10 0

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries. £ s. d.
Succades, including all fruit and vegetables, preserved in sugar.....lb	0 0 6
Sugar, the growth and produce of any British Possession in America, or of any British Possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, into which the importation of foreign sugar is prohibited, and imported from thence, from the 5th day of September, 1846, viz:—	
1. Double refined sugar, or sugar equal in quality to double refined....cwt	1 1 0
Other refined sugar, or sugar rendered by any processs equal in quality thereto, for every cwt	0 18 8
White clayed sugar, or sugar equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined.....cwt	0 16 4
Brown sugar, being Muscovado, or clayed, or any other sugar not being equal in quality to white clayed, cwt	0 14 0
Candy, brown.....cwt	1 6 0
Candy, white.....cwt	1 15 0
Molasses.....cwt	0 5 3
2. If the growth and produce of any other British Possession within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, from the 5th day of September, 1846, viz:	
White clayed sugar, or sugar equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined.....cwt	1 1 9
Brown sugar, being Muscovado, or clayed, or any other sugar not being equal in quality to white clayed, cwt	0 18 8
3. If of the growth and produce of any foreign country, and which shall be imported into the United Kingdom, either from the country of its growth, or from some British Possession, having first been imported into such British possession from the country of its growth, from Sept. 5, 1846 to July 5, 1847—(*For duties after 1847, see table on p. 10*):	
Double refined sugar, or sugar equal in quality to double refined....cwt	1 11 6
Other refi'd sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal thereto..cwt	1 8 0
White clayed sugar, or sugar equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined.....cwt	1 4 8
Brown sugar, being Muscovado or clayed, or any other sugar not being equal in quality to white clayed.....cwt	1 1 0
Molasses.....cwt	0 7 10
Candy, brown.....cwt	5 12 0
Candy, white.....cwt	8 8 0
4. That the bounties or drawbacks following be paid and allowed upon the exportation of certain descriptions of refined sugar from the United Kingdom (that is to say):	
Upon double refined sugar, or sugar equal in quality to Double refined.....cwt	1 0 0
Upon other refined sugar in loaf, complete and whole, or lumps duly refined, having been perfectly clarified and thoroughly dried, and being of an uniform whiteness throughout, or such sugar pounded, crushed, or broken.....cwt	0 17
Upon bastard or refined sugar broken in pieces, or being ground, or powdered sugar pounded, or crushed, or broken.....	0 14 0
Sulphur casts.....	free.
Sulphur impressions.....	5 pr. ct
Sweet wood.....	free

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries. £ s. d.
Swine.....each	free.
Tallow.....cwt	0 1 6
Talc	free.
Tamarinds.....lb	0 0 3
Tapioca.....cwt	0 0 6
Manufactures of, not otherwise enumerated.....£100 value	10 0 0
Tar	free.
Barbadoes	free.
Tarras	free.
Tartaric acid	free.
Tea.....lb	0 2 1
Teasles	free.
Teeth, Elephant's	free.
Sea-cow, sea-horse, or sea-moose	free.
Telescopes	free.
Terra Japonica and Cutch	free.
Sienna, Verde, Umbra	free.
Thread, not oth'wise enumrd or descrd.	free.
Tiles	10 pr. ct.
Tin ore, and regulus of	free.
In blocks, ingots, bars or slabs.cwt	0 6 0
Foil	0 0 6
Manufacturers of, not enumerated	15 pr. ct.
Tobacco, unmanufactured.....lb	0 3 0
Snuff.....lb	0 6 0
Manufactured, or segars.....lb	0 9 0
Stalks and flour of tobacco.....lb	prohibtd
(Drawback upon exportation or shipment as stores, the lb 2s 7½d.)	
Tobacco pipes, of clay.....£100 value	10 0 0
Tongues	0 7 0
Tornsal	free.
Tortoise shell, or turtle shell, unmanuf.	free.
Toys	10 pr. ct.
Truffles.....lb	0 1 0
Tulip wood	free.
Turmeric	free.
Turnery.....£100	10 0 0
Turpentine, viz.:—	
Above 15s per cwt	0 2 0
Of Venice, Scio or Cyprus, unless above the value of 15s per cwt	free.
Spirits	0 5 0
Turtle, preserved, if imported in a British vessel, and with a declaration of being British caught and cured	free.
Wood and timber—	
In lieu of the duties herein-before imposed upon wood by the load, according to the cubic contents, the importer may have the option, at the time of passing the first entry, of entering Battens, Batten-Ends, Boards, Deals, Deal Ends, and Plank, by tale, if of or from foreign countries, according to the following dimensions, viz:	

	Not above 1¼ inch in thickness. £ s. d.	Above 1¼ in. and not above 2½ thick. £ s. d.
Battens and batten ends, not above 7 inches in width		
Not above 6 feet in length, the 120	1 10 10	3 1 7
Above 6 feet and not above 9 in length, the 120	2 6 2	4 12 5
Above 9 and not above 12	3 1 7	6 3 2
Above 12 and not above 15	3 17 0	7 14 0
Above 15 and not above 18	4 12 5	9 4 10
Above 18 and not above 21	5 7 9	10 15 7
Boards, deals, Deal ends, and plank, not above 9½ in. in width	Not above 1½ in. in thickness.	Above 1¼ in. and not above 3½ in thickness
Not above 6 feet in length, the 120	2 9 5	4 18 10
Above 6 and not above 9	3 14 1	7 3
Above 9 and not above 12	4 18 10	9 17 6
Above 12 and not above 15	6 3 6	12 7
Above 15 and not above 18	7 8 3	14 16 6
Above 18 and not above 21	8 12 11	17 5 11
Not above 6 feet in length. Above 9½ inches and not above 11½ in width, the 120	2 19 10	5 19 7
Above 6 and not above 9	4 9 8	8 19 5
Above 9 and not above 12	5 19 7	11 19 2
Above 12 and not above 15	7 9 6	14 19 0
Above 15 and not above 18	8 19 5	17 18 9
Above 18 and not above 21	10 9 4	20 18 7

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries. £ s. d.
Twine.....£100 value	10 0 0
Ultra marine	free.
Valonia	free.
Vamantan, not of stone or wood	free.
Vanilloes.....lb	0 5 0
Varnish.....£100 value	10 0 0
Vases, ancient, not of stone or marble	1 pr. ct.
Vellum.....skin	0 1 0
Vegetables	5 pr. ct.
Verdigris.....cwt	0 5 0
Vermicelli and Maccaroni.....lb	0 0 1
Verjuice.....tun	4 4 4
Vermilion	free.
Vinegar.....tun	4 4 0
Wafers.....£100 value	10 0 0
Walnut wood	free.
Walnuts.....bushel	0 2 0
Washing balls.....cwt	1 0 0
Watches of gold, silver, or other metals	10 pr. ct.
Water, Cologne.....the flask	0 1 0
Mineral	free.
Wax, sealing.....£100 value	10 0 0
Bees, bleached or unbleached	free.
Myrtle	free.
Vegetable	free.
Weld	free.
Whalefins, foreign, until 1st Jan., 1849 (Afterwards free.)	20 pr. ct.
Of British taking, and imported direct from the fisheries, or from any B. possession in a B. ship	free.
Whipcord.....£100 value	10 0 0
Wire, gilt, plated, or silver.....£100	10 0 0
Wine, viz.:—	
The produce of the C. of G. Hope, imported direct from thence, French, Canary, Madeira, Portugal, Rhenish, Spanish, other sorts.....gallon	0 5 6
(The full duties on Wine are drawn back upon re-exportation or shipment as stores.)	
Lees, subject to the same duty as wine, but no drawback is allowed on the lees of wine exported.	
Wire (see brass and copper, plated and silver wire.)	
Wood.....free.	

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries. £ s. d.
Timber or wood—not being deals, battens, boards, staves, handspikes, oars, latewood, or other timber or wood, sawn, split or otherwise dressed, except hewn, and not being timber or wood, oth. charged with duty, load	1 5 0
Deals battens, boards, or other timber or wood, sawn or split, and not otherwise charged with duty ..... load	1 12 0
Firewood .....per fathom of 216 feet	0 10 0
Handspikes, not ex. 7 ft. in length. 120	1 0 0
Exceeding 7 feet..... 120	2 0 0
Knees under 5 inches square..... 120	0 10 0
5 inches and under 8 inches.. 120	2 0 0
Lathwood, per fathom, of 216 cubic ft..	2 0 0
Oars..... 120	7 10 0
Spars or poles under 22 feet in length, and under 4 inches in diameter. 120	1 0 0
22 feet in length and upwards, and under 4 inches in diameter..... 120	2 0 0
All lengths 4 inches and under 6 inches	4 0 0
Spokes for wheels, not exceeding 2 feet in length..... 1000	2 0 0
Exceeding 2 feet in length..... 1000	4 0 0
Billet or brushwood for stowage...£100	5 0 0
Wood planed, or dressed, or prepared for use, not enumerated, and otherwise charged with duty, cubic foot	0 0 7½
Wood, for ship building.....	free.
Birch, hewn, not exceeding three feet	free.
Teak.....	free.
Wool, Alpaca and the Llama tribe..cwt	0 2 6
Beaver, cut and combed, coney, hare, cotton.....	free.
Goat's, or hair..... lb	0 2 6
Sheep, not being of the value of 1s. the lb. thereof..... lb	0 0 ½
Being of the value of 1s. the lb., or upwards..... lb	0 0 1
Woollens, articles and manufactures of wool not being goats' wool, or of wool mixed with cotton, wholly or in part made up, not otherwise charged with duty, for every £100 value.....	10 0 0
—— the same, not wholly or in part made up	free.

ARTICLES.	Of or from Foreign Countries. £ s. d.
Of and from a British Possession, not otherwise charged, for every £100 val.	5 0 0
Goods, wares, and merchandise, being either in part or wholly manufactured, and not being enumerated and not prohibited, for every £100 value.	10 0 0
Yarn, worsted.....lb	0 0 8
Cable.....cwt	0 3 0
Camel or Mohair.....	free
Raw linen.....	free
Zebras.....	free.
Zebra wood	free.
Goods, wares, and merchandise, being either in part or wholly manufactured, and not being enumerated or described, nor otherwise charged with duty, and not prohibited to be imported into or used in Great Britain or Ireland.....	20 pr. ct.
Goods, wares, and merchandise, not being either in part or wholly manufactured, and not being enumerated or not prohibited.....	5 per ct.
Goods unenumerated, not being either in part or wholly manufactured, not enumerated or prohibited	free.

DUTIES TO CEASE.

Spermaceti. .....after Jan. 1, 1849.	
Sperm oil of foreign fishing.....	Ditto.
Train oil, or blubber of foreign fishing.....after Jan. 1, 1847.	
Whales' fins of foreign taking and not prohibited .....after Jan. 1, 1847	

EXPORT DUTIES.

The duties chargeable upon the goods, wares, and merchandise, hereafter mentioned, exported from the United Kingdom, shall cease and determine, viz:—

Cement, stone, and flint, ground or unground.
Clay and china stone.
Coals' culm, or cinders, exported in a British ship.

THE NEW SUGAR DUTIES.

The provision of the bill, which went into operation on the 5th of September, 1846, are all incorporated in the preceding list, except the duties to be levied after July 5, 1848, named in the following table.

On sugar, the growth and produce of any foreign country, and which shall be imported into the United Kingdom, either from the country of its growth, or from some British possession, having first been imported into such British possession from the country of its growth:—

	From Sept. 5, 1846, to July 5, 1847.	From July 5, 1847, to July 5, 1848.	From July 5, 1848, to July 5. 1849.	From July 5, 1849, to July 5, 1850.	From July 5, 1850, to July 5, 1851.	From July 5, 1851.
	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	£ s. d.	
Double refined sugar, or sugar equal in quality to double refined, for every cwt.	1 11 6	1 10 0	1 7 0	1 5 6	1 3 1	The same duties as on sugar the produce of the British colonies
Other refined sugar, or sugar rendered by any process equal in quality thereto, for every cwt	1 8 0	1 6 8	1 4 8	1 2 8	1 0 8	
White clayed sugar, or sugar, rendered by any process equal in quality to white clayed, not being refined, for every cwt.	1 4 6	1 3 4	1 1 7	0 19 10	0 18 1	
Brown sugar, being muscovado, or or clayed, or any other sugar, not being equal in quality to white clayed, for every cwt.	1 1 0	1 0 0	0 19 6	0 17 9	0 15 6	
Candy, brown, for every cwt.	5 12 0	5 12 0	5 12 0	5 12 0	5 12 0	5 12 0
Candy, white, for every cwt.	8 8 0	8 8 0	8 8 0	8 8 0	8 8 0	8 8 0
Molasses, for every cwt.	0 7 10	0 7 6	0 6 11	0 6 4	0 5 9	The same duty as on molasses the produce of the British colonies.

THE

CONDENSED CAMBIST,

OR

TABLE OF ALL FOREIGN COINS REDUCED TO FEDERAL CURRENCY.

Compiled from the most authentic sources.

	$ c.
ENGLAND.	
GOLD COINS.	
Guinea 21s	5.00
Half guinea 10s 6d	2.50
Seven shilling piece 7s	1.69 3-4
Sovereign 20s	4.84
SILVER.	
Crown 5s	1.21
Half crown 2s 6d	0.70 1-4
Shilling 1s	0.24 4-20
Sixpence 6d	0.12 2-20
FRANCE.	
GOLD.	
Double Louis, coined before 1786	7.20 1-4
Louis, weight 5 dwts. 5⅗ grs	2.62 1-2
Double Louis, coined since 1786	9.00
Louis, weight 4 dwts. 22 grs	4.55 1-2
Double Napoleon piece of 40 francs	7.66 9-20
Napoleon of 20 francs	3.83
SILVER.	
Piece 24 sous, division in proportion ..	0.23
" 30 sous, " ⅘ in proportion	0.27 9-10
" 5 francs of the convention	0.95
" 5 " Napoleon, 1808	0.96 3-4
" 2 " of 1808	0.38 1-2
" Demi franc	0.09 1-2
AUSTRIAN DOMINIONS.	
GOLD.	
Souverain	3.35
Double ducat	4.55 1-8
Ducat, Kremnitz or Hungarian	2.28 3-4
SILVER.	
Rix dollar of Francis II., 1800	0.99 3-4
Rix dollar of the kingdom of Hungary	1.01 1-2
Half rix dollar, convention	0.50 1-2
Copfstuck or 20 creutzers	0.16 1-2
17 creutzer piece	0.14 7-8
Halbe copfi, or 10 creutzer piece	0.08
BAVARIA.	
GOLD.	
Carolin	4.92 1-4
Max d'or, or Maxamillian	3.99 1-2
SILVER.	
Rix dollar, 1800 (⅘ in proportion)	0.97
Copfstuck	0.16 1-2
BERN.	
GOLD.	
Ducat (double, &c. in proportion)	1.99 1-2
Pistole	4.51 1-2
SILVER.	
Pâtâgon or crown (½ in proportion)	1.14 1-2
Piece of 10 Botzen	0.28 1-2
BRUNSWICK.	
GOLD.	
Pistole (double in proportion)	4.53
Ducat	2.23 3-4
SILVER.	
Rix dollar, convention	1.00 3-4
Half rix dollar	0.50 1-2
Gulden or piece ⅓ fine, 1764	0.56 1-2
Gulden, common, 1764	0.26
" " 1795	0.31 1-2
Half gulden, 1798	0.25
COLOGNE.	
GOLD.	
Ducat	2.24 3-4

	$ c.
DENMARK.	
GOLD.	
Ducat, current	1.80 1-2
Ducat, specie	2.25
Christian d'or	3.99 4-20
SILVER.	
Rykdaller, specie, 1798	1.00 3-4
New piece, 4 marks	0.72 1-2
Half rykdaller	0.30
Mark specie, or half rykdaller	0.15
Rix dollar, specie, of Sleswig and Holstien (pieces of ⅓ and ⅔ in proportion)	1.00 1-4
Piece of 24 skillings	0.19
FRANKFORT ON THE MAIN.	
GOLD.	
Ducat	2.26
GENEVA.	
GOLD.	
Pistole, old	3.95 3-4
Pistole new	3.40 1-2
SILVER.	
Pâtâgon	0.97 3-4
Piece of 15 sous of 1794	0.10.04
GENOA.	
GOLD.	
Sequin	2.28 1-2
SILVER.	
Scudo of 8 line, of 1798 (⅛, ¼, &c. in proportion)	1.28 1-2
Scudo of the Legurian Republic	1.27 3-4
BREMEN.	
SILVER.	
Piece of 48 grotes	0.55
HAMBURG	
GOLD.	
Ducat (double in proportion)	2.25 1-2
SILVER.	
Rix dollar, specie	1.08 1-2
Double mark, or 32 schilling piece (single in proportion)	0.38 3-9
Piece of 4 schillings	0.07
Piece of 8 schillings	0.14
HANOVER.	
GOLD.	
George d'or	3.07
Ducat	2.27 7-8
Gold florin (double in proportion)	1.65 1-4
SILVER.	
Rix dollar, constitution	1.11 1-4
Florin, or piece ⅓ fine	0.55 1-2
Half florin, or piece ⅙ fine	0.27 1-2
Quarter, or piece six good groschen do.	0.13
Florin, or piece of ⅓ base	0.55 1-2
HOLLAND.	
GOLD.	
Double ryder	12.12 3-4
Ryder	7.03
Ducat	2.26
SILVER.	
Ducatoon	1.32 1-2
Piece of 3 florins	1.25 1-2
Rix dollar (the assay varied)	1.03 3-4
Half rix dollar	0.52
Florin or guilder (¼ in proportion)	0.41

	$ c.
12 stiver piece	0.25
Florin of Batavia	0.59 1-2
Rix dollar, or 50 stiver piece of the kingdom of Holland	1.03 1-4

NETHERLANDS.

GOLD.

Gold Lion, or 14 florin piece	5.01
Ten florin piece, 1820	3.98 1-2

SILVER.

Ducatoon, old	1.33 1-2
Ducatoon of Maria Theresa,	1.25 1-4
Crown (1-6 in proportion)	1.11
5 stiver piece	0.08 1-2
Florin of 1790	0.34 1-2
Florin of 1816	0.41 1-2
Half florin (with divisions in proportion)	0.20 3-4

MODENA.

SILVER.

Scudo of 15 line, double, &c., of 1739, (1-6 in proportion)	1.08 1-4
Scudo of 5 line, 1792	0.34 5-8
Scudo of 1796	0.80 1-4

MILAN.

GOLD.

Seguin	2.26 3-4
Doppia, or pistole	3.73 1-8
40 line piece, of 1808	7.45

SILVER.

Scudo of six line, (1-6 in proportion)	0.80 1-2
Lira, new	0.24 1-2
Lira, old	0.14 1-2
Scudo of the Cisalpine Republic	0.90
Piece of 20 soldi of do	0.21 1-2

PARMA.

GOLD.

Quadruple pistole (double in proportion)	14.50 1-2
Pistole, or doppia, of 1787	4.17 1-2
" of 1795	4.10
Maria Theresa, 1818	3.92 1-2

SILVER.

Ducat of 1784	0.97 3-4
Ducat of 1796 (1-6 in proportion,	0.99 3-4
Piece of 3 line	0.25

HESSE CASTLE.

SILVER.

Rix dollar, convention	0.99 1-4
Florin or piece ½ fine	0.25
Half florin, or piece of ¼ do	0.49 1-2
Thaler of 1789	0.73
Ecu convention, 1815	0.98 1-4
Bon Gros	0.02 3-4

MALTA.

GOLD.

Double Louis	9.22 3-8
Louis	4.63 1-2
Demi Louis	2.33 1-4

SILVER.

Ounce of 50 tari Emmanuel Pinto	0.94 3-8
2 tari piece	0.04 3-4

LUBIC.

SILVER.

Rix dollar, specie	1.10 1-4
Double mark	0.58 3-4
Mark	0.29

LUCCA.

SILVER.

Scudo	1.04 5-8
Barbone	0.08 1-8

NAPLES.

GOLD.

Six ducat piece, of 1783	5.21 1-2
Two ducat piece, or Seguin, of 1762	1.59
Three ditto, of 1718, or oncetta	2.48 3-4

SILVER.

Ducat new (1-6 in proportion)	0.82 3-4
Piece of 12 carline, of 1791	0.98
Do. of 1796	0.99
Do. of 1815 (1-6 in proportion)	0.99 7-8
Do. of 10 carline, 1818	8.82 3-4

PIEDMONT.

GOLD.

	$ c.
Pistole coined since 1785 (1-6, &c., in proportion)	5.13 1-2
Seguin (1-2 in proportion)	2.26 5-8
Carlino coined since 1785 (1-2, &c., in proportion)	27.16 1-2
Piece of 20 francs, called marengo	3.53 3-4

SILVER.

Scudo of 1755 (1-2 in proportion)	1.37 1-2
Do. 1771 (1-2 and 3-4 in proportion)	1.37 3-4
Piece of 2 line, 1714	0.67 5-8
5 franc piece, 1801	0.96 1-2

POLAND.

GOLD.

Ducat	2.26 1-8

SILVER.

Rix dollar, old	1.01 3-8
Rix dollar, new, 1794	0.71 1-4
Florin or Guilden	0.23 1-4

PORTUGAL.

GOLD.

Dobraon of 24,000 rees	32.44 3-8
Dobra of 12,000 rees	16.05 3-8
Moidore, or les bonnéne, (half in proportion)	6.51 3-8
Piece of 16 Testoons, of 1,600 rees	2.11 1-8
Old crusado, of 400 rees	0.65 3-8
New crusado, of 480 rees	0.63
Milree, coined for the African colonies, 1775	0.77 1-2

SILVER.

New crusado, 1690	0.67
Do. 1718	0.56
Do. 1795	0.56 1-2
Dose Ventems, or piece of 240 rees, 1795,	0.28
New crusado, 1809	0.12
Testoon, 1799	0.57 1-2
Lois Ventems, or piece of 120 rees, 1812	0.13
Testoon, 1802	0.11 8-10
Tres Ventems, or piece of 60 rees, 1812	0.06 1-2
Half testoon, 1812	0.05 5-8

PORTUGUESE COLONIES.

SILVER.

Piece of 8 macutes, of Portuguese Africa	0.44 1-2
Do. of 6 do.	0.08 9-10
Do. of 4 do.	0.45 3-4

PRUSSIA.

GOLD.

Ducat of 1748	2.26 3-4
Ducat of 1747	2.25 1-8
Frederic (double) 1776	7.92
Do. (single) of 1778	3.97
Do. (double) of 1800	7.80 7-8
Do. (single) of 1830	3.93 3-4

SILVER.

(The Prussian coins having been debased at different periods, vary in their reports.)

Rix dollar, Prussian currency (half in proportion)	0.70 3-4
Rix dollar, convention	1.01 3-4
Florin, or piece ½ fine	0.35 1-2
Florin of Silesia	0.47 1-2
Drittel, or piece of 8 groschen	0.23 3-4
Piece of 6 groschen	0.17

ROME.

GOLD.

Seguin coined since 1748	2.21 1-2
Scudo of the republic	15.71

SILVER.

Scudo or crown coined since 1755	1.04 1-2
Mezzo scudo, or half crown	0.56
Testone, 1785	0.30 3-4
Paolo, 1785	0.10 3-8
Grosso or half paolo, 1785	0.05
Scudo of the Roman Republic, 1799	1.03 1-2

RUSSIA.

GOLD.

Ducat of 1796	2.27 3-4
Ducat of 1763	2.25 1-8

	$ c.
Gold ruble of 1796	0.96
do. do. 1799	0.73
Gold pottin of 1777	0.34
Imperial of 1801	7.78 1-8
Half imperial of 1801	3.89 3 4
do. do. of 1808	3.90.96
SILVER.	
Ruble of Peter the Great	0.87 1-2
do. of Catherine I., 1725	0.87
do. of Peter II., 1727	0.87.06
do. of Anne, 1734	0.89
do. of Elizabeth, 1750	0.90 1-4
do. of Peter III., 1762	0.78
do. of Catherine II., 1780	0.77 1-2
do. of Paul, 1799	0.78 7-8
do. of Alexander, 1806	0.76 1-4
do. do. 1805	0.77 1-8
90 Copeck piece of 1778	0.17 3-8
do. do. 1784	0.15 5-8
15 Copeck piece, 1778	0.11 1-4
10 do. do.	0.10.22
10 do. do. 1798	0.07.04
10 do. do. 1802	0.07.90
5 do. do. 1801	0.04 1-4

SARDINIA.

GOLD.

Carlino (half in proportion)	7.42 1-5

SILVER.

Scudo half crown (half and fourth in proportion)	0.91.98

SAXONY.

GOLD.

Ducat of 1794	2.25 1-8
Ducat of 1797	2.23 1-2
Augustus of 1754	3.00 1.8
do. of 1884	3.94 5-8

SILVER.

Rix dollar convention (half and fourth in proportion)	1.00 3-4
Pieces of 16 groschens, of Leipsic	0.36
Rix dollar current of same	0.59
1-6 Thaler of 1804	0.12 5-8
do. of 1808	0.11 3-4
do. of Jerome Bonaparte, 1809	0.12.20

SICILY.

GOLD.

(Much variation is found in the fineness of the Sicilian gold coins.)

Ounce of 1751	2.40 1-5
Double ounce of 1758	5.00.96

SILVER.

Scudo (half in proportion	0.97.77
Piece of 40 grains	.98 3-4

SPAIN.

GOLD.

Doubloon of 1772 (double and single in proportion)	15.93.10
Quadruple pistole of 1801	15.43.54
Pistole of 1801	0.97 1-2
Caronilla gold dollar, or vintem of 1810	3.85

SILVER.

(The American Spanish dollars, and inferior silver pieces of late coinage, vary in fineness from W 4 *dwts.* to W 9 ½ *dwts.*)

Dollar of late coinage	1.03 1-4
Half dollar do. (fourth in proportion)	0.51 1-8
Mexican piceta, 1774	0.25 7-8
Real of Mexico in plate, 1775	0.12 3-4
Piceta provincial of 2 reals of new plate, 1775	0.20 1-8
Real of new plate of 1795	0.10.08

SWEDEN.

GOLD

Ducat	2.22 1-2

SILVER.

Rix dollar of 1762	1.11 1-8
Rix dollar of late coinage	1.09 1-4

SWITZERLAND.

GOLD.

Pistole of the Helvetic republic of 1800	4.54

SILVER.

Ecu, or Rix dollar of Luserne (fourth in proportion)	1.01 1-4
Old Gulden, or Florin of Luserne, 1714	0.43
Ecu of 40 batzen of Luserne. 1796	1.15 3-4
Half do. do.	0.54 97
Florin or piece of 40 schillings of Luserne, 1793	0.97
Ecu of 40 batzen, of the Helvetic republic, 1798 (half in proportion)	1.16
Ecu of 4 franken of 1801	1.16

TREVES.

GOLD.

Ducat	2.25 1-8

TURKEY.

GOLD.

Seguin fonducli of Constantinople, 1773	1.85
Seguin fonducli of 1789	1.83 3-8
Half missier, 1818	0.51 1-4
Seguin fonducli	1.81 3-4
Vernesdheshlek	3.00 3-4

SILVER.

Piastre of Selim of 1801	0.26 5-8
do. of Crim Tartary, 1778	0.27 3-8
do. of Tunis 1787	0.26.04
do. of 1818	0.18.90

TUSCANY.

GOLD.

Zechino or Seguin	2.28 3-4
Rusponse of the kingdom of Etruria	6.89 1-8

SILVER.

Piece of 10 Paoli of the kingdom of Etruria, 1801	1.04 1-2
Scudo of Pisa of do. 1803	1.05 1-4
Piece of 10 Line do. 1803	1.62 1-2
Lira, 1803	0.14 5-8

VENICE.

GOLD.

Rechino or seguin (half to fourth in proportion)	2.29 3-8

SILVER.

Piece of 2 line or 24 creutzers, 1800	0.99 1-4
do. of 2 line called moneta, provincial, 1808	0.99 1-8
do. of 2 lire, 1802 (half in proportion)	0.08 1-2

WURTEMBURG.

GOLD.

Carolin	4.86 3-4
Ducat	2.22 1-8
Ducat (double and half ducat in proportion)	2.25 1-4

SILVER.

Rix dollar, specie	1.05
Copfstuck	0.16 1-2

EAST INDIES.

GOLD.

Mohur of 1770	7.99 7-8
Mohur, half (1787) ½ in proportion	4.00 1-2
Mohur Sicca of Bengal	7.38 3-4
Mohur of the Dutch East India Company, 1783	7.35 1 4
Mohur, half do., 1801	4.12 1 2
Rupee, Bombay, 1818	7.04 1-4
Rupee of Madras, 1818	7.05 1-2
Pagoda star	1. 8 3-4

SILVER.

Rupee sicca, coined by the East India Company of Calcutta, 1818	0.49 1-4
do. Calcutta, 1818	0.49 3-8
do. Bombay, new, or Surat, 1818	0.46
Fanam cunemore	0.08
do. Bombay	0.09 3-4
do. Pondecherry	0.06.36
do. double	0.10 7-8

CANTON, CHINA.

The Spanish dollar and other foreign coins, circulate in Canton.

Accounts are kept in *taels, mace, cardarines*, and *cash*.

10 mace, 1 tael, equal to 100 cardarines, or 1000 cash, 6s. 8d.

Cash is of one kind only and cast, not coined. It is composed of 6 parts of copper and 4 of lead.

The value of the tael varies with the value of one ounce of Spanish dollars, in London, its standard. The tables given for ascertaining its proportional value, may be calculated in pence sterling by the multiplier 1.208—thus, if the price of the Spanish dollar be 60d. per oz. The value of the tael will be $60 \times 1.208 = 72.48$ d. If *a* 66, the tael will be worth 79.728 d., and so on in the same proportion.

Gold Ingots are not considered as money but as merchandize. The ingots are of determined weight called by the English shoes, the largest of which weighs 10 taels each, and is reckoned 93 to 94 tones (pence), and from 6 to 7 parts alloy.

Silver Ingots are used as money, and weigh from one half to 100 taels, and are composed of 94 parts pure silver and six of alloy.

Gold and silver are weighed by the catty of 16 taels. The tael is divided into 10 mace, 100 cardarines, or 1000 cash. 100 Taels weigh 120 oz. 16 dwts. Troy, which makes the tael equal to 579.8 English grains, or 37.566 grammes, F.

The following table of weights is applied to merchandise:

	lb.	oz.	dwts.	
1 Tael weighs, avoirdupois	1		5.333 =	1⅓ oz.
16 Taels, or catty	1	5	5.333 =	1⅓ lb.
100 Catties, or one picul	133	5	5.333 =	133⅓ lb.

NOTE BY THE COMPILER.

The Government valuation of $4 84 cts. to the pound sterling has been adhered to throughout the compilation. This gives 24 4-20 cts. to the shilling sterling, or 12 2-20cts. to the 6d. sterling. Odd pennies were estimated in the table as two cents to the penny. The basis of the compilation was found in assays of foreign coins carefully made at the mints of Paris and London, reduced to sterling money for their true standard value, and from thence into the currency of the United States.

Should the difference of exchange make the pound sterling less or more in value than $4.84 cts., it will of course, to the same extent affect the value of foreign coins in federal money. Foreign exchanges at all times influence the value of all metallic currencies, foreign and domestic. As London is by common consent the chief centre and regulator of exchanges, the pound sterling at $4.84 cts. has been adopted as the standard in forming the present compilation, or Cambist, by which the increase or decrease in the value of foreign coins, according to the varying rates of exchange can be ascertained. To make the compilation as practical as possible, many small fractions less than an eighth of a cent, have been dropped, except where smaller fractions have been introduced for discriminating between very slight differences between coins of different dates, &c., of the same country.

AN ACT TO ESTABLISH THE VALUE OF CERTAIN FOREIGN COINS AND MONEYS OF ACCOUNT, AND TO AMEND EXISTING LAWS.—PASSED 1846.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That in all computation at the Custom-house, the Foreign Coins and money of account herein specified, shall be estimated as follows, to wit:

The specie dollar of Sweden and Norway, at	$1.06.0
The specie dollar of Denmark, at	1.05.0
The thaler of Prussia and of the northern States of Germany, at	0.69.0
The florin of the southern States of Germany, at	0.40.0
The florin of the Austrian empire and of the city of Augsburg, at	0.48.5
The Ducat of Naples,	0.80 0
The ounce of Sicily, at	2.40.0
The lira of the Lombardo Venetian kingdom and the lira of Tuscany, at	0.16.0
The franc of France and Belgium, and the lira of Sardinia, at	0.18 0
The pound of the British provinces of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, and Canada, at	4.00.0

And all laws inconsistent with this act, are hereby repealed.

TABLE OF EXCHANGE,

Shewing the value of the Pound Sterling of Great Britain, in Dollars and Cents, from par value to 12 per cent. premium, according to the advance value in the standard of Gold made by act of Congress during Gen. Jackson's administration.

☞ As the present rates of Sterling Exchange, from custom, continue to be calculated on the old par value standard of $4.44 cents to the pound, it will be perceived that when it nominally reaches 9 per cent., it is only then at par—or $4.84.4 to the pound, according to the new standard. Hence, when it is quoted at higher rates than 9 per cent., exchange is then above par, and when below 9 per cent., it is then under par to the same extent.]

Old Par Ex.	$4.44.4	3¼	$4.58.9	6¼	$4.72.2	9¼	4.85.6
⅛	4.45.6	3⅜	4.60.0	6⅜	4.73.3	9⅜	4.86.7
¼	4.46.7	3½	4.61.1	6½	4.74.4	9½	4.87.8
⅜	4.47.8	4	4.62.2	7	4.75.6	10	4.88 9
½	4.48.9	4⅛	4.63 3	7⅛	4.76.7	10⅛	4.90 0
⅝	4.50.0	4¼	4.64.4	7¼	4.77.8	10¼	4 91.1
¾	4.51.1	4⅜	4.65.6	7⅜	4.78.9	10⅜	4.92.2
1⅛	4.52.2	5	4.66.7	8	4.80.0	11	4.93.3
1¼	4.53.3	5⅛	4.67.8	8⅛	4.81.1	11¼	4.94.4
2	4.54.4	5¼	4.68.0	8¼	4.82.2	11½	4.95.6
2⅛	4.55.6	5⅜	4.70.0	8⅜	4.83.3	11⅜	4.96.7
2¼	4.56.7	6	4.71.1	9 New Par Ex.	4.84.4	2	4.97.8
3	4.57.8						

TABLE SHOWING THE VALUE OF STERLING MONEY, IN FEDERAL CURRENCY FROM 1 PENNY TO 1 POUND.

£	s.	d.	$ cts.	£	s.	d.	$ cts.
0	0	1	0.02	0	6	0	1.45 4-20
0	0	2	0.04	0	7	0	1.69 1-4
0	0	3	0.06 1-20	0	8	0	1.93 3-8
0	0	4	0.08 1-20	0	9	0	2.17 3-4
0	0	5	0.10 1-20	0	10	0	2.42
0	0	6	0.12 2-20	0	11	0	2.66 4-20
0	0	7	0.14 2-20	0	12	0	2.90 1-4
0	0	8	0.16 2-20	0	13	0	3.14 9 20
0	0	9	0.18 3-20	0	14	0	3.38 1-2
0	0	10	0.20 3-20	0	15	0	3.62 1-2
0	0	11	0.22 3-20	0	16	0	3.87 2-20
0	1 or 12		0.24 4-20	0	17	0	4.12
0	2	0	0.48 8-20	0	18	0	4.36 1-4
0	3	0	0.72 1-2	0	19	0	4.60
0	4	0	0.96 3-4	1 or 20		0	4.84 4-20
0	5	0	1.21				

A TABLE OF FOREIGN WEIGHTS AND MEASURES,

REDUCED TO THE STANDARD OF THE UNITED STATES.

Ahm, in Amsterdam ..... 41 gallons.
Almudo, in Portugal ..... 4½ do.
Almude, in Madeira ..... 4.68 do.
Alquiere, in Madeira ..... over 1¼ pecks.
Alquiere, in Portugal ..... 1½ to 1¾ pecks.
Alquiere, in Bahia ..... 1 bushel.
Alquiere, in Maranham ..... 1½ do.
Alquiere, in Rio J. and Fernambuco, 1 *a* 1½ do.
Anna, of rice, in Ceylon ..... 280 2-5 lb.
Arroba, in Portugal ..... 32 lb. 12 oz
Arroba, in Spain ..... 24 lb.
Arroba, in Spain (large) ..... 4.246 galls.
Arroba, in Spain (small ..... 4 do.
Arroba, in Malaga, in wine, ... about 4½ do.
Arsheen, in Russia ..... 28 inches.
Bahar in Batavia ..... 3 *a* and 4½ piculs.
Bale of cinnamon, in Ceylon net ..... 104⅝ lbs.
Barile, in Leghorn, of wine ..... 12.04 gallons.
Centar, in Levant contains ..... 44 okes. 116.80 lbs.
Barile, in Leghorn, of oil ..... 88 do.
Centar, in Malta ..... 174½ do.
Cantar, in Naples ..... 107 *a* 196½ do.
Centar in Sicily ..... 175 *a* 192¼ do.
Carro, in Naples, of grain ..... 62½ bushels.
Carro, in Naples, of wine ..... 264 gals.
Catty, of tea, in China ..... 1⅓ lb.
Cayang, in Batavia ..... 3-581 do.
Chet wort, in Russia ..... 5.95 bushels.
Fanega, in Spain ..... over half a bushel.
Hectolitre, in France ..... 2.84 do.
Killogramme, in France and Netherlands .. 2.21 lbs.
Last, in Amsterdam, of grain ..... 85½ bushels.
Last, in Bremen, of grain ..... 80 do.
Last, in Cadiz, of salt ..... 76 4-5 do.
Last, in Dantzic, of grain ..... nearly 93 do
Last, in Flushing, of grain ..... 92¼ do
Last, in Hamburg, of grain ..... 89.64 do
Last, in Lubec, of grain ..... over 91 do
Last, in Portugal, of salt ..... 70 do.
Last, in Rotterdam, of grain ..... 85.136 do.
Last, in Sweden ..... 75 do.
Last, in Utretcht, of grain ..... over 59 do
Lispound, in Hamburg ..... 16 lbs. 5 oz.
Lispound, in Holland ..... 18 lbs. 4 oz.
Mark, in Holland ..... 9 oz.
Mand, in Calcutta ..... 75 *a* 84 lbs.
Mina, in Genoa, of grain ..... 3.43 bushels.
Mount, in France ..... 1 ton.
Moy, in Lisbon ..... 24 do.
Moy, in Oporto ..... 30 do.
Oke, in Smyrna ..... 2.83 lbs.
Orna, in Trieste, of wine ..... 14.94 galls.
Orna, of oil ..... 17 do.
Picul, in Batavia and Madras ..... 133⅓ lbs.
Picul, in China and Japan ..... 133⅓ lbs.
Pipe, in Spain, of wine ..... 160 *a* 164 galls
Pood in Russia ..... 36 lbs.
Quarter of grain, in England ... . 8 bushels.
Quintal, of Portugal ..... 89.95 do.
Quintal, in Smyrna ..... 129.48 do.
Quintal, in Spain ..... 96 do.
Quintal, in Turkey ..... 167 lbs. 3oz.
Rottoll, in Portugal ..... 12 lbs. 4oz
Rottoll, in Genoa ..... 24 lbs.
Salma, in Malta, of grain ..... 8 22 bushels.
Salma, in Sicily, of grain ..... 97 do.
Shippound, in Hamburgh and Denmark. 331 lbs.
Shippound, in Holland ..... 368 lb. 4 oz.
Staro, in Trieste ..... 7⅞ bushels.
Tale, in China ..... 1⅓ oz.

FREIGHTS.—QUANTITY OF GOODS TO COMPOSE A TON.

Extract from the By-Laws of the New York Chamber of Commerce.

Resolved, That when vessels are freighted by the ton, and no special agreement is made between the owner of the vessel and freighter of the goods, respecting the proportion of tonnage which each particular article shall be computed at, the following regulation shall be the standard of computation :—

That the articles, the bulk of which shall compose a ton, to equal A TON of heavy materials, shall be in weight as follows : 1568 lbs. of coffee in casks, 1830 lbs. in bags; 1120 lbs. of cocoa in casks, 1307 lbs. in bags.

952 lbs. pimento in casks, 1110 in bags.

Eight barrels of flour, 196 lbs. each.

Six barrels of beef, pork, tallow, pickled fish, pitch, tar and turpentine.

Twenty hundred weight of pig and bar iron, potashes, sugar, logwood, fustic, Nicaragua wood, and all heavy dyewoods, rice, honey, copper ore, and all other heavy goods.

Sixteen hundred weight of coffee, cocoa, and dried codfish, in bulk, and twelve hundred weight of dried codfish in casks of any size.

Six hundred weight of ship bread in casks, seven hundred in bags, and eight hundred in bulk.

Two hundred gallons (wine measure), reckoning the full contents of the casks, oil, wine, brandy, or any kind of liquors.

Twenty-two bushels of grain, peas, or beans, in casks.

Thirty-six bushels of grain in bulk.

Thirty-six bushels of European salt.

Thirty-one bushels of salt from the West Indies.

Twenty-nine bushels of sea-coal.

Forty feet (cubic measure) of mahogany, square timber, oak plank, pine, and other boards, heavers, furs, peltry, beeswax, cotton, wool, and bale goods of all kinds.

One hogshead of tobacco, and ten hundred weight of dry hides.

Eight hundred weight of China raw silk, ten hundred weight of net bohea, and 800 green tea.

TABLE OF DUTIES

ON IMPORTS INTO CANADA.

Compiled conformable to the Revenue Laws in force from the 6th April 1846

NOTE.—Articles from Foreign Countries pay the rates opposite to them, in both columns. Articles, the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom, or of the British Possessions, pay the PROVINCIAL Duty only. Foreign articles (except Sugar and Tea) from the Warehouse in the United Kingdom pay three-fourths of the Imperial Duty, and the Provincial Duty in full. British Goods imported into this Province from a foreign country are deemed foreign.

ARTICLES.	IMPERIAL.	PROVINCIAL.
Ale and Beer	per ct. 4	3d gall*
Do. in bottles	4	1s gall*
Almonds	4	1d pr lb
Almonds, Bitter	free	1d "
Ammunition, arms, &c., foreign	prohibited	prohib
Do. British	free	5 pr ct
Anatomical preparations	per ct. 4	free
Anchovies, in oil	4	10 pr ct
Apples, fresh	free	6d bush
Apples, dried	per ct. 4	1s "
Arrow root	4	5 pr ct
Articles, all, not enumerated or included under any general head	4	5 "
Ashes	4	1 "
Bacon	per cwt 3s	5s cwt
Baggage of travellers	free	free
Bark	per ct. 4	1 pr ct
Barley, beans, bere or bigg, buckwheat	free	3s pr qr
Beeswax	per ct. 4	5 pr ct
Berries, nuts, and vegetables, used in dyeing	4	1 "
Biscuit	free	10 "
Blacking	per ct. 4	5 "
Blacklead pencils	4	5 "
Bolting cloth	4	5 "
Bone and ivory, articles of	4	5 "
Boots and shoes, women's of leather	7	7s 6d doz
Boots and shoes, women's stuff, jean, kid or morocco	7	7s 6d " *
Do. of silk or satin	15	7s 6d " *
Do. girls, of 7 inches and under, of leather	7	2s 6d "
Do. do. of jean, stuff, morocco, or kid	7	3s " *
Do. do. of silk or satin	15	3s " *
Boots, men's, leather	7	2s6d pair
Men's shoes, leather	7	1s "
Boots, boys', under 8 in. of leather	7	1s 3d "
Boys' shoes, of leather	7	9d "
Boots and shoes of india rubber, all	4	6d "
Books	7	5 pr ct
Books, reprints of British works, the copyrights of which are in force	Prohibited	prohib
Bran or shorts	free	3d cwt
Bricks	per ct. 4	5 pr ct
Bristles	4	5 "
Brooms	4	5 "
Brushes	4	5 "
Burr blocks	4	1 pr ct
Butter	per cwt. 8s	2s cwt
Cabinet furniture	per ct. 4	5 pr ct
Camphine	per ct. 4	5 pr ct
Candles, sperm	15	2d lb
Wax	7	2d lb
Other	7	1d lb*
Canes	4	5 pr ct
Carriages, all kinds	4	10 pr ct
Carriages, of travellers	free	free
Cassia and cinnamon	4	2d lb
Castings (see Hardware)		
Castor oil	free	10 pr ct
Cement	per ct. 4	5 "
Chairs	4	5 "
Cheese	per cwt. 5s	2s 6d cwt
Chocolate	per ct. 4	2d lb
Cider	4	1d gal *
Clay	4	5 pr ct
Clocks	7	10 pr ct
Clothing,—according to materials		
Cloves	4	2d lb
Coals	4	1 pr ct
Cochineal	4	5 "
Cocoa	per cwt. 1s	1 pr lb
Coffee, green	" 5s	1d pr lb
Do. roasted	" 5s	2d "
Do. ground	" 5s	4d "
Coin, base	prohibited	prohib
Coin and bullion	free	free
Combs, metal	per ct. 7	5 pr ct
Combs, other	4	5 "
Copper (see Hardware).		
Cordage	7	5 "
Cordials	per gal. 1s	2s gal
Corks	per ct. 7	5 pr ct
Cork	4	5 "
Cotton Wool	free	1 "
Cotton batts and wadding	per ct. 7	5 "
Cotton manufactures	7	5 pr ct
Crackers and biscuit	free	10 pr ct
Currants	per ct. 4	5s cwt
Diamonds	free	5 pr ct
Drugs	free	5 "
Dyewoods	per ct. 4	5 "
Earthenware	4	5 "
Eggs	4	10 "
Engravings	7	5 "
Extracts and essences (such as are drugs)	free	10 "
Do. (not classed as drugs)	per ct. 4	10 "
Feathers	4	5 "
Flour of wheat	per bbl. 2s	6d bbl
Flour and meal, other	free	2s 196 lb
Figs	per ct. 4	5s cwt
Fig, blue	4	5 pr ct
Fins and skins of sea animals	15	5 "

* The Provincial Duty on all goods marked (*) in the Table is 5 per cent. when *imported by sea*.

Against the articles of Dyewoods and Indigo, I have placed the duties which are actually levied upon them. My own opinion, however, is, that they are entitled to entry at 4 per cent. Provincial Duty.

ARTICLES.	IMPERIAL.	PROVINCIAL.
Fire crackers	per ct. 7	5 pr ct
Fish, fresh	free	free
Fish, dried, or salted	per cwt. 2s	1 pr ct
Fish, pickled	per bbl. 4s	1 "
Fruit, fresh, unenumerated	free	10 "
Fruit, dried, unenumerated	per ct. 4	10 "
Fur skins or pelerines, undressed	4	1 "
Furs, dressed or manufactured	4	5 "
Furniture	4	5 "
Ginger	4	5 "
Glass and glassware	15	5 "
Glue	4	5 "
Gold leaf—as Hardware.		
Grass, articles made of	4	5 "
Grindstones	4	5 "
Gums and resins	free	5 "
Hair, and articles made of	per ct. 4	5 "
Hams	per cwt. 3s	5s cwt
Harness	per ct. 7	5 pr ct
Hardware	7	5 "
Hats—all fur	4	5 "
Hats, leather, wool, or cotton	7	5 "
Hats, of silk	15	5 "
Hats, palm leaf, chip, &c.	4	5 "
Hay	free	6s ton
Hemp, flax, and tow	free	1 pr ct
Hides, raw	free	1 "
Honey	per ct. 4	5 "
Hops	4	3d lb
Horses and carriages of travellers, or engaged in carrying merchandise	free	free
Household Goods and tools, belonging to settlers, and not for sale	free	free
Indian corn	free	3s 480 lb
Indian rubber (except boots and shoes)	per ct. 4	5 pr ct
Indigo	4	5 "
Ink	4	5 "
Iron, all except pig	7	5 "
Ivory, and articles made of	4	5 "
Jewelry	7	5 "
Lampblack	4	5 "
Lamps, glass	15	5 "
Lamps, other	7	5 "
Lard	4	1 "
Lead (see Hardware).		
Leather, viz: Goat skins	4	5s doz
Lamb or sheep skins	4	2s 6d "
Calf skins	4	6d lb
Kipp skins	4	3d lb
Harness and upper leather	4	2d lb
Sole leather	4	1½d lb
Leather cut into shapes	7	6d lb
Leather, not enumerated	4	5 pr ct
Leather manufactures, not enumerated	7	5 "
Lemons and oranges, fresh	free	10 "
Lemon peel	per ct. 4	5 "
Linen manufactures	7	5 "
Live stock, viz: Calves	free	5s each
Cows and heifers	free	20s each
Goats and kids	free	2s 6d "
Hogs and swine	free	5s each
Horses—all ages	free	30s "
Lambs	free	1s "
Oxen, bulls and steers	free	30s "
Pigs (sucking)	free	6d "
Sheep	free	2s "
Maccaroni and Vermicelli	per ct. 4	1d lb
Mace	4	3d lb
Machinery	7	10 pr ct
Do. chiefly of wood	4	10 "
Madder, roots	free	1 "
Madder, ground	per ct. 4	1 "
Manures, of all kinds	free	free
Maps and charts	7	5 pr ct
Marble	4	5 "
Matches	4	5 "
Matting	4	5 "
Meal	free	2s 196 lb
Meat, cured	per cwt. 3s	2s cwt
Meat, fresh	free	4s cwt

ARTICLES.	IMPERIAL.	PROVINCIAL.
Medicines	per ct. 4	5 pr ct
Mills, fanning	4	10 "
Mills, bark	7	5 "
Mill stones	4	5 "
Mineral Water	4	5 "
Models of machinery, and of inventions in the arts	4	free
Molasses and treacle	per cwt. 3s	1s cwt
Musical instruments, brass, &c.	pr ct 7	5 pr ct
Do. wood, &c.	4	5 pr ct
Mustard	4	5 "
Nut galls	4	1 "
Nuts	4	½d lb
Nutmegs	4	4d lb
Oakum	7	free
Oats	free	2s qr
Oil, olive, in casks	per ct. 4	4d gall
Do in jars or bottles	4	1s gall
Lard	4	4d gall
Linseed	4	2d gall
Fish, all	15	1 pr ct
Palm	4	1 "
Oils, vegetable, volatile, chemical and essential	free	10 "
Oil Cloth	per ct. 7	5 "
Oysters, lobsters, and turtle, fresh, free		1 "
Do. do. pickled	4	1 "
Packages, in which goods are imported	free	free
Paints, not enumerated	per ct. 4	5 pr ct
Paintings	4	5 "
Paper manufactures	7	5 "
Peas	free	3s pr qr
Pears	free	1s bush
Pepper	per ct. 4	½d lb
Perfumery	4	10 pr ct
Pig iron	4	1 "
Pimento	4	½d lb
Pickles and sauces	4	10 pr ct
Pipes, smoking	4	5 "
Pitch	4	5 "
Plaster casts	4	5 "
Playing cards	7	10 "
Pork, salted	per cwt. 3s	2s cwt
Pork, fresh	free	4s cwt
Potatoes	free	3d bush
Poultry and game	per ct. 4	10 pr ct
Preserves	4	5 "
Prunes	4	1d lb
Putty	4	5 pr ct
Quills	4	5 "
Raisins, in boxes	4	1d lb
Raisins, in kegs, &c	4	½d lb
Rice	free	5 pr ct
Rosin	free	5 "
Rum, not over proof by Sykes' hydrometer; and to increase in proportion as the strength exceeds proof	per gal. 6d	6d gall
Rye	free	3s qr
Saleratus	per ct. 4	5 pr ct
Salt, by inland importation	free	{ 2s 6d bl { 280 lb
Salt, imported by sea	free	1s ton
Sardines, in oil	per ct. 4	10 pr ct
Sausages	4	10 "
Saw logs	free	1 "
Seeds, not enumerated	per ct. 4	10 "
Sieves, wire	7	5 "
Sieves, hair	4	5 "
Segars	7	2s lb
Shingles	free	5 pr ct
Shoes (see Boots)		
Silk manufactures	per ct. 15	5 "
Skins, raw, calf, sheep, &c	free	1 "
Slates	per ct. 4	5 "
Snuff	7	4d lb
Soap	7	5 pr ct
Soda ash	4	1 "
Spelter (see Hardware)		
Spirits, all, except rum, at Hydrometer proof, and in proportion when strength exceeds proof	gal. 1s	1s 3d "

ARTICLES.	IMPERIAL.	PROVINCIAL.
Spirits of turpentine	per ct. 4	5 pr ct
Sponge	4	5 "
Starch	4	5 "
Straw	free	3s ton
Straw goods	per ct. 4	5 pr ct
Sugar candy	20	2d lb
Sugar, foreign refined, in bond, in the U. Kingdom and imported direct	10	2d lb
Sugar, refined	20	2d lb
Sugar, raw, or Muscovado	per cwt. 5s	1d lb
Sugar, bastard and all others	5s	1b lb
Sumach	per ct. 4	1 pr ct
Syrups	4	9 gall
Tallow	free	1 pr ct
Tar	per ct. 4	5 "
Tea, from foreign countries	per lb. 1d	1d lb
Tea, direct from China, the United Kingdom, or British Possessions	free	1d lb
Tobacco, unmanufactured	per ct. 4	1d lb
Do. manufactured	7	1d lb
Tortoise shell	free	5 pr ct
Toys, according to materials.		
Trees, shrubs, plants, bulbs, and Roots	per ct. 4	free
Turpentine	4	5 pr ct
Types—as Hardware.		
Varnish	free	5 "
Vegetables, fresh	free	10 "
Veneers	free	1 "
Vinegar	per ct. 4	3d gall
Wafers	4	5 pr ct
Watches	7	10 "
Wheat	free	3s pr qr
Whetstones	per ct. 4	5 pr ct
Whips	7	5 "
Wicker work	4	5 "
Wine, all kinds	7	10 pr ct & 8d gall
Wood, viz:		
Timber—White pine	free	25s per 1000 ft
Red pine	free	35s do
Oak	free	55s do
Birch	free	50s do
Other woods	free	25s do
Staves—Standard per Std Mille	free	25s pr M
Puncheon, or W. I. White oak	free	10s "
Do. red oak	free	7s 6d "
Do. ash	free	4s "
Barrel staves	free	4s "

ARTICLES.	IMPERIAL.	PROVINCIAL.
Deals—Pine, per Quebec, Standard 100	free	15s 100
Spruce, per ditto	free	7s 6d "
Handspikes	free	3d doz
Oars	free	3d pair
Sawed lumber, board measure	free	7s 6d 1000 ft
Wood, all manufactures of	per ct. 4	5 pr ct
Wood, mahogany and hard woods, for furniture	free	1 "
Woollen manufactures	per ct. 7	5 "
Wool	per ct. 4	5 "
Yeast	4	5 "

EXEMPTIONS.

The following exemptions refer to the Provincial duty only:

I. Copies of the Holy Scriptures, printed in the United Kingdom.

II. Donations of books or clothing, specially imported for the use of, or to be distributed gratuitously by any Charitable Society in the Province.

III. Philosophical apparatus, instruments, books, maps, statuary, busts and casts of marble, bronze, alabaster or plaster of Paris, paintings, drawings, engravings, etchings, specimens of sculptures, cabinets of coins, medals, gems, all other collections of antiquities, provided the same be specially imported in good faith for the use of any society incorporated or established for Philosophical or literary purposes, or for the encouragement of the fine arts, or for the use of or by the order of any university, college, academy, school, or seminary of learning, within this Province.

IV. Arms or clothing which any contractor or contractors, commissaries, shall import or bring into the Province, for the use of Her Majesty's army or navy, or for the use of the Indian nations in this Province: Provided the duty otherwise payable would be defrayed or borne by the Treasury of the United Kingdom or of this Province.

V. Specimens in natural history, mineralogy, and botany.

VI. Seeds of all kinds, farming utensils and implements of husbandry, animals for the improvement of stock,—when specially imported in good faith by any society incorporated or established for the encouragement of agriculture.

REMARKS.

I. The specific duties are levied according to the Imperial weights and measures, and in sterling money.—20s. stg. =24s. 4d. cy. or $4 87. The Imperial Quarter of Grain is equal to 8¼ of our Winchester bushels.

II. In calculating the advalorem Duties under the Imperial Act, *one-tenth* is first added to the amount of the invoice.

III. When the Tares cannot be ascertained from the Invoice, the following are allowed:—On Coffee in bags, 3 per cent.; Coffee in casks, 12 per cent.; Raw Sugar and Molasses, 12 per cent.; Loaf Sugar in casks or boxes, 15 per cent.; Leaf Tobacco in casks, 12 per cent.

IV. Bonds, satisfactory to the Collector, will be taken for the Provincial Duties (except the Provincial Duties on live stock, grain, meal, provisions, and other agricultural produce), when the same shall exceed £30 currency, at 6 months but all dated from 1st September till 1st April, are due on the 1st April. All other duties are payable in cash.

V. Goods imported, whether by sea or inland, may be entered for warehousing, and exported from the warehouse without payment of duty. American products may descend the St. Lawrence in bond, and be exported into the United States by way of Laprairie and St. John's.

UNITED STATES DRAWBACK BILL.

I insert the two clauses of this Bill which bear upon the trade with this Province:

SEC. 7. And be it further enacted, That any imported merchandise which has been entered, and the duties paid or secured according to law, for drawback, may be exported to the British North American Provinces adjoining the United States; and the ports of Plattsburgh, in the district of Champlain; Burlington, in the District of Vermont; Sackett's Harbor, Oswego and Ogdensburgh, in the district of Oswegatchie; Rochester, in the district of Genesee; Buffalo and Erie, in the district of Presqu'isle; Cleveland, in the district of Cuyahoga; Sandusky and Detroit, together with such ports on the seaboard, from which merchandise may now be exported for the benefit of drawback, are hereby declared ports from whence foreign goods, wares, and merchandise on which the import duty has been paid, or secured to be paid, may be exported to ports in the adjoining British Provinces, and to which ports foreign goods, wares and merchandise may be transported inland, or by water, from the port of original importation, under existing provisions of law, to be thence exported for the benefit of drawback: Provided, That such other ports situated on the frontiers of the United States, adjoining the British North American Provinces, as may hereafter be found expedient, may have extended to them the like privileges, on the recommendation of the Secretary of the Treasury, and proclamation duly made by the President of the United States, specially designating the ports to which the aforesaid privileges are to be extended.

SEC. 8. And be it further enacted, That all laws now in force in relation to the allowance of drawback of duties on goods imported into the United States and exported therefrom, and in relation to the conditions and evidence on which such drawback is to be paid, shall be applicable to the drawback allowed by this act. And, in addition to existing provisions on the subject, to entitle exporters of goods to the drawback allowed by this act, they shall produce to the collector of the port, from which such goods, wares and merchandise were exported, the certificate, under seal of the collector or other chief revenue officer of the port to which the said goods, wares and merchandise were exported in the said adjoining Provinces; which certificate shall be endorsed upon a duplicate or certified copy of the manifest granted at the time of such exportation, and shall state that the same identical goods contained in the same manifest had been landed at such foreign port, and duly entered at the custom house there, and that the duties imposed by the laws in force at such port upon the said goods had been paid, or secured to be paid, in full; and the said exporters shall also produce the affidavit of the master of the vessel in which the said goods were exported, that the same identical goods specified in the manifest granted at the time of such exportation, had been carried to the port named in the clearance or manifest, and had been landed and entered at the custom house, and that the duties imposed thereon at the said foreign port had been paid, or secured to be paid; and that the goods referred to in the certificate of the collector or chief revenue officer of such foreign port herein mentioned, were the same identical goods described in the manifest aforesaid, and in the said affidavit.

SEC. 10—Provides, that in paying the drawback, 2½ per cent. of the duties be retained.

The undersigned, in again presenting to his friends and correspondents a Revised Tariff of Import Duties, avails himself of the occasion to express his gratitude for the encouragement which he has received from them during the past five seasons; and in regard to the present season, he is happy to say that he possesses increased facilities for forwarding, inwards or outwards, all property that may be consigned to him, with the greatest possible dispatch. In order to this, however, it is necessary that he should be furnished with Invoices, a fact which he particularly requests shippers to bear in mind.

It would facilitate the entry of goods and lessen the delay, if packages, containing assorted goods, were numbered and invoiced to correspond, so that the exact contents of each package could be known without its being opened and unpacked.

Any of the correspondents of the undersigned, who may not have received a copy of this table, may have one sent, by acquainting him with the omission. He will, at all times, be happy to furnish additional information regarding our trade through this port with the United States, to those who may favor him with their correspondence.

The moderate and uniform rate of charges which the undersigned has adopted, having always proved satisfactory to his employers, he shall strictly adhere to; and shall, in return, look for a prompt settlement of his accounts when presented.

WILLIAM COOTE,

Custom House and Forwarding Agent.

Railroad Wharf St. John's, C. E., 1845.